

**INDUCTION INTO TEACHING: ADAPTATION CHALLENGES OF
NOVICE TEACHERS**

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ABSTRACT

INDUCTION INTO TEACHING: ADAPTATION CHALLENGES OF NOVICE TEACHERS

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This study aimed to investigate adaptation challenges of novice teachers in induction period, to analyze the variables influencing their adaptation, and to assess pre-service and in-service training in terms of preparing them for induction into teaching. Through a questionnaire, the data were collected from 465 novice teachers teaching in randomly selected 8 provinces of Turkey. The general results revealed that novice teachers had job-related concerns a little more often than the social concerns. The four most frequent adaptation challenges appeared as (1) workload, (2) social status and identity, (3) supervisor, and (4) classroom management challenges. Novice Teachers' adaptation challenges differed in relation to age, subject area, university, faculty, practice teaching, existence of a mentor teacher in pre-service years, school type, grade level, amount of in-service training, and love of teaching profession. More than half of the participants perceived their pre-service and in-service training insufficient.

Keywords: Novice Teachers, Induction Period, Adaptation Challenges, Pre-service Training, In-service Training, Mentoring, Mentor Teachers

ÖZ

ÖĞRETMENLİKTE İLK YIL: ÖĞRETMENLERİN UYUM SORUNLARI

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Bu çalışma, aday öğretmenlerin mesleğe girişteki uyum güçlüklerini araştırmak, uyum düzeylerini etkileyen değişkenleri incelemek ve hizmet öncesi ile hizmet içi eğitimlerin yeterliliği hakkındaki algılarını saptamak amacıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Seçkisiz örnekleme yöntemiyle saptanan, Türkiye'nin 8 ilinde görev yapmakta olan 465 aday öğretmene uygulanan anket yoluyla, veriler toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın genel sonuçları, aday öğretmenlerde meslekle ilgili kaygıların sosyal kaygılara göre daha sık görüldüğünü ortaya koymuştur. En sık rastlanan uyum güçlükleri sırasıyla (1) iş yükü zorlukları, (2) sosyal statü ve kimlik karmaşası, (3) müdür ya da müfettişlerle ilişkilerde yaşanan zorluklar ve (3) sınıf yönetimi zorluklarıdır. Aday öğretmenlerin uyum güçlükleri, yaşlarına, alanlarına, mezun oldukları üniversiteye ve fakülteye, hizmet öncesindeki okul deneyimlerine, hizmet öncesinde bir uygulama öğretmeni ile çalışıp çalışmadıklarına, atandıkları okul türüne, derse girdikleri sınıf düzeylerine, şüana kadar almış oldukları hizmet içi kurslara ve öğretmenlik mesleğini ne derece severek seçtiklerine göre farklılıklar göstermiştir. Katılımcıların yarısından fazlası hizmet içi ve hizmet öncesi eğitimlerini yetersiz olarak değerlendirmişlerdir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Aday Öğretmenler, Öğretmenlikte İlk Yıl, Uyum Sorunları, Hizmet Öncesi Eğitim, Hizmet İçi Eğitim, Uygulamalı Eğitim, Uygulama Öğretmeni

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- **ACT:** Alternatively Certified Teacher
- **EF:** Education Faculty
- **ICT:** Information and Communication Technologies
- **INSET:** In-service Training
- **MONE:** Ministry of National Education
- **MP:** Mentoring Program
- **MT:** Mentor Teacher
- **NED:** National Education Directorate
- **Non-EF:** Other Faculties (Non-Education Faculty)
- **NQT:** Newly Qualified Teacher
- **NT:** Novice Teacher
- **NTT:** Novice Teacher Training
- **PRESET:** Pre-service Training
- **PT:** Practice Teaching
- **SCT:** Second Career Teacher
- **TT:** Teacher Training

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides information about the background to the study including related literature of themes and concepts, the problem statement, the purpose and the significance of the study together with the definitions of terms.

1.1. Background to the Study

Teacher education, although defined as “the process for the preparation of those individuals who want to practice in the teaching profession” (Moyles & Robinson, 2002, p. 75), is an important component of the quality of educational systems, and divided into two stages: (1) pre-service teacher education (PRESET), and (2) in-service teacher education (INSET). As every teacher finds out, there appear two elements to become a successful educator. These are the processes of becoming a teacher and a professional, both of which start with student teaching and continue until retirement (Wyatt III & White, 2007). The novice teachers, who have recently completed PRESET and who are inducted into teaching profession, go through a stage in-between, which constitutes the intersection of the two previously-mentioned stages; since their development has a close connection to both PRESET and INSET and they are closer to both stages than any student teachers or experienced teachers. Both stages of training have a significant effect on novice teachers’ induction into the profession. Therefore, the findings in this study will be a good basis for providing a better PRESET and INSET, and improving planning and leading activities within them.

1.1.1. Teaching Profession

It could be all agreed that “different occupations require different degrees of knowledge and skills” (Winch, 2004, p. 182) and that “there is no one right way to behave as a teacher as it is true with all professions including the medicine, the law, and the clergy” (NAE [National Academy of Education], n.d., p. 5). Then it is fairly reasonable to ask two questions regarding teaching profession: (a) what kind of occupation the teaching is, and (b) who the teacher is. It is rather hard to make a consensus on the definition of teaching profession, yet it is not wrong to categorize teaching both as a profession, since it requires plenty of theoretical knowledge, and as an art, since it is acquired in time and there is not an end point in this acquisition.

The question ‘who the teacher is’ can be defined through the qualities a teacher must have in general or particular. The teacher, having a mind, a heart, and a soul to be used for the sake of humanity, is the fundamental of the education. Besides having required knowledge and mastery, keeping enthusiasm, desire, excitement, and love for the profession and the people are among the measures of being a teacher. A teacher takes a role like teaching all the beauties, truths, goodness, and other values, and uses technology for the happiness of humanity in a communicative and sensitive respect and affection. A virtuous, idealist and principled teacher knows the rights when keeping his/her guiding and leading roles and stands as a democratic person without any fear, pressure or worry, but tolerance and fairness (Atatūnal, 2000).

It is all confirmed that there is not any other profession intrinsically honouring as teaching. Winch (2004) examined the nature of teaching with questions asking whether the teachers are professionals as doctors or lawyers; or followers of a vocation like missionaries; or exponents of practical wisdom like sages or statesmen; or craftspeople, or technicians or technologists. Teaching appears to be in some countries and institutions as “the rigid application of a set of instructions, like cooking from a recipe book,” where understanding the relationship between theory and application becomes crucial in defining the nature of teachers’ work. Some claims put teaching in an important role as being a moral exemplar like church functionaries (Carr, 2000, cited in Winch, 2004) and arise the question of whether teaching is a vocation or a profession. In some cases, teachers without theory seem to be craft worker, whose occupational knowledge is largely practical. That time, their

work both has an “ethical dimension,” and also requires “occupational know-how,” which will be acquired in context-dependent environments. Others point out that both soldiering and teaching require courage, but a different variant of courage in each case, as teaching does not have immediacy in preparing for a particular mission, rather it has a long-term purpose to prepare for the life itself. The teachers “cannot just do their job by displaying practical wisdom in their dealing with the students and other people, but need to display skills in teaching and in getting students to learn” (Winch, 2004, p. 189).

Wyatt III and White (2007) specified teaching as “a wonderfully complex endeavour” (p. 15) and as “one of the most rewarding professions” (p. 123). Teaching is rewarding, because teachers have the opportunity to make positive contribution to the lives of children and most of those contributions will live long even after the teacher has left the profession. Teaching profession is complex, because it is to promote learning relatively in a large group of students with different individual characteristics, needs, and backgrounds. Involving all students in the lesson, creating a safe learning environment, encouraging shy students, and managing the class are just among some responsibilities of a teacher. Still, the teachers’ job is not only in classroom. Their primary role is to help children grow and develop to their best potentialities, at which they cannot ignore the influences outside the classroom that are shaping children’s lives (Grinberg, 2002).

More importantly, teachers do many more things at once, because no other professionals assemble many of their clients at one time, as teachers do. It is, for sure, not simple to develop an authoritative classroom environment, to have a good radar for watching what many students are doing or feeling at each single moment, and to show skills for explaining, discussing, constructing tasks, facilitating work, questioning, giving feedback, and managing the classroom all at once (NAE, n.d.). That is why teaching is “a demanding and at times debilitating job that requires extraordinary expertise in human relations, tremendous organizational abilities, profound patience” (Rogers & Babinski, 2002, p. 1) and demands for “considerable judgement, a variety of pedagogical and instructional strategies, and a good understanding of the context in order to select strategies that best fit the situation” (Uhlenbeck, Verloop, & Beijaard, 2002, p. 245).

Effective teaching relies heavily on teachers' knowledge about how children of various backgrounds and developmental and intellectual levels learn. It is claimed that teacher education programs usually give more attention to methods but limited attention to children, child development, and the social context of childhood and schooling. The idea that teaching is not only an intellectual process, but the emotions are also needed can add more to the handling in the profession. Therefore the core of being a teacher is to become passionate about teaching and learning together with loving to work with people, particularly loving children, and loving of the subject taught. It is best to conclude that "feeling and understanding were stressed as objectives of good teaching" (Grinberg, 2002, p. 1446).

Resuming the first question above for Turkey, teaching profession (according to the 43rd item in the Basic Law for National Education with the issue of 1739 dated March 12, 1971) is a special mastery profession, which undertakes the duties like education, instruction, and all related administration. Teachers are required to fulfil these duties according to the aims, objectives and fundamental principles of Turkish National Education. Teaching profession is acquired through general knowledge, special field education and pedagogic formation (The Basic Law for National Education [MEB Temel Kanunu], 1971).

Considering the issues above, it is doubtlessly important how the teachers are educated, what social and political trends influence teacher training, who are responsible for preparing teachers, how the teacher education institutions are arranged and authorised, what truths and discussions about teaching are imposed, and what conflicts appear. All these have influence on both early and later processes of teaching, so they need to be taken into consideration in all improvement and reform efforts. Otherwise, changes might not be as effective as expected.

1.1.2. Teacher Education and Teacher Development

In constructivist studies, "teacher learning" or "learning to teach" is described as a "process of organizing and reorganizing, structuring and restructuring a teacher's understanding of practice" (Uhlenbeck, Verloop, & Beijaard, 2002, p. 248). Accordingly, it can be said that the teachers, are the learners actively constructing knowledge by interpreting events using their existing knowledge, beliefs and

experiences. That is why changing their beliefs enable teachers to learn new instructional practices. Existing knowledge and belief of novice teacher is mostly built during their pre-service education years. Similarly, their further understanding and beliefs will be shaped by the first experiences during their induction years.

It would be meaningless to perceive the duties of “preparing teachers” and “developing teachers” as separate roles of different units, because preparing teachers for today’s diverse classrooms is clearly a hard task that teacher educators should not tackle alone (Roasen, 2003) and it is neither only the personal duty of teachers themselves. Hence, Stanulis, Fallon and Pearson (2002) proposed that university educators should become more involved to support new teacher learning, because teacher educators stand in such a unique position that they are to understand and to tolerate the needs of beginning teachers; to learn about ways former students develop as teachers; and to connect university coursework with real life experiences.

Teacher education is not only about assisting students in developing good and effective teaching competencies, but also educating novice teachers in professional communities and contributing to a career-long professional development (Smith & Sela, 2005). Collaborative approaches to identify core program concepts; engaging in self-study; sharing the ideas and resources, and supporting teacher candidate learning, (Roasen, 2003), are important to the development of teachers’ professional knowledge. It should be recognized that the teachers’ professional development includes their personal or individual development as well as their cognitive and skill-based development.

To conclude from these, there must be an effectual bridge between teacher education and teacher development stages. One example of such a bridge is effective induction into teaching. In this process, mentorship, as an important strategy for helping novice teachers, plays a vital role. The goal of mentoring is “to pass on many of the experiences and possibilities in the teaching profession from more experienced teachers to novice teachers” (Lindgren, 2005, p. 252). It is pointed out, almost in all studies, that teacher mentoring develops the professional knowledge and helps in overcoming the difficult nature of the first year of teaching. Therefore, beginning teachers must be provided with mentoring support from both peers in schools and teacher educators in teacher training institutions.

1.1.3. The Induction Period

Moving from student teacher to newly qualified teacher is an exciting transition, but it is not covered in preparation programs in faculties, because “teaching is more than standing in front of a group and telling them what you know” (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006, p. 11). It is widely agreed, by many education scholars, that the induction stage of a teacher’s career is exceptionally challenging (Gold 1996, Huling-Austin 1990, as cited in Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002, p. 190). Concerns like being unprepared for meeting pupils’ needs, classroom management and understanding school culture might cause problems at first. There appear two major trends from the research on new teachers’ concerns about classroom contexts and students: a “practice shock” and a “cultural mismatch”. The former, the practice shock, as the literature defines, is “novices’ transition from idealism to the reality and complexity of classroom life” (Achinstein & Barret, 2004, p. 717).

Stanulis, Fallon and Pearson (2002) clarified it with quoted statements of a novice teacher in a survey: “Lately it’s just like mass chaos. I think I’ve tried to stay positive for the whole year, but I just feel like lately I just have this negative concept of myself. I’m like: Oh my gosh, have I chosen the right profession?” (p. 78). It shows that even though teacher education seems successful enough in preparing students for their future profession, the classroom reality can differ greatly from the pre-service years. No matter how good their training or college preparation was, the “real” world is different and in-service teaching reality often conflicts with the self-expectations of novices and unrealistic feelings from graduate years. Many novice teachers therefore find the transition from being student teacher to novice teacher overwhelming (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006; Lindgren, 2005).

Induction is the transition from training to employment and an early professional development. Induction, the first year of a teacher’s career, is a crucial and potentially difficult period. It is intended to be a bridge between training and the rest of a teacher’s career. It stands for both a monitoring and a support program. However, induction means different in different countries. As Holmes (2006) defined, induction, in England, is “a period of time in which novices will be working as a teacher, with all the attendant roles and responsibilities, while also demonstrating that they can achieve certain standards that have been set for new

teachers” (p. 51). For instance, if one wants to teach in a maintained school or non-maintained special school in England, he/she needs to complete his/her induction period successfully, which is “crucial and shouldn’t be underplayed” (p. 49). Unless they meet all the Induction Standards and the Standards for the Award of Qualified Teacher Status, they cannot continue their career in the state sector.

An increasing number of school systems are recognizing the value of teacher induction programs in improving the performance of new teachers. Assisting novice teachers in a supportive environment, in order to bridge the gap between the theory in mind and the practice in life, the first year, when they just enter the workplace, is very crucial. Some designate that the first year of teaching is an inevitable “embattled year” requiring novices to assume “survival mode.” Different educators described the first year of teaching as a “sink or swim scenario;” as a “harsh and rude reality of everyday teaching;” or simply as “reality shock,” almost all of which imply that new teachers come with “an unrealistic and falsifiable concept of teaching” (Lundeen, 2004, p. 551).

Teacher induction, which, according to Wonacott (2002), usually takes 5-6 years, is the total of all the teacher’s experiences from the moment the first teaching starts until the teacher is comfortably established as a competent, effective, professional teacher. In order to fulfil this induction, almost all of the novice teachers experience some common and also particular shocks in the field. These induction shocks are defined differently in different sources, like problems, concerns, experiences, challenges, frustrations, and detractors. Common categories of “induction detractors” faced by beginning teachers are listed as: (1) internal; (2) pedagogy; (3) curriculum; (4) program; (5) student; (6) peer; (7) system; and (8) community detractors (Wonacott, 2002).

All those detractors result mostly from the lack of any bridge between the theory and the practice. As a very good example, Agee’s (2004) sample, a novice teacher, clearly realized the large gap between the ideal constructivist multicultural education her professor had recommended in the college and what she encountered in public school classrooms. This was the gap between her pre-service program and the politics of teaching in public schools. According to her, she was ill-prepared by her pre-service program, in spite of the emphasis to controversial issues in her

courses. For a specific example, the state graduation tests pushed her to give up many of her original goals, and thus she could not include multicultural curriculum, because so much time had to be devoted to traditional content covered by the exams.

The most dramatic complaint, which the novice teachers display, related with their teacher education program is that it does not prepare them for the complex reality they encounter in the first years of their teaching (Nieme, 2002, as cited in Smith & Sela, 2005). In order to decrease all those complaints in the period of transition from student teacher to novice teacher, and to ease uneasiness during the induction period, the best support should be provided both before and after the start of real teaching. Through developing systematic and reflective practice, beginning teachers can learn to integrate theory taught in universities with actual practice. Within this process, well-designed teacher induction programs will improve teacher competence, performance, and effectiveness by providing both: (a) ongoing personal support, assessment, and feedback; and (b) continuing education, constructed on pre-service education (Wonacott, 2002).

In a well-designed induction program, as Williams and Prestage (2002) put forward, there are some significant points to take into account like establishing a consistency of view about the purposes of induction; ensuring that both induction tutors and NQTs (new qualified teachers) have a shared understanding of the nature of the induction arrangements in a school; the needs of NQT, particularly in a time of difficulties; the need to address the training and support, and the needs of the induction tutor. Apart from these, the relationship between induction purpose and induction practice must be clear, as there has to be the idea that practice is planned with purpose in mind and that policy is translated into practice which varies significantly from school to school, as a consequence of both variations in context and differences in philosophy.

To sum up, developing professional desire within novice teachers and assuring their systematic examination of their own teaching, and providing them with the necessary skills for achieving difficult features of teaching are among the urgent necessities, which are required to lessen probable practice shocks in their transition to teaching.

1.1.4. Being a Novice Teacher

Beginning teachers' transitions from pre-service education to professional practice are often 'unsettling,' because there is not a gradual induction into job responsibilities as in other professions. The novices, who are in the transition period from studentship to teaching occupation, have a multiplicity of roles like being a student, a teacher and a researcher, as well (Smith & Sela, 2005). For teaching occupation, there is not any difference in the applications between being a teacher and being a novice or any tolerance, in the expectations from a teacher and a novice teacher. There seems a common understanding about what is required from a teacher is also required from a novice teacher, as teaching must go on. Despite the fact that novices lack many other aspects that a normal teacher possesses, they are to meet the same requirements as soon as entering the field. Sometimes, this unfairness goes further and beginning teachers commonly receive the most difficult teaching assignments (Yalçinkaya, 2002) and are expected to perform as expertly as experienced teachers. This fact creates another effort in novice teachers' struggling. As a consequence, "education scholars theorize, beginning teachers leave the field at higher rates than beginning workers in other careers" (Wonacott, 2002, p. 3).

Beginning teachers' development struggles involve both a personal and professional reorganization of major individual investments. Research on new teachers identified two critical challenges in relation to how novices view their induction status: a "practice shock" that results in an over focus on controlling students and a "cultural mismatch" that causes novices to see diversity as a problem (Achinstein & Barret, 2004). Heretofore, "new teachers must recognize that their students' cultural backgrounds will influence classroom teaching and learning...they must learn that success in school is not always the 'carrot' that previous generations cherished" (Gormley, Hammer, McDermott, & Rothenberg, 1994, p. 6).

As Lundeen (2004), depicted, the questions arising in discussions are:

(1) Can the new teacher provide a caring and secure classroom while struggling with personal and professional development?; (2) Do the students of the new teacher fail to receive the nurturing and care they need from the classroom environment during the first year of teaching?; (3) What can be done to assist new teachers in facilitating a caring environment for children during the uncertain first year? (p. 558)

New arrangements for the induction of new teachers into the profession were introduced in England in 1999 (Williams & Prestage, 2002) Accordingly,

newly qualified teachers who fail to meet the induction standards at the end of their first year in post will not have their qualified teacher status confirmed and will, therefore, be unable to continue employment as a qualified teacher. In order to minimise the likelihood of this occurring, schools are required to give NQTs a reduced teaching load, to undertake specified monitoring activities and to nominate a named induction tutor who is responsible for their day-to-day support and monitoring (p. 35).

The analysis of mentor-novice interactions in the study of Wang, Strong, and Odell (2004), suggested that the opportunities for novices to develop such knowledge were different in each country, and these interactions reflected the cultural influences of curriculum and organization of teaching and mentoring in each country. For instance, Athanases and Achinstein (2003) pointed out that beginning teachers were 'fragmented' by the demands on many levels such as how to meet the standards, how to fit into school culture, how to relate to parents, and how to have a life. With these fragments in mind, it is hard for them to keep the students in the centre. On other hand, various perceptions of beginning teachers in Britt's (1997) study were reflected in these quotations, which express how hard it is to reduce the concerns of novices and improve their teaching effectively:

I have been able to put into practice most of what I was taught during student teaching. I learned more during student teaching than the 3,5 years of my education program; the biggest difference between college and my classroom would probably be the responsibility...Knowing it is my job to have them ready for the next grade is huge responsibility I tackle everyday (p. 7).

In order to develop teaching effectively, teachers need the skills of inquiry to reflect on their own teaching practice. They need to be able to pose questions, interpret different situations, develop constructive criticism, and come up with useful ideas to solve certain problems in their teaching practice. The novices should find their own voice as young professionals as they learn to teach with mentors, which is regarded as an important step in becoming a professional teacher. The practice of professional development centres on novices' feelings, confidence, autonomy, ideas, and their own voices (Wang, Strong, & Odell, 2004). This process is called professional development, because it is important for identifying their perceived

struggles in the first occasions. “Induction-stage teachers require personalized professional growth activities that take into account their individual needs” (Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002, p. 190).

Besides defining what it is like to be a novice teacher, it should be made a clear distinction between being an expert teacher and being an experienced teacher. It cannot be ignored that experience in itself is not enough to be an expert teacher. Ferry (1995) focused on the mental processes involved in problem solving of teachers, and the results demonstrated that novice and experienced educators use reflecting-in-action and reflecting-on-action as a means to develop expertise. The results indicated that experience alone is not the “master teacher” of reflective process. It should be ensured if the teaching need specialised practical skills together with acquisition of applied theoretical knowledge. As we all know, schools are not the best place to prove the acquired theory. They also receive some occupational formation in the workplace, where the fact that teachers are the interpreters of the curriculum, rather than simply followers of recipes, (Winch, 2004), is best understood.

1.1.5. Overview of the Novice Teacher Training Program in Turkey

The novice teachers assigned by the MONE to a public school in any part of the country have to, compulsorily, attend an induction and mentoring program, named as Novice Teacher Training (NTT) Program. The courses in the program are administered by provincial NEDs (National Education Directorates) at the weekends, in the evenings, or in the semester break. During this period, each novice teacher either working in city centre or in villages has to attend the NTT program. This program aims orientation and professional development of the novice teachers in their first year (Journal of Notifications [Tebliğler Dergisi], Number 2436, 1995). The program starts two or three months after the assignment of the teachers and lasts neither less than 3 and half months nor more than 10 months. It consists of maximum 400 hours of training including three stages: (1) *basic education*, (2) *preparatory education*, and (3) *applied education*. (See Appendix A for the outline of the program).

The basic education program aims to teach the novice teachers about the organizations of the state, constitution, civil service, current law related with being a civil servant in Turkish Republic, use of Turkish language and official correspondence, human relations, economic, saving and productive service, principles of Kemal Atatürk, and national safety topics in 60 hours of training (See Appendix A.1). The preparatory education program aims to teach the novice teachers about the structure of Turkish Educational System, the organizational structure of the MONE, the employee rights of civil servants, and training of educational staff in 120 hours (See Appendix A.2). The applied education program aims to teach the novice teachers about the rules for official correspondence and filing systems, economy and productivity in civil service, human relations, reform and development, security measures and civil defence, and applied program for educational staff including planning, instruction, testing and evaluation, learning and environment, school organization, and guidance in 220 hours (See Appendix A.3).

1.2. Problem Statement

Teacher training has always been one of the most emphasized issues in educational areas, because, together with the contemporary scientific and technological developments, it has become a field of expertise, which requires methods and approaches open to change. Each day, the quality and the quantity of the programs and applications are to be renewed in order to catch the latest developments.

In Turkey, student populations are growing, and the need for the new teachers in the profession, particularly in some branches, is also growing. Therefore, the number and the quota of the education faculties are increasing, which brings the difficulty to control the development of the candidates and to follow the experiences of the graduates as well. The two principal institutions that are responsible for teachers' education and development, in Turkey, are the "Education Faculties" of the universities serving for pre-service teachers before graduation and the "Ministry of Education" serving in-service teachers after graduation. In theory, these two institutions should be hand in hand by providing similar solutions to teaching problems. However in practice, there seems a discrepancy in their strategies, and thus

new teachers experience a conflict between their gains from pre-service years and the new school environment (Yalçinkaya, 2002). In Turkey, ties with the graduates are broken after graduation, although it is widely agreed that professional development continues throughout a teacher's career by learning new instructional skills, developing new understandings of teaching, and expanding their professional knowledge.

Similar conflicts and gaps between teacher preparation institutions and the in-service teaching reality are attached importance not only in Turkey, but abroad as well (Agee, 2004; Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006; Jeanlouis, 2004; Lindgren, 2005; Lundeen, 2004). To prevent this lack of communication, a cooperative approach should be adopted among all the institutions training teachers. A mutual relationship for information sharing and communication is necessary between the teacher training institutions and the graduates of them. Building professional development on pre-service education and getting feedback from the novice teachers in the early years of their profession are two essential steps to take. Does the pre-service training help them? Can the pedagogical courses be effective in handling the problems? Can they overcome adaptation challenges in their induction period? How much do they use the courses in undergraduate study? Do they think those courses sufficient for their future teaching? Do they feel qualified enough after their pre-service training is accredited?

Numerous papers or reports about new teachers' professional development are being published around the world telling why new teachers struggle and have problems in inducing into the profession, yet they are very limited with a couple of paper in Turkey, like Korkmaz (1999) and Yalçinkaya (2002). At this point, it might be mentioned about negligence in three lines. (1) The novices lack in providing feedback to their pre-service institution after their graduation, because they tend to forget what is happening in undergraduate studies, and to concentrate on their present struggle. Thus, they become unwilling to be helpful for the next candidates. (2) The education faculties lack in keeping contact with their graduates after granting their diplomas, because they focus on their current duty, which is to train their candidates in the faculties. The ones, who already graduated and started teaching, are perceived to be "ready". (3) The MONE lacks in building a bridge between their newly

qualified teachers and the teacher training institutions, because the MONE's more urgent responsibility is to hire the new teachers and to assign them to open positions. It leaves the professional development of the new teachers to an NTT program, which was developed in 1995 and had been implemented since then.

Considering these lacking, especially the small amount of studies in Turkey, this study aims to provide information to each of those stakeholders. Firstly, it intends to enable education faculties to get information about the induction challenges of their graduates and their perceptions about the sufficiency of the pre-service trainings. As a result, the programs might be restructured. Secondly, the MONE will also obtain information about what kinds of problems the NTs encounter and how often. This might ensure the MONE to re-plan the INSET activities around the current problems. Lastly, the novices themselves will be able to see their induction process from a broader perspective and will not feel alone seeing other novices having similar challenges. They will also be able to focus on the reasons behind those adaptation difficulties and develop personal solutions. To sum up, it is intended to inquire and learn about the problems above, due to lack of studies related with the so-called issue in Turkey.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to look into the induction process of the novice teachers who were assigned to various school contexts in Turkey by (a) investigating the most common adaptation challenges, (b) analysing the factors affecting their induction process, (c) assessing the benefits of their pre-service and in-service trainings, and lastly (d) providing suggestions for the improvement of teacher training activities both for pre-service and in-service years.

With the help of the collected data, the most problematic aspects of the profession in the induction years and the factors having significant influences on adaptation levels are aimed to be interpreted, and suggestions for the improvement in teacher training and mentoring activities are to be provided at the end of the study. The research questions of the study are “what are the most frequent adaptation challenges of the novice teachers in their early years of teaching profession; do their adaptation challenges change according to certain factors; how do they assess their

pre-service and in-service education; and do these perceptions change according to different variables?”

1.4. Significance of the Study

Being a teacher is a heavy job requiring much responsibility with an abundance of expectations. Together with the changing world, this profession has become more and more complex. If we add the newly beginning teachers' concerns and worries to these general difficulties and complexity of the profession, we come up with a more demanding and a highly stressful job. Therefore, it is intended to illuminate the adaptation process of the newly graduated teachers in their early years.

Adaptation in the early years of teaching profession often appears as a significant key issue, which could affect prospective teaching process of a novice teacher. Many papers and articles about teacher education available around the world tell why new teachers do cry and have difficulty in adapting to the profession, but all these are limited with local or national reports abroad. There exist only a couple of studies about novice teachers in our country, Turkey. For the issue, the most related study was Korkmaz's (1999) master thesis. He conducted the study in order to evaluate whether the occurrence of novice teachers' job adaptation problems differ according four factors: (1) the gender, (2) the faculty they graduated from, (3) the place they work, and (4) the number of the teachers in the school. This study was limited to the novice classroom teachers that were assigned to Afyon province in the 1997-1998 academic year. It, also, did not provide the description of problems in detail and their frequency level. The reasons behind those problems were discussed only in four levels. And more importantly, both the sample and the population of the study were the classroom teachers in Afyon, which brings the fact that the results were addressed only to the classroom teachers. Neither could the findings be generalized to all fields, nor to whole country. Considering these limitations, it is aimed, in this study, to go further and reach a broader picture addressing the all teachers in different fields and including the different work places in the whole country by taking into account diversities. It is also planned to find out the reasons in deep for such problems by enlarging the variables that might affect the novice teachers' adaptation.

Reviewing the literature and the researches conducted before, educational programs and implementations in pre-service years and further mentoring and training activities in in-service years appear to have an important impact on adaptation of the novice teachers. Hence, the effect of both pre-service and in-service trainings on induction process will be evaluated in this study, as well.

With the help of this study, a more organized and supportive relations between graduates and institutions could be constructed for the sake of solving problems mutually. Another reason for doing such a research is a little bit personal as having taught for four years and having encountered many newly graduate teachers complaining about their adaptation problems due to various reasons, the two leading of which are insufficient or unrealistic practice teaching in the undergraduate study and inadequate mentoring and guidance in the in-service years. The last and the most significant effect of the study will be its generalization to more novice teachers in different parts of the country and to more fields, because the answers provided for the questionnaire reflect the current real situations of the novices.

1.5. Definitions of Terms

The definitions of the key terms needing clarification can be listed as:

- **Adaptation Difficulty:** The difficulty in adapting to the teaching profession in the early years.
- **Induction Period:** The transition from student teachership into a regular certified teacher position.
- **Induction Program:** An in-service training program organized to prepare novice teachers for certain standards by introducing the realities of teaching profession.
- **In-service Training:** The training organized and carried out for qualified teachers in the service to develop personally and professionally.
- **Instructional Challenges:** The difficulties related with instruction including planning, implementation, evaluation, and other teaching activities.
- **Management Challenges:** The difficulties in managing the classroom and dealing with discipline problems.

- **Mentee:** An inexperienced teacher, who is new to the profession being under the coach or guide of an experienced supervisor, a mentor.
- **Mentoring Program:** An in-service training program prepared for the novice teachers' development under the supervision of a mentor in their first year.
- **Mentor Teacher:** A qualified experienced teacher who is assigned to assist, guide, and evaluate newly qualified teachers by providing feedback for the improvement in their induction process.
- **Novice Teacher:** A newly graduate teacher who has just started to teach (as the beginner in the teaching profession).
- **Pre-service Training:** The training period the prospective teachers spend in undergraduate study in order to be prepared for teaching profession.
- **Practice Teaching:** Teaching under the supervision of a certified teacher in order to qualify for a degree in education.
- **School Context:** The school environment in which the teachers work, including surroundings and people there.
- **School Location:** The places where the novice teachers' schools are located (a village, a district, a town, or a city centre).
- **Supervisor:** One who supervises or has charge, direction and execution of a program, such as school principals, inspectors, superiors, or other headmasters.
- **Social Challenges:** The difficulties related with social life of the teachers including relationships, identity, and social status.
- **Teacher-Colleague Relationship Challenges:** The possible problems and kinds of uneasiness occurring in the relationships with colleagues (teacher friends).
- **Teacher-Mentor Relationship Challenges:** The possible problems and kinds of uneasiness occurring in the relationships with mentor (guiding) teacher.
- **Teacher-Parent Relationship Challenges:** The possible problems and kinds of uneasiness occurring in the relationships with parents of the students.

- **Teacher-Supervisor Relationship Challenges:** The possible problems and kinds of uneasiness occurring in the relationships with school principal (headmaster of the school) or other supervisors.
- **Teacher-Student Relationship Challenges:** The possible problems and kinds of uneasiness occurring in the relationships with students.
- **Workload Challenges:** The difficulties caused by the amount of work that a teacher is expected to do in a specified time.
- **Workplace:** This term is used interchangeably with the term “school location”.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides conceptual review of literature and the studies conducted on novice teachers' concerns and adaptation problems encountered in their induction period and their professional development. It is presented in four phases: (1) the introduction, including the general issues for beginning teachers and characteristics of their position; (2) kinds of problems the novice teacher encounter during their early years, discussing both general and specific difficulties; (3) the researches conducted in Turkey and abroad; and (4) the summary of the review outlining the general discussions of the literature.

2.1. Introduction

Adapting to a new society or environment is a valuable process for new teachers, as for all human beings, since it is both a kind of excitement and a worry to enter a new environment for all individuals. The new beginning teachers enter a new environment with their habits and their past experiences, and these habits and lifestyles can cause or ease adaptation difficulties. Still, the school, the place where the school is located, and the school community are very important factors for their adaptation level. Therefore, the role of the headmaster in the school society is to fulfil the aims of existence of the school and carry out learning and teaching processes by supporting development and renovation. Parallel responsibilities are given to the mentor teachers, but their efficiency depends on the willingness for accepting this duty and struggles to develop it. If they are unable to catch social developments in educational areas and have an effective role in their guiding and

mentoring, it is inevitable that they become “imperceptible” both support groups and also in the school community, which affect the adaptation of newcomers negatively.

2.1.1. Dropout of New Teachers

In many teacher education books or articles it is claimed that new teachers are leaving education in droves. For instance, Jarvis and Algozzine (2006) claims that many teachers leave after teaching only a few years and most of them have fewer than 10 years of teaching experience. Statistically, it is affirmed that 25% to 50% of beginning teachers leave during their first three years of teaching, and nearly 10% leave in their first year. Darling-Hammond (2003) also points out that novice teachers leave the profession at an alarming rate. To illustrate, in the United States, teacher attrition rates in the first years range from 30% to 50% (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996, as cited in Stanulis, Fallon, & Pearson, 2002) due to lack of support and structured induction that listens to the needs of teachers. “A high attrition rate among teachers in the induction stage of their career” (Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002, p. 190) is also identified in other researches. Similarly, “new teacher attrition has long been a problem in high-poverty urban districts”, (Neild & Useem, 2005, p. 44) as well. Strikingly, fewer than half of new teachers were staying in the school district after three years on the job, and only one-third were staying in the school to which they were originally assigned (Neild, Useem, Travers, & Lesnick, 2003, as cited in Neild & Useem, 2005).

The dropout of novice teachers in their early years of teaching is becoming problematic in other countries, as well. Lindgren (2005) attach importance to problem of “leaving profession” in early years by claiming that, in Sweden, the trend of novice teachers leaving the school system earlier in their careers began to receive attention, the percentage of which was 50% for US teachers leaving the school within the first five years.

Ingersoll (1999) confirms the fact that teachers leave the classroom at a high rate, too. For example, while the average yearly turnover rate is 11% in other professions, it appears as 13.2% in education. More significantly, 29% of new teachers leave education within their first three years, and by the end of five years, 39% have already left (Heller 2004, cited in Watkins, 2005). Therefore, “the first five

years of teaching appear to be a vulnerable time,” (McCann & Johannessen, n.d., p. 138) and crucial to keep the new teachers in the profession.

Trying to retain new teachers is crucial for many institutions, as the school improvement requires staff stability, which is not possible with always changing faces and inexperienced staff to be trained each year. It is also true that replacing new teachers cost a lot. One noteworthy study of teacher retention (Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Whitener, & Weber, 1996, cited in McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005) searched the characteristics of teachers and their teaching assignments to identify the predictors of teacher retention. It is noted that the teachers who are most likely to remain on the job fit the following profile: (a) age of 39 to 55; (b) married, (c) with dependent children above age 5; (d) placed in a full-time assignment for which they are highly qualified; and (e) receiving a competitive salary. Therefore, it is widely recognized that new teachers are at high risk of leaving the profession before attaining complete tenure, which means becoming fully certified in the position.

Various reasons for leaving the profession are listed in various studies. McCann, Johannessen, and Ricca (2005) conducted an in-depth study to investigate what significant concerns cause beginning teachers to leave the profession and what supports schools can put in place to keep these novices in teaching. It is no doubt that beginning teachers are urgently required to demonstrate that they meet teaching standards of the system. Among the most frequent ones, we encounter organizational factors within the school environment (Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002). Besides this, other organizational factors related to isolation and loneliness, discipline and classroom management, conflict with colleagues, lack of understanding of students’ needs and interests, difficult teaching assignments, and lack of spare time often affect beginning teachers’ feelings of success and their desire to remain in the profession (Brock & Grady, 1995; Ganser 1999; Valli 1992, as cited in Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002). In addition, time pressures, paperwork, and non-instructional meetings are a major source of stress and frustration for beginning teachers (Gilbert, 2005).

2.1.2. Early Experiences

Every teacher remembers the first school day, when they enter their own classroom without any university supervisor, any mentor teacher, any advisor, but

just themselves and their students. As Kellough (2005) clarified, the first year of teaching is “full of highs and lows, with few days in-between or neutral” (p. 1), and it is quite natural that there will be days when teaching seems wonderful and the days when teaching spreads fear. Thus, early experiences have significant influences on teachers’ practices and attitudes throughout the remainder of their careers. Especially, the first year of teaching is critical, because any new teacher needs help to realize the importance of their work and to find the resources that will allow them to continue their work in a satisfying way (McCann & Johannessen, n.d.).

The new teachers should expect that teaching starts as a stressful, exhausting full-time job that requires energy and commitment, and should be tolerant to experience certain amount of anxiety during the early years, due to numerous roles and responsibilities to take on (Howard, 2006). The first-year anxiety can appear in different variations in different individuals. For instance, the first year is an especially lonely and challenging time for many new teachers, because of “false expectations, shattered dreams, and serious attacks on one’s competence and self-worth” (Rogers & Babinski, 2002, p. 1) or low starting pay, large class sizes, etc. For many others, the beginning year at a new school can be an extremely difficult experience. As a first-year teacher, it is probable to make mistakes, some of which will be small ones like poorly worded questions on a quiz or a misspelled word on a handout. They are unavoidable part of learning process, but some other mistakes could be serious and threaten their career (Thompson, 2007).

Considering the facts mentioned above, many schools provide a planned program for new teacher induction and mentoring. If not so, the teachers, themselves, need to build a network of supporters. For a teacher without support, the first year can be more overwhelming. According to Thompson (2007), one of the best ways, to not just “survive” but “thrive” in the first year, is to develop professional expertise, which means having the skills and the attitudes of a competent educator. And Kellough, (2005) suggests to be kind to yourself and not to expect immediate mastery, because the most valuable guideline is to value yourself and what you are doing. At this point, it is important to realize that everything is new, and it is not always easy to know the right action to take every time. It should be admitted that a teacher could have difficult experiences, just as in any profession.

2.1.3. Preparing for Teaching or Being Prepared for Teaching

There is no way to be completely prepared for teaching profession. All the undergraduate preparation, which is just a small part of the preparation for teaching, make people get ready, but they do not learn their profession until they are in the classroom alone (Wyatt III & White 2007). Preparation for the teaching profession involves both an acquisition of knowledge and the ability to apply it, and a development of a specified repertoire of critical behaviours and skills (Moyles & Robinson, 2002). As emphasized, teaching profession is an organic and a dynamic rather than a static process, and changes in procedures or approaches occur periodically and with relative frequency (Holmes, 2006; Wyatt III & White 2007).

The common perception that a teacher should be able to teach well puts forward the idea that the pupils under the care of a newly qualified teacher have as much right to have a good education as the ones taught by a 20 year-experienced teacher. However, there is a huge difference between being a novice and being an experienced teacher. Like in any skill or craft based occupations, learning to teach is also a developmental process, that can never be done perfectly and one can always improve. There is a fact that the more you get to know about teaching and learning, the more you realize there are things to know. This is what makes teaching a great but potentially depressing job (Bubb, 2003).

Beginning teachers, either new graduated student teachers or the ones starting their first teaching, have high ideals about both their profession and their role. They seem to be temperate about the classroom atmosphere they want to foster and have an enjoyment of being with children and new learning. However, these are only a few aspects of the real role of a teacher, who needs to possess many other skills. Roughly, every teacher is a mix of the personal and the professional. Although the professional side may be a little more critical in the beginning stage, keeping the self-esteem is important (Moyles & Robinson, 2002). Figure 2.1 demonstrates suggestions about what makes a good teacher.

Ataüinal (2000) listed the important criteria for an effective teacher as being organized, existing as a good sample for the society, keeping an independent personality, showing a democratic life style, applying an understanding of improvement, having love for and strong ties with the profession, setting positive and

reliable communication, knowing the students well, organizing positive environment for learning, and adopting learning and searching as habits.

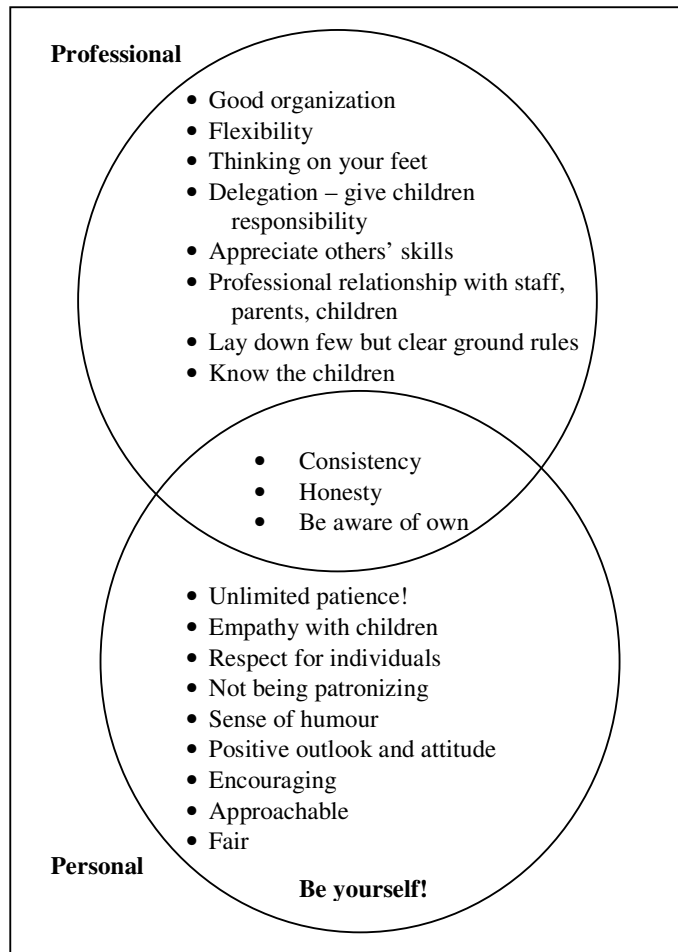


Figure 2.1
What Makes a Good Teacher? (Moyles & Robinson, 2002, p. 3)

Talking about what the new teachers do need to know, NAE [National Academy of Education] (n.d.) declared three general areas of knowledge that beginning teachers must acquire in order to be successful: knowledge of learners and how they learn and develop within social contexts; understanding the subject matter and skills to be taught in light of the social purposes of education, and understanding of teaching in light of the content and learners to be taught, as informed by assessment and supported by a productive classroom environment (see Figure 2.2).

In his book, *The First-year Teacher's Survival Guide*, Thompson (2007) places a checkmark for the character traits of successful teachers (see Table 2.1)

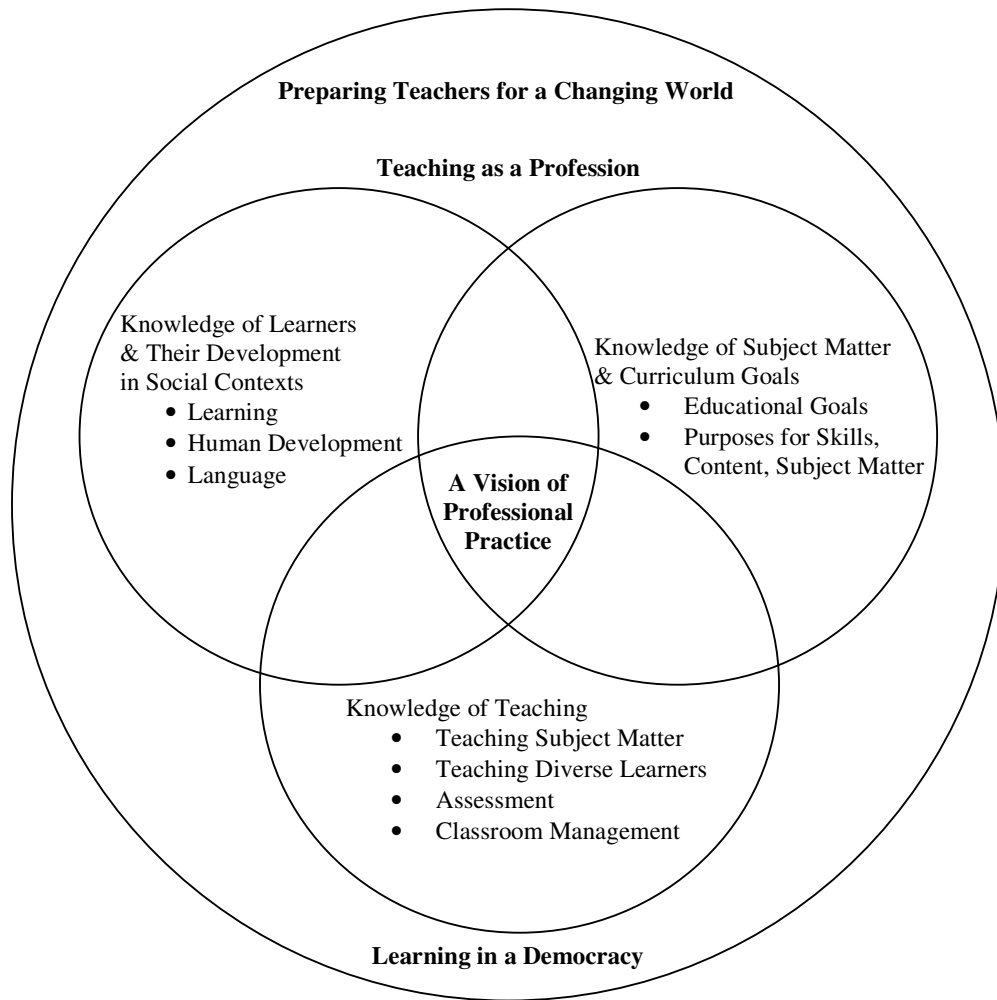


Figure 2.2
A Framework for Understanding Teaching and Learning (NAE, p. 6)

Table 2.1
Character Traits of Successful Teachers

<p><u>Successful teachers are:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • patient with their students, their colleagues, and themselves • able to let their students know they care about them • energetic and willing to work • able to engage children whose attention span is brief • optimistic that what they do today affects the future • successful at listening to students both in groups and individually • able to make quick decisions on a variety of issues all day long • enthusiastic about their subject matter and about their students • efficient at planning, organizing, and managing time • not afraid to ask for help
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(Thompson, 2007, p. 7)

Jax (2006) proposed seven stages to become an enlightened teacher: (1) the searcher, who is struggling to fit in being loyal and dependable; (2) the competitor, who is successful but trying to be better than others; (3) the protector, who is caring to make life better for the others; (4) the mentor, who is guiding to teach others how to improve their lives; (5) the creator, who is manifesting to create harmony; (6) the leader, who is wise, truthful, and inspirational to live in the now; and lastly (7) the healer, being one with all, peaceful and non-judgemental.

As it can be drawn from all above, preparing for teaching never stops and no teacher can be entirely prepared for teaching. At this point, it is best to conclude with Bubb's (2003) statements:

Becoming a really good teacher is like a long journey. Some parts will be smooth and fast flowing, others stressful and full of traffic jams-but you'll be making progress all the time even if the congestions you meet reduce your speed to only five miles an hour. Induction and all professional development can help you pick up speed in your journey (p. 119)

2.2. What Kinds of Problems the Novice Teachers Encounter?

After a deep survey of literature attributed to new teacher development, it is realized that the concerns the novice teachers keep during their induction process, the problems they encounter frequently, and the challenges they are supposed to overcome are mostly common. Although many of the beginning teachers experience similar challenges, different resources sorted out different types of problems.

Five major concerns for novices are reflected in researches as: (1) workload, time management, and fatigue; (2) content and curriculum knowledge; (3) relationship with students, parents, colleagues, and supervisors; (4) evaluation and grading; and (5) autonomy and control (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006). On the other hand, Yalçınkaya (2002) proclaimed the early problems of newly qualified teachers as: (1) inexperience, (2) conflicts between pre-service training and in-service applications; (3) pressures on new teachers; (4) effort to be able to finish more tasks, (5) fear of inspection, and (6) adaptation to school and environment.

However beside all these common challenges, there are also specific problems encountered in different settings by different groups or individuals. Wang, Strong, and Odell (2004), in a study with novices from US and China, defined the

three most pressing challenges emerged from the interactions and conversations between novice and mentor teachers as: (1) teaching, (2) subject matter, and (3) students or a combination of those three. The cases in U.S. had a dominant focus on teaching and students, particularly individual students and their behaviours; whereas subject matter content or students' understanding of it received little attention. The most striking finding was that the conversations focused mainly on teaching and students, especially individual students (90% in each case). In Chinese cases, there was a strong focus on teaching and subject matter. To illustrate, while seven cases focused on the issues of teaching practice and lesson structure, three were about the subject matter or the students, but not individual students. These findings brought out the fact that concerns of novice teachers might vary in different parts of the world, and probably in different parts of the countries.

The problem of specialised pedagogic knowledge and specialised subject knowledge also takes attention in different situations. For example, while the teachers in secondary and higher education have specialised subject knowledge that puts them in a distinctive position relative to teachers of younger children, the complicated nature of learning and class management with young children makes the practical pedagogic task much more demanding to acquire (Winch, 2004).

Stressful experiences, unruly classes, a phone call from an angry parent or a supervisor's highly critical assessment of a lesson are among the general frustrations of novice teachers (McCann & Johannessen, n.d.). Women, in particular, because of family responsibilities, often move in and out of the teaching workforce, often on a temporary or casual basis (Gallie et al., 1998, as cited in Winch, 2004). Sime and Priestley (2005) put forward that student teachers are now required not only to display good ICT (information and communication technology) skills, but also to be able to include ICT in their teaching manner, which enhances children's learning. In addition to increased tasks and demands, in combination with more diverse students, many new teachers have other worries about organizing and plan, such as parental cooperation and school development, especially everyday routine at school can be overwhelming; because the newly graduated teachers are expected to independently organize and carry out their work and simultaneously adapt to the local culture and expectations of the school (Bjarnadóttir, 2003, as cited in Lindgren, 2005).

In summation, new teacher development includes overwhelming problems with survival, confidence and self-inadequacy in teaching. Progressing through career stages of development involves successfully negotiating crises and social conflict in the teaching context (Lundeen, 2004). For the novice teachers, it is crucial to understand that teaching, in ways, is quite different from what they have learned in their past experiences as students. Many believe that teaching is about merely transmitting information enthusiastically and underestimate the importance of the home and community contexts in teaching. The three common problems for beginning teachers, according to NAE (n.d.) are: (1) misconceptions about teaching, (2) the problem of enactment; and (3) the problem of complexity.

As Brock and Grady (2006) stated, new teachers begin their careers with enthusiasm and expectations for success, because all teachers want to succeed. One misfortune was that pre-service education does not prepare new teachers to assume the same responsibilities as veteran teachers; so new teachers typically focus on daily survival during their early months. For example, their primary goals are preparing lessons for the day and maintaining order in their classrooms. No matter how well they want to perform, many suffer from performance problems. “The source of their difficulties may stem from a variety of issues, such as immaturity, lack of teaching experience, inadequate educational preparation, workplace conditions, and or newness of the school culture” (p. 16).

It is, no doubt, that no novice can expect to be perfect but should be aware of the common errors in first experiences. Keeping a sense of hope that the things will get better, developing realistic expectations, enduring the difficulties, coping with all kinds of irritating, frustrating, and nerve-racking situations are among the hardest roles to take for the new beginners and to remain in the profession for longer years. “The hardest and the cruellest pressure facing young teachers is today in many countries is to conform to the demands of materialistic lifestyles” (Fuller & Unwin, 2004, p. 33).

2.2.1. Work-related Problems

The degree of negative stress experienced by members of the same profession varies tremendously from individual to individual, but it is fair to say that workplace stress

does appear to be on the increase. Negative stress is not to be ignored. Its effects are far-reaching and can lead to life-threatening conditions (Holmes, 2003, p. 237).

Work-related concerns of the novice teachers are discussed under three headings below as workload, instructional, and classroom management challenges.

2.2.1.1. Workload Challenges

One of the biggest challenges in the work-related concerns and even one of the most difficult tasks they face as new teachers generated the “workload” or “lacking of spare time.” Novice teachers often feel inability in learning how to manage all the duties successfully and express hopelessness in carrying out all the work that is assigned. Therefore overwhelming workload is asserted in many papers or books (Britt; 1997; Gilbert; 2005; Holmes, 2006; McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005; Smith & Sela, 2005; Thompson, 2007; Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002).

Workload is claimed to take the novices away from their friends, which results in lacking personal connections and social time spent out, and as a result leads to some depression. For another example, one teacher, in the study of McCann, Johannessen, and Ricca (2005) reports that they have had a high level of stress the whole year just in terms of worrying about planning, grading, and things like that. Holmes (2006) brings out the fact if there appears one complaint from a new teacher; it is more probably linked to workload.

To divide workload categories in the concerns of NTs, we should include the items like excessive paperwork, extracurricular activities, difficult teaching assignments, daily duties, etc. As for the first one, Walsdorf and Lynn (2002), attracts the attentions to “lack of spare time” in teachers’ life, by pointing out the fact that teachers, outside of the classroom, must spend many hours with clerical work, paperwork, lesson planning, evaluation of student work, and additional challenges. According to Britt (1997), the NTs experienced “frustrations due to lack of time to complete all their ‘mundane’ chores and paperwork” (p. 1), which was reflected in these quotations:

Paperwork takes up too big portion of my day; behaviour problems eat up a lot of time, paperwork eats up the rest; it all must be done after school and on my own time; there is an unbelievable amount of paperwork, reports, lesson plans, notes home to parents concerning discipline, grading papers, conferences, etc. (p. 4)

Similarly, Smith and Sela (2005) predicated that the most often mentioned problem discussed was lack of time, and argued that the multiple roles during this period made it very difficult for them to find time to devote to research. Having too much workload and feeling obliged to finish the things on time forced them to bring things home after work and resulted in the complaint of paperwork taken home.

Gilbert's (2005) open-ended question "what was your biggest surprise?" generated many comments about paperwork and non-instructional duties as well as general *laments* about the lack of time to get everything done. In 2003, 35% of the comments fell into this category, and the percentage rose even further in 2004, to 45%. The novices expressed their desire of time to spend with other teachers and of fewer meetings.

In a duo study of McCann and Johannessen, (n.d.), the phrases of "sleepless nights," "overwhelming workload," and "fatiguing tasks" were encountered in different interview scripts. Some novice teachers reported that workload was the most stressful part of the job, as they were spending their evenings and weekends by grading papers, responding to the students' writing, completing administrative paperwork, and planning lessons. Two striking quotations from the interview scripts of the novice teachers who left the profession were: "Time consuming burden of grading papers night after night and planning lessons was one of the worst aspects of the job;" and "I don't like all the work I have to take home" (p. 142).

These support the fact that much of what teachers do takes place outside the classroom, like planning, assessing students, choosing and adapting instructional materials, and working with colleagues (Stodolsky, 1990, as cited in Uhlenbeck, Verloop, & Beijaard, 2002). It is not doubt "if we limit teaching to performance in the classroom, we leave out much evidence about a teacher's work (Uhlenbeck, Verloop, & Beijaard, 2002, p. 246), as duties and issues that took time away from instruction are being expressed more by many novice teachers. They have frustrations with long-hour meetings, planning time, over-abundance of paperwork, over-shadowed classroom management issues, non-instructional duties, and time pressures (Gilbert, 2005). A daily management of duties becomes more stressful, so they feel overwhelmed by the daily grind of planning, grading, supervising, and meeting. What is more, the beginning teacher often has a larger number of

preparations and a greater share of extracurricular duties. Beside all extracurricular activities that take much of teachers' time, difficult teaching assignment gets other attention, and "fatigue and illness often take a toll" (McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005, p. 32).

According to Walsdorf and Lynn (2002), education is such a field that the same expectations exist both for a beginning professional and for a ten-year "veteran," so the novices are often given the most difficult teaching assignments in challenging classes that frequently include the lowest ability students or the students with chronic behaviour, attendance, and learning difficulties. However, "placing such expectations on new teachers is like asking a first-year lawyer to argue a case before the Supreme Court" (p. 193).

Here, it is important to provide the new teachers with reasonable teaching assignments. Ideally, new teachers should have only a couple of manageable preparations, with a minimum of movement from classroom to classroom. It is necessary to keep the workload as manageable as possible and limit the number and the scope of extra-teaching duties for the newly started teachers (McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005; Wonacott, 2002). At the same time, the new teachers should be ensured, as a rationale for giving new teachers the most difficult assignments, that difficult conditions will not kill them; on the contrary, they would make them stronger. It's quite natural to feel overwhelmed at certain times and one never has to undertake everything all at once, as the teaching is not the only profession in which this can happen (Holmes, 2006).

2.2.1.2. Instructional Challenges

In classroom practice, some challenges that a new teacher might encounter can be listed as: how to diversify instruction to improve education for all students, how to create and maximize opportunities for students to learn, how to conduct the best use of personal strength, how to present an effective material, how to broaden and deepen learning through diversified instruction like MI theory, cooperative learning, experimentation, discovery method, non-teacher-centred learning modes, how to assess students' levels of development accurately in relation to criteria, how to articulate what the students know or do not know, how to assess instructional

strategies and methods, how to develop assessments, how to meet the expectations through student work, what to do with the results, how to use previous assessment to plan the next lessons, etc. (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003).

Concerns consistently included among new teachers are curricular planning and instruction, student academic and emotional growth, resources and instructional materials, student assessment and technology assistance (Lundeen, 2004). The domain of general pedagogical knowledge includes many other things besides understanding the individual students' needs. These are skills, strategies, methods, and techniques for teaching students and for guiding themselves. Instructional challenges compose the core of teaching profession and so they vary across in dimensions like before-class challenges, in-class challenges, and after-class challenges.

For the pre-class stage, an effective planning is the main goal for all. Compared to their more experienced colleagues, novices are challenged by setting appropriate expectations for students and designing curricular materials to their students (Achinstein & Barret, 2004). "Mapping a lesson with a highly diverse components that linked core issues to students' lives and used the discussed association as groundwork for exploration of issues and concepts" (Athanases, & Achinstein, 2003, p. 1500) is very important. Curriculum planning can be a striking problem, in other contexts, as the new teachers being obliged to adopt a pre-prepared curriculum and materials. However, teachers are to "construct curriculum as well as develop it", which means that "the future teachers cannot rely on pre-packaged curricula and materials" (Grinberg, 2002, pp. 1439-1440).

As Wyatt III and White 2007 defined, "one of the most productive tools to be used in teaching career is the lesson plan...whatever the design style, a good lesson plan is your friend" (p. 55). Although creating lesson plans seems hard, a well-designed lesson plan enables not only to teach the material covered but also fill the class with meaningful activity. It stands for a necessary ingredient for good classroom management, too. Another point in preparation stage is about content-preparation or choosing appropriate subject matter. Subject matter refers to the issues like subject concepts, content taught in the lesson including its meaning understanding and sources (Wang, Strong, & Odell, 2004).

Lundeen, (2004) points out new teachers struggle with the teaching context. Yet, it must be ensured that things do not always have to be just like written on the plan books. “As long as you reach your final destination, it is OK if the path takes a different turn” (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006, p. 23). Therefore, they must be prepared to be unprepared for something and be flexible, as no one can be ready for everything.

In order to implement as efficient as planned, it is vital to know strategies, know how to recognize them as a beginning teacher, and know how to use them. The lack of instructional repertoire in the new teacher and about what is the most effective way to teach students and meet their diverse needs can cause more frustrations. New teachers’ readiness and willingness is also very important factor. They can find it hard to realize learning or to become aware that learning is happening. Kellough (2005) ordered some of the instructional errors commonly made by new teachers as: inadequately attending to long-range and daily planning; emphasizing the negative in the classroom; not requiring students to raise hands before responding; allowing students hands to be raised too long; spending too much time with one student or one group without monitoring the entire class; beginning a new activity before gaining the students’ attention; pacing teacher talk and learning activities too fast; using a voice level either too loud or too slow; standing too long in one place; being too serious and no fun; using instructional tools poorly or inefficiently; using ineffective facial expressions and body language; relying too much on teacher talk and using teacher time inefficiently; interacting with a ‘chosen few’ students rather than all; using threats; using poorly worded or ambiguous questions; introducing too many topics simultaneously; being inconsistent; being uptight and anxious; taking too much time for an activity; sounding egocentric; etc.

For the in-class instructional challenges, teaching problems get the top ranking in mentor-novice interactions in most of the studies. The sub-categories of teaching problems dealt with the teaching techniques, approaches or instructional tips. What factors affect successful teaching or satisfactory implementation of methods during teaching or the use of necessary technology in class is a considerable question to be answered. One excuse can be given as insufficient resource and technology to use in a teaching environment. In their first weeks of classroom observation, many student teachers tended to emphasise the physical, resource-

related barriers that they perceived as affecting the use of ICT (information and communication technologies) in the schools that they visited. Discussions highlighted the difficulties encountered by teachers in some schools, where the number of computers was insufficient, the computers were old, difficult to operate and crashed frequently, generating constant disturbance during classes (Sime & Priestley, 2005).

Sometimes, those teaching problems might occur as a result of lacking skills to use technology, too. Technology is a tool that can be either a friend or “a foe” in the classroom by enhancing the knowledge base of the students or being a challenge for the teacher when it comes to control of the system (Wyatt III & White 2007). Sime, and Priestley (2005) explored student teachers’ views about the factors promoting or hindering the use of ICT in schools, which were grouped into three:

(a) Physical factors, that refer to the provision of ICT resources in schools; (b) Human factors, that refer to teachers’ perceived attitudes towards ICT use, their ICT competence and specialised training; (c) Cultural factors, i.e. that refer to the more general attitude promoted towards the use of ICT at school level and at the community level (p.136).

To exemplify another instructional challenge, learning style of pupils bring out particular difficulties (Holmes, 2003). Difference and diversity in classrooms or school context could cause some more challenges in the concerns of NTs. As any teacher, a novice teacher might also encounter diversity in culture, class, ability, interests, and learning styles among the students. A mismatch of background experience of new teachers and their students can challenge them to learn about diversity and equity (Athanasos & Achinstein, 2003). Students’ cultural differences from the teacher’s own might be a hindering factor to focus on teaching. Here, the necessity of multicultural education appears as an important issue. There must be specific strategies that can foster children’s learning in multicultural classrooms and new teachers need to learn them.

Gormley, Hammer, McDermott, and Rothenberg (1994) examined the perceptions of student teachers in multicultural classrooms. The results revealed that student teachers could approach their teaching methods very flexibly and recognize that children learn in different ways. However, they were particularly unsure about questions pertaining to curriculum goals and objectives and language diversity and

teaching. They were also uncertain on whether they would change their classroom materials, classroom management, or interaction styles according to children's socio cultural backgrounds. According to results, teacher education programs need to do much more to help new teachers become "culturally responsive" (p. 1) to children's learning needs, because the responses about teaching in multicultural classrooms revealed more uncertainty than confidence.

Sometimes, teachers need to make complex decisions and take the content, the students, and the situation into account, because teaching requires "adapting instruction to the particular situation and to particular students", therefore "teaching should be assessed in context", because "only within the context in which teaching takes place can assess the appropriateness of a teacher's actions (Uhlenbeck, Verloop, & Beijaard, 2002, p. 246). What a teacher can do in one context does not generalize well to other contexts with other topics and other age groups. A teacher may demonstrate competence in teaching a particular topic to particular students of particular age groups, without necessarily showing the same competence in teaching another topic to other students.

To be aware of their students' needs and backgrounds together with their own experiences and backgrounds and to try to incorporate all these into the lessons is not an easy task. For many new teachers, it is hard to see the students as individuals with different learning needs, because they often need help in viewing their classrooms and in focusing on individual student needs, like how students with different language and learning needs require different levels and kinds of presentation (Athanasos & Achinstein, 2003). They might not be sure what to do with the students who finish early, how to manage with low performers, how to meet the needs of the learning disabled student, how to deal with them, etc. All these contribute to the challenges that NTs experience about individual differences.

As the last phase of instructional problem, challenges appear after the teaching is over. Evaluating the progress and keeping track of what the students have learned are other related parts of the instructional tasks, because assessment appears anytime an essential link to the instruction in the classroom. Examining student work carefully and effectively, analysing the data in the rubrics and determining the values of both class performances and the test scores might be among the difficulties related

to evaluation process. Thus, one of the most important tasks for a first-year teacher will be learning how to evaluate his/her students' progress in a fair and accurate manner. During this time, hardships are experienced in designing tests, quizzes, and other instruments to evaluate what the students have achieved. Therefore, the novices need to have a wide range of assessment tools and practices with multiple measures of student performances and achievement. They are expected to utilize formal and informal assessment strategies (Thompson, 2007) and to be consistent and accurate in grading, to measure success in many ways (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006).

Athanases and Achinstein (2003) indicated that assessment emerged as the most dominant domain of knowledge, for the new teacher, to be able to focus on individual student learning. One participant mentor, in their research, shared:

First year beginning teachers have a tough time with assessment; they are so focused on themselves and what they are doing each day that they can't get much beyond that. They are in 'survival mode'. By the second year, they are more able to look at assessment (p. 1516)

Admittedly, assessment is another difficult task a new teacher has to do, because he/she has to assign materials to grade students and know if they are meeting desired objectives. It is hard but valuable, both for determining how students are doing, and also how the teacher is doing as a teacher (Wyatt III & White 2007).

2.2.1.3. Classroom Management Challenges

Classroom management pertains to everything a teacher does to organize the time, the space, and the students in such a way that effective instructions can take place everyday (Howard, 2006). The literature on novice concerns and teacher development highlights management issue as a central or a major concern of new teachers. Some perceive it as "the monster in first-year teachers' nightmares" (p. 37) looming as one of the biggest concerns (Wyatt III & White 2007); or as "herding mosquitoes" being "the single most difficult challenge for a beginning teacher" (Howard, 2006, p. 94). It is denoted to be a frequent source of problems and the number one or one of the top reasons for new teachers' leaving the profession (Brock & Grady, 2006; Howard, 2006). Beginning teachers often feel that an inability to manage a class is a sign of weakness, so they are often afraid to ask for help. Diverse

and hard students and the novices' lack of confidence in the ability to teach different ethnic, racial, linguistic, and socio-economic groups can result in lowered expectations and limited practice. On the other hand, being over-prepared and over-planned for class will reduce the amount of time spent on behavioural issues (Howard, 2006).

The effective management of pupils' undesirable behaviours in the classroom represents a major challenge for teachers. In order to better comprehend the difficulties facing them, it is important to examine how they perceive pupil behaviours at different stages of their professional development (Kokkinos, Panayiotou, & Davazoglou, 2004). One of the most identified particular persistent problem, according to Athanases and Achinstein, (2003) is that often beginning teachers see management or control and pedagogy as separate parts of practice rather than integral. Dealing with difficult classes with unmanageable students and challenging groups of students cause them to feel sometimes nothing is effective in governing the unruly classes.

Lundeen (2004) designated that classroom management problems outnumbered adult relationship problems two-to-one during the first half of the year. Overall findings were consistent with the literature reporting "discipline and classroom management problems to be the most prevalent problems of the beginning teacher, waning as the year progresses" (p. 555). The analyses, in the same study, revealed subdivisions under the heading of classroom management and discipline problems as problems with individual students and group behaviours.

Other collective findings also cluster around classroom management and discipline issues as the most prevalent and frequently cited items. For example, Watzke's (2003) findings put forward that classroom management problems initially overshadowed novices' attention to instructing and nurturing children. Over time, their focus shifted from self as teacher toward more global professional development concerns, student needs and creating a productive classroom environment.

Most novice teachers defined classroom management as negatively impacting their developing identity as a teacher. It is shown in the inner struggles and contradictions of novices. One of the novices expressed her dilemma in classroom management like:

I am not what I'd like to be. Will I grow into that? Or will I just end up like the other teachers; experienced similar conflicts with her ideas about what defined effective instruction. Basically at the beginning of the year I said how I wasn't going to raise my voice or yell, and I wasn't going to [be] just throwing treats out to the students. But it wasn't working (Stanulis, Fallon, & Pearson, 2002, p. 76).

Reflections of classroom management issues were not only from novices, but mentors also reported priority of procedures for managing students

(a) I think that I am going to try to focus on classroom management, especially from the very beginning because I just think that that is the key element that needs to be in place before you can even teach the kids. They need to know how your classroom is structured; (b) my mentee and I come from different points of view about students. Her mindset about good teaching is that there is a lot of control...I look at students as who they are as people...I got into teaching as an opportunity to do social change work. And then management is just a necessary thing to make it go right, but it's not how I look at teaching and students (Achinstein & Barret, 2004, p. 716).

As it is drawn from the descriptions above, both mentors and mentees identify management as a pressing problem. Thus, many studies identify classroom discipline as the biggest concern of the novice. Then it is true that authority and discipline are considerable discussion themes of new teacher concerns. Gibbons and Jones (1994) aimed to develop theories about how novice teachers connect the process of reflectivity to their classroom management. As reported by the participants, "being recognized as a good teacher and authority within the classroom was their most prized accomplishment of the internship"; and "they voiced concerns about the problems of increased violence within schools" (p. 1). Strikingly, results show that "the sample novice teachers do not feel empowered to handle middle school classroom management or discipline problems due to their perceptions of a lack of administrative support" (p. 12). Left unchecked, chronic discipline problems can undermine the success of a talented teacher, because it takes time to develop necessary skills for managing the student behaviour (Howard, 2006). Current media, in many contexts, make people believe that behaviour of pupils and students in our schools is on a way towards anarchy. Not surprisingly, when you ask a new teacher about their greatest concerns, he/she tells that the biggest problem for them is discipline and behaviour management (Holmes, 2003; Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006).

As Lundeen (2004) claimed there was a variety in yesterday's problems with students pale in comparison with classrooms of today. For instance, moral behaviour

appears to be on the decline in many classrooms, while learning and social dysfunctions are on the rise. Increases in teen suicide and incidences of weaponry in schools were also on the rise.

As Holmes (2006) argued, no two schools are the same in the way children behave, and no two teachers are the same in the ways they respond to their pupils acting, because the social dynamics between a teacher and his/her students will be unique. That is why it is so important to acknowledge that behaviour management is as much about knowing oneself as it is about knowing students. One's own feelings and emotions on any day will impact the way in which the students respond to the teacher and vice versa. Nothing happens in the classroom in isolation; it is possible to see connection in everything.

To sum up, the novices voiced a need for more courses in the classroom management and discipline, because, as they claimed, their pre-service training had not prepared them for the vast demands (Britt, 1997). The majority of previous research of new teacher problems clarified why management issues are perceived as problems, and argued that new teachers, so overwhelmed by the immediate issues with student behaviour and control, are unable to focus beyond classroom management (Lundeen, 2004). Since many new teachers face students who do not meet their preconceptions, they become increasingly authoritarian, even planning instruction just to control misbehaviour. McCann and Johannessen (n.d.) stated, "classroom management is a predictable concern of beginning teachers" (p. 138), and Kellough (2005) concluded, "as much a ninety-five percent of classroom control problems are teacher-caused and preventable" (p. 18).

2.2.2. Social Concerns

Studies show that social concerns take attention in the perceptions of novices on a large scale, as well. For example, as the induction period progresses, the number of identified classroom management or discipline problems fall sharply, and at the end of a year, problems with adult relationships outnumbered classroom management concerns nearly three-to-one (Lundeen, 2004). This is a good exemplary to show the significance of social worries of a novice teacher, because "teaching is about building relationship" (Howard, 2006, p. 76), and it requires a range of skills to

organise, to deploy people skills such as communication and negotiation, sometimes in a highly pressured environment (Holmes, 2006).

2.2.2.1. Social Status and Teacher Identity

Social status and teacher identity are the two important issues among the social concerns of new beginning teachers. Teacher identity is perceived both as a social challenge and a power in building social relationships. However, it starts quite hard for many novice teachers to construct their “teacher identity” in the early years. Various researches on teachers have shown that the teachers bring their unique history or background to their pedagogical identity.

In various contexts of teaching profession, novices are to develop a teacher identity, which is an imagined role emerging among other roles. A beginning teacher’s construction of a teacher identity relates to both social and ethical concerns (Agee, 2004). Agee, in his study, examined a novice’s effort to construct a teacher identity while struggling with ideological and ethical conflicts that she was to implement a multicultural curriculum and constructivist methods in schools where the value of traditional texts and methods were tied to norms and success on high-stakes tests. The focus was on how an African-American teacher teaching in a suburban school, able to develop her teaching identity in her first 2 years, under the pressure of national and state policies that shape standards and assessments.

Developing a “self” as a teacher is challenging for many novices. The various questions arise in their minds like how they are supposed to act in a certain situation; how the real teachers do it; how they react to management challenges; if they are overreacting; if they are insisting on unreasonable standards; if they are being too ignorant, etc. (McCann & Johannessen, n. d.).

The teaching they learned at the university is often overshadowed by feelings of isolation in terms of ideals, because they tend to sacrifice ideals for more traditional practices (Stanulis, Fallon, & Pearson, 2002) in the school context they are assigned to. To simplify, one of the novices reported that her first year of teaching changed her significantly and expressed:

I have become a darker person. I am idealistic at heart, but things that I’ve seen daily have made me laugh less and lose some of my youth. I have become more callous

and I see it when I interact with people who are not teachers. It seems that their hearts are not as heavy (p. 144).

Another example is in the quotations below:

This whole punitive thing-I didn't think about that before we actually had our class meeting. Why am I not thinking about the theories and the philosophy I had before I even came into teaching? It's like I'm in survival mode... I feel like I'm becoming the teacher I never wanted to be. I hate that. I really do! (Achinstein & Barret, 2004, p. 730)

As it is seen, one major challenge that the beginning teachers face is to define their "teacher persona". They experienced problem in determining or inventing their teacher persona, as some occasions may not be part of their own personality but they might have to develop a teacher persona as soon as they enter the field. The conflict between their personal identity and their public identity can be counted among the factors that make them feel undecided or confused. It is believed that, over time, their focus shifted significantly from "self as a teacher" to "teacher of children" (Lundeen, 2004, p. 559).

2.2.2.2. Relationship with Students

Building an effective relationship with the students is an ongoing process, which cannot be done by following some generic recipe and adopting a few quick tips (Holmes, 2006). According to Howard (2006), reflecting on how a teacher responds to his/her students can give the opportunity to re-evaluate the physical and emotional atmosphere in the classroom, because "it should be evident from the first glance of a classroom that every child is valued and appreciated" (p. 76).

A teacher who creates a student-centred, adult-driven classroom has tremendous potential to improve student achievement. In a normal student-teacher relationship, it should be reflected clearly that the teachers are not their friends. They must be shown or told where the line is between a teacher and a friend. The role of being a teacher includes being a listener, an adviser and a trusted adult, but not a friend. Never, a teacher should "let the students in the class walk all over him/her", but they can "still create situations in which the students feel ownership and

empowerment” (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006, p. 33). A good and effective student-teacher relationship involves, in addition, patience, flexibility, and understanding.

Talking about student problems, beyond the concern of how to set a good relationship with students, the two most frequently perceived issues are “individual differences” and common “behaviour problems” among students, because they sometimes prevent but mostly decrease learning. Individual differences in student groups cover their behaviours, their ability, their learning styles or their responses in a given situation (Wang, Strong, & Odell, 2004). Therefore understanding students’ needs and interests and motivating students to learn are very crucial for novices, as the ability to motivate students has always been one of the top ten concerns of new teachers (Ganser, 1999; Veenman, 1984, as cited in Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002).

Different social and educational factors challenge new teachers in attempts to focus on individual students’ learning. Problems of focusing on individual learners are varied and complex. Responding to students’ needs and knowing what those needs are seem harder than the need to know about subject matter and basic pedagogy. Many teacher induction programmes provide structures and mechanisms to foster a new teacher’s attention to individual students, including ways to track learning of target students. It is also argued that in some university teacher education programs, pre-service teachers take limited coursework that merely provides a cursory knowledge of working with special needs students (Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002). Therefore, it is suggested for prospective teachers to learn more about the children and the children’s styles, their ways of making sense, besides being thoughtful and cooperating. The new teachers’ readiness and deciding when to focus on individual learners, when to move to structure an entire lesson, when to give solutions to easily solved problems, when to push reflective thinking, and when to extend the conceptions of learners and strategies for meeting the needs all are significant steps related with their attitude. Understanding the importance of responding to individual student needs always requires an attitude and awareness on the part of the beginning teachers (Athanasos & Achinstein, 2003).

Kokkinos, Panayiotou, and Davazoglou (2004) queried the perceptions of pre-service teachers regarding the seriousness of pupils’ undesirable behaviours, and examined the effects of teaching experience, teacher and pupil gender on these

perceptions. Results indicated that both teaching experience and pupil gender were important moderators of their perceptions. For instance novice teachers rated antisocial behaviours as serious, whereas their experienced counterparts gave higher ratings of seriousness to internalising forms of behaviour. A degree of gender stereotyping was also apparent in the perceptions of novice teachers. The student teachers' ratings indicated that anti-social behaviours like stealing, cruelty, bullying and destroying school property were viewed as more serious, whereas behaviours of a more internalising and emotional nature were among the least serious. Moreover, student teachers perceived pupil behaviour as variably serious depending on pupil gender. Externalising behaviours occurring among girls; but internalising behaviours occurring among boys were seen as most serious.

Carmen, the participant in the study of Achinstein and Barret (2004), highlighted the tragic fact that she had become too punitive and felt she was "becoming the teacher she didn't want to become" (p. 730) in response to issues about missed homework, cheating on test, and other problematic events with students. Many other teachers, in the same study, focused on individual learners and often overlooked their differentiated learning needs, individual students' work and thinking, diverse learners' perspectives, the differences of language, culture, and ability, and the differentiated instruction to support the students and move their learning forward.

2.2.2.3. Relationship with Parents

Although, it is usually ignored or mentioned among the minor challenges, dealing with parents can be given another piece of relationship concerns of the novice teachers in their early experiences. Setting a relationship with parents and controlling it appropriately might force them to exhaust the energy. Sometimes, the novices are often frustrated over lack of parental concern and their inability to communicate in the most effective ways with parents (Britt, 1997).

As Wyatt III and White (2007) depicted, communicating with parents is both rewarding and frustrating action. Besides having so much to do for lesson preparation, teaching, and dealing with students in the classroom, parent communication can be underestimated by some teachers. However, it is another part

of developing lines of communication and becoming an effective and open teacher to parents. Parents can be very difficult to cope with, when they know that the teacher is new or inexperienced. It is hard to fill them with confidence and to persuade them that their child is in safe hands educationally. Many of them probably expect new teachers to know and deal their child well.

To share some of the statements deduced from the perceptions of novices in the study of Britt (1997):

(a) My most disappointing experiences with the parents are their lack of concern. I have had a parent not respond a note about the need for a conference on two occasions. Some parents don't want to be bothered; (b) Most of them deny their child's problems; (c) I had virtually no parental involvement or interest; (d) Dealing with parents has been a big eye opener I have been surprised when they defend their child even he/she is wrong; (e) I would benefit a course in teacher/parent communication; (f) It is quite a challenge to please all parents and say the correct words to them (p. 5)

As it is noticed, "dealing with parents is challenging because it calls for skills that you probably had little need to develop during teaching practices" (Bubb, 2003, p. 115). That is why among other challenges to be encountered in teaching career, dealing with parents can be a large one. Parents are as different as their children and they need to be considered individually. Jarvis and Algozzine (2006) specified three types of parents: (1) the parents who love teachers and try to help them by supplying, tutoring, chaperoning, volunteering and giving appreciation; (2) the parents the teachers never see, but see their children everyday and their signatures every once in a while; (3) the parents, whose children can do no wrong, and who defend their child to the end, even by undermining the teachers' authority based on experience, age, and wonderful stories their child might invent about the teachers.

In order to keep a positive relationship, many times the novices are to handle conflicts, tolerate the criticisms done by parents, appreciate their over-interest, show understanding for their conflicts, reassure parents in despair, and supply cooperation. The key for dealing with parents can be just confidence like looking confident, dressing appropriately, acting professionally, maintaining assertive but polite manner, and showing that you are sure of what you are saying and doing..

2.2.2.4. Conflicts with Colleagues

A good colleague-novice relationship could be ensured by testing different arguments, by being challenged in a safe way while sometimes challenging each other, by caring both, by being respectful for both, and by creating trusting environment for each other. The biggest misconception that a first-year teacher derives is that asking for help is a sign of weakness, and one of the harsh realities in the relationship with other teachers is either their disinterest or their bossy attitude towards new teachers. Although they should feel free to ask, many novice teachers become concerned that seeking assistance for classroom problems might be viewed as a sign of incompetence. On the other hand, novice teachers should be able to question their own ability when colleagues continually question their decisions. Rather than keeping silent, it is always suggested to go, find the best teachers in the school, and to ask them about their first year of teaching (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006), which surely reduces their worries and depression. It should not be forgotten that “the lack of teacher-to-teacher dialogue in schools impacts the morale and even discourages the professional growth of experienced teachers. The lack of opportunity for collegial conversations may have even greater implications for beginners who are in the earliest and most vulnerable stage of professional development” (Veenman, 1984, as cited in Rogers & Babinski, 2002, p. 4).

2.2.2.5. Isolation and Loneliness

Isolation and loneliness might be sometimes a greater problem for beginning teachers because they have just left an environment where the university supervisor, cooperating teacher, and pre-service teacher colleagues provided frequent feedback. When they are assigned to a school, they encounter the fact that friendships and social groups are already formed, and the cultural norms and shared history of the school are unknown to them. Thus, beginning teachers have little to develop relationships with other teachers in the school “Dilemmas arise when the beliefs they developed during their university teacher preparation program, stand in contrast to the school culture they encounter in their first teaching assignment” (Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002, p. 192).

Watkins states (2005) that the new teachers all share the need for support and belonging, whether they come to the classroom as a second career or directly from a teacher education program. While needing guidance and clear expectations, they must also find freedom and empowerment to determine how they meet these expectations. Others' support for new teachers is a considerable issue. To exemplify,

young children entering a new school need a safe, protective, nurturing environment where they are free to take risks, apply sound moral judgments, practice burgeoning pro-social skills and receive validation as well as positive reinforcement as they grow and develop (Lundeen, 2004, p. 560).

This is such a list of needs that is identical for the new teachers, because they are in parallel journeys in a cognitive growth having emotional needs and being more self-centred. They need immediate and reliable support, yet in many cases, it can be claimed that new teachers are left unguided. Isolation from colleagues is mentioned in personal narratives of many novices in the study of Stanulis, Fallon, and Pearson (2002). Some felt isolated in the teaching context in an atmosphere, which does not support collaboration. Some distrusted their mentor and did not understand the boundaries of their relationship. Some thought that nobody took an interest in them. Some missed a collaborative and non-judgmental environment. Some perceived the lack of security from the administration, the support group, and parent and student affirmations. The issue of honesty was also shared (Smith & Sela, 2005) by claiming that involving colleagues in concerns is hard, because they preferred to hide the problems they encounter. As it is reflected, entering the field of teaching, the new teachers are in both physical and mental isolation. Considering this, it is essential for new teachers to socialize and interact personally and professionally in order to grow and develop as a teacher.

2.2.3. The Need for Professional Support

Professional support, both before and after the teaching starts, is an important phenomenon for the new teacher development, because professionally, all the NTs need frequent feedback, support and guidance, and positive reinforcement in the early years. However, "induction is not an isolated program, but rather the first phase of a career-long professional development plan" (Brock & Grady, 2006). (p. 113).

The aim, here, is to address the concerns of teachers in the beginning stages of professional development. After the induction phase ends, a teacher's need for professional development continues.

In teaching profession, a comprehensive and well-grounded in-service education programs as a professional support to novices are a vital need. These programs should address problems ranging from classroom management, planning of lessons, and instructional materials, human relations skills, and laws and regulations governing the teaching profession (Mthiyane, 1989). Fundamentally, a developmental program is based on "a sequenced set of professional growth activities that provide support and assistance to new teachers throughout their induction years" (Brock & Grady, 2006, p. 46). Pertinent and meaningful professional development applications include intense mentoring, teaching partnerships, reflective practice, modelling, action research and forming productive and meaningful relationships with other adults in school community. It is accepted that "levels of confidence can be enhanced through cultural support and acceptance, affirmation, consultation, interaction and integration with other teachers" (Lundeen, 2004, p. 560). However, their experiences necessitate something as a primary mode of support, which is "beyond the traditional skill-oriented workshop approach" (Rogers & Babinski, 2002, p. 4). Teaching is a combination of complex and demanding activities requiring both social and emotional support of others in the profession. Thus, moving beyond the workshop approach is necessary. As Jax (2006) categorized, young teachers are "the searchers" being very "earth-bound" and canalising much of their energy into basic needs as well as immediate environment, because their concerns are on survival instincts worrying about the present. All these bring the need for professional support in the induction stage to light.

2.2.3.1. Supervisor Challenges and Administrative Problems

As Gilbert (2005) suggested, a supervisor's task is:

to embed support and professional development for new teachers in the day-to-day work of teaching by building collaborative structures that offer new teachers multiple opportunities to interact with more experienced colleagues while doing meaningful work. Such interactions offer both sorely needed emotional support and instructional support, potentially developing the skills of new teachers and veteran teachers alike (p. 39).

Working well with supervisors is crucial to be happy in the workplace. The supervisory staffs of the school district are important, because there is always a specific hierarchy of supervision at any institution. Therefore, the novices need to take positive actions anytime to establish positive relationship with supervisors (Thompson, 2007). An essential fact of teaching life is that they will always be inspected throughout the career by certain supervisors like head-teachers, heads of department, induction tutors, mentors, school principals and inspectors coming from educational directorates (Holmes, 2003). In interviews, novice teachers identified satisfying the expectations of their supervisors as one of their major concerns. One NT shared: “I respected my supervisor and my administration like a kid respects a parent” (McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005, p. 33).

Beginning teachers described observations and evaluations as the number one cause of educational stress (Howard, 2006). However reasonably, no supervisor will have a strong sense of a teacher’s performance and experience after conducting just one or two observations. To support growth, supervisors and mentors should observe teachers on separate occasions and engage in professional conversations about the observations. Observations will be worthwhile as formative assessments only if it is done in a spirit of coaching and support.

Supervisors have the official responsibility to provide guidance and assistance. But new teachers might hesitate to report troubles to a supervisor out of fear that admitting that they need help could lead to a negative evaluation...some new teachers naturally hesitate to admit failures and weaknesses to their mentor, whom they admire and respect as a professional authority (McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005, p. 33).

A useful evaluation process provides immediate feedback on instructional presentations, time and classroom management, and organizational skills. The purpose has two dimensions like measuring teacher competence and ability, and facilitating appropriate professional development and growth. Hence, “a meaningful and purposeful evaluation should strike a balance between criticism and approval (Howard, 2006, p. 142).

Williams and Prestage, (2002) argued that if induction tutors are to fulfil their function as a mentor, facilitator and manager, their training and development needs should receive as much attention as those of the novice teachers. Still, significant

differences appear among schools and teachers in the view with respect to their purposes of induction and to the nature of the induction tutor's role. For instance, supervisors often fail to focus the new teacher on student learning, but they are too much focused on teacher performances, handling, group work, lesson organization strategies, so tutoring becomes an organizational issue. However, they need to know how to focus the new teacher on diversity and equity in supervising (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003). The lack of support for observations, the lack of time in collaborative conversations, differences in philosophical applications, unclear boundaries between support and evaluation are among the tensions (Stanulis, Fallon, & Pearson, 2002).

There are also some administrative problems that bother the new teachers. For instance, some novices are uncomfortable with how they are compared with their colleagues or how their students are compared with their colleague's students. In addition to this, with a grade change at the beginning of the school year, new teachers might face challenges with the administration, as one NT described:

I had those expectations set for fourth graders, and I felt like, 'Oh, man, I'm so organized and I'm so ready to go, my room's ready' and then I changed to someone else's classroom and even though she was willing to leave everything, she does have some different beliefs about things—and then I had to get in this first-grade mindset (Stanulis, Fallon, & Pearson, 2002, p. 77).

According to Watkins (2005), principals must nurture an environment that encourages new teachers to take control of how they teach and set high standards for student achievement. New teachers also must be included in the decision making processes, rather than being passive observers.

2.2.3.2. School Context Problems

There have been days when I have literally had to leave the classroom because the things they say to me knock me off my feet. Children on welfare, children who play front porches of crack houses, and children who know all too well what violence really is (McBee, 1998, p. 58)

These were the statements of a novice, who clarified the fact that school context in which the NT was assigned and the characteristic of school culture is an

important impact on adaptation to the profession. Each school and each school district has unique entity, which comes forth through members' interactions with each other and the school community (Brock & Grady, 2006). For instance, there is a big difference "between urban schools and rural schools, impoverished schools and well-to-do schools, and small schools and overcrowded schools" (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006, p. 3). In this dimension, researches identify a "cultural mismatch" between new teachers and the school including other school members. For instance, it is claimed, "new teachers are disproportionately placed in schools and classrooms with students from low-income families, students of colour, and students with diverse language abilities" (Achinstein & Barret, 2004, p. 718).

It is logically realized that the environment from which the teachers come from does affect them and their way of teaching and dealing with the kids; therefore many novices encounter with cultures different from theirs. Many of the student teachers found themselves in between two cultures: the culture having underlined different priorities and different philosophies in teacher training courses, and the culture of the schools where they had to work with different perceptions. Numerous studies identified personal problems new teachers face, including social context adjustment. Cultural diversity that they might encounter can be a language barrier between children or school and the new teacher, or a social conflict and intolerance in the classroom. Their lack of knowledge how to incorporate children's backgrounds into their teaching, appreciating and valuing other cultures are very important at this point. It is sure that students' ethnicity, family and language backgrounds must be taken into account. Therefore, all the teachers are expected to become culturally responsive. As Agee (2004) claimed many beginning teachers enter their first classrooms having had few discussions on the ideologies implicit in curriculum and assessment or what strategies they might use to encourage real learning in a different context. According to him, the new teachers have to learn, themselves, about how to consider their students' realities, interests, and attitudes into their instructional and classroom management approaches to bridge the gap between their own experiences and those of their students.

It is also argued that new teachers lack opportunities to observe, hypothesize, test, and reflect on ways to reach children whose cultural backgrounds differ from

their own. At this point, the new teachers will have to “see beyond their own cultural walls and seek out a range of activities that capitalize on the strengths of individual learners”. In order to “break down cultural barriers”, a supportive team spirit is needed (McBee, 1998, p. 56). Here, it is crucial that mentors need to have the knowledge of students and teachers, classroom and community contexts, as well as professional contexts that affect teacher decisions. The range of the school population affects the process of being familiar with the groups or standards of families and parents.

In teaching profession, problems and their solutions are often specific to a particular school context or district. Therefore, beside learning the self, for the new teachers, learning the world, learning about children, understanding the students’ insights, and more importantly learning the school in terms of curriculum, routines, subject matter, and environments, as a teacher (Grinberg, 2002) is very necessary.

Stanulis, Fallon, and Pearson (2002) gave examples of factors that contributed to feelings of insecurity in the school context like lack of parental support, extreme management problems, the pressure of accountability that led to self-doubt, the school administrators, the mentor, the school jargon, ambiguous expectations, and the fear of being judged unfavourably by others.

A teacher’s participation in a professional community of colleagues has a powerful effect on his or her ability to effectively work in the classroom and adopt teaching strategies that more effectively meet student needs (Watkins, 2005). According to Grinberg (2002), teachers ought to engage in systematic investigation of communities and social relations as an integral part of learning to teach.

The study of Gormley, McDermott, Rothenberg, and Hammer (1995) revealed that neither student teachers nor cooperating faculty reflected much on the issue of culturally responsive pedagogy; neither student teachers nor their cooperating teachers reflected on the interaction between culture and teaching; and both groups admitted their lack of knowledge about other cultures when teaching in multicultural classrooms. Accordingly, the issue of culturally responsive pedagogy is a fundamental for teacher training, thus teacher education programs must change their courses for preparing teachers to work with children from diverse cultural backgrounds.

2.2.3.3. Mentoring Problems

Mentoring programs, where more experienced teachers support novice teachers, have become commonplace in many schools worldwide. The main impact of the mentoring process is both a professional development and a personal support from their mentors, which requires openness and confidentiality (Lindgren, 2005). New teachers benefit from a variety of opportunities to work with more experienced teachers, especially by observing others in their classrooms. As Athanases and Achinstein, (2003) pointed out, mentoring often provides buddy support, technical advice, and classroom management tips to meet novice teacher-centred concerns of survival. Mentors lead new teachers, but they are not to transform only their own understanding and ask threatening questions. Instead, they are to be co-teachers by sharing information, welcoming mentees' opinions, providing new understandings, and identifying solutions. Mentors might be driven by an attitude to get the new teachers in a particular way, because they might believe it as the best form, which is a false conception. At this point, mentees suffer more when their mentors are ineffective in being supportive.

It is very well reflected how necessary is a right mentoring through recommendations of the novices in Lindgren's (2005) article:

(1) When you are new, you need a lot of support. It is hard the first years. There are things you do not understand in the work. You can talk about whatever you want and even about feelings. The more you get the possibility to talk, the more confidence you will get in your role, because you are very uncertain in the beginning. It is natural to want to get support; (2) With mentoring, you will understand your tasks much faster. You will save yourself headaches about things that are the school's responsibility. Because of that, if you have a mentor who knows and has time for you, it will facilitate a novice in knowing the job (p. 260).

Mentoring is only one piece of induction support, and it can vary greatly in its implementation (Gilbert, 2005) in different contexts. Different comparative studies showed that mentor teachers from different countries held different beliefs about teaching and mentoring associated with the nature of the curriculum system and teaching organization in which they worked (Wang, 2001), because it reflects the way in which the mentors are trained in different countries.

In the study of Wang, Strong, and Odell (2004), speech acts in the conversations with mentors are ordered as: compliment, critique, questioning,

agreement, disagreement, explanation, and description. When compared the two different countries, US and China, the results revealed that (a) the U.S. mentors and novices had almost equal opportunities to initiate conversational topics, whereas the Chinese mentors tended to dominate the conversation; (b) the U.S. mentors tended to ask questions about their novices' lessons and describe what they saw, while the Chinese mentors were more likely to critique and make suggestions, although they also spent substantial time giving compliments, and the novices all tended to agree with the mentors; (c) in the U.S. cases a series of mentors' questions and descriptions about the novices' lessons were followed by the novices' explanation and agreement, but in the Chinese cases, mentors complimented the novices and then made a series of critiques and suggestions that were sometimes followed by novices' agreement, disagreement, or questions; (d) in most instances the U.S. mentor-novice pairs did not elaborate with reasons or examples, whereas the Chinese pairs tended to elaborate their ideas.

Mentoring applications are varied greatly in their effectiveness, too. Mentoring relationships can be great in theory, but they might remain only in the theory without appropriate application. As Trenta, Newman, Newman, Salzman, Lenigan, and Newman (2002) depicted, the record keeping paperwork was considered to be too much time-consuming and irrelevant to performance improvement in novices. There are also situations when the mentors are unavailable most of the time or badly matched that they cannot offer much help. Or there might be occasions where a novice from a certain school is matched with a mentor in another school, or with a mentor from a different field. As the results of Trent (1998) indicated, there should be a grade level match in mentoring and the personality dynamics of the two people being matched should be considered. For example, in the study of Stanulis, Fallon, and Pearson (2002), one of the novices expressed that her placement with a mentor created more anxiety for her.

Misapplications cause bigger problems than the real problems do. As they stand for solutions to the problems, they have to carry a mission like improving or curing the illness. If they do not serve their basic purpose, then it is more harmful than the problem itself. It is better for a school to have no mentoring program at all than to have a bad mentoring program. This observation is supported by the reactions

of teachers in the study who experienced ineffective mentoring. One of the first-year teachers noted: “instead of being a support mechanism, the mentoring program at his school was another three hours a month of wasted time...it is the most ridiculous thing I've ever participated” (McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005, p. 32).

As Mthiyane (1989) argued, beginning teachers, exposed to proper and adequate induction programs, may demonstrate higher performance and skills in classroom management, expected instruction, discipline problems, human relations, and leadership activities. According to him, most schools in the Chicago metropolitan area do not provide comprehensive orientation programs for beginning teachers and there are many teachers who have not had an opportunity to take part in any induction orientation program during their very first year of teaching. It is therefore imperative that administrators at the planning level should lead up to orientation programs for the newly started teachers.

More frequent discussions between the mentors and the mentees are a necessity of logical and realistic support. Mentoring should be a dynamic and developing process. Novices should be provided with the understanding and objectivity, as well as the ability to accept constructive criticism. It is advised, in order to enable a beneficial mentoring, for the novices to ask for information and assistance and to take every chance to observe what other teachers are doing. They are suggested to take advantage of the people around, who have a wealth of information, encouragement, and support. The novices should not to be hesitant to ask questions to mentors, who can provide information about curriculum, discipline and students (Gilbert, 2005).

Learning from other people is one of the most important dimensions of improvement, but it should serve for self-development rather than simple imposing of rules, regulations and applications of others. The best way is, always, to offer them both “learning” and “teaching” opportunities at the same time. Mentoring is not only a proficient method for supporting novice teachers and not only satisfactory for the persons involved, but it can also have a vital effect on the educational organization’s growth, stability and leadership. Mentoring should be an integrated part of staff development for more experienced teachers as well, because they grant opportunities for ongoing learning cooperative actions between the mentor and the

novice's personal and professional development by providing newly graduated teachers with the assistance needed during the difficult transition from pre-service education to actual classroom teaching (Lindgren, 2005).

Appraisals and feedback have to be the two necessary parts of the mentorship. The mentoring programmes should aim and acknowledge “to develop continuously the knowledge and skills of employees at all levels and to use this capacity to implement new ways of working which recognise the importance of learning” (Fuller & Unwin, 2004, p. 34). Engaging in collaborative activities, encouraging, structuring, and embedding workplace learning are crucial in this aspect. These activities sometimes go further and become evaluation activities rather than being in a collaborative manner. Then the issue of negative impact of evaluation practices on the teaching profession comes to surface. As Uhlenbeck, Verloop, and Beijaard (2002) stated, teacher evaluation is a controversial and complex issue, because existing teacher evaluation procedures are criticized for assessing elements which are not relevant to teaching and for ignoring the real nature of teaching. Instead, it is needed to be more knowledgeable on how the teachers learn and develop, and what teachers really need to know.

According to Jax (2006), mentors are known as the ones who seek to guide and inspire others and expected to be kind, attentive, and empathic. They have the mission of helping the others being skilled at “tapping into empathy and employing individualized support” (pp. 103-104). Since they are so comfortable in restrictive environments and when controlling others, they are faced with the danger of becoming counter-productive and limiting one. However, they should prefer “a balance between rigidity and flexibility, between rules and freedom, and between teacher control and student control” (p. 106).

2.3. Research on Novice Teachers

This section presents various researches carried out on novice teachers and their development. It is divided into two parts as studies conducted abroad and the studies within Turkey.

2.3.1. Research Studies Abroad

There are numerous studies related with teacher training and development, and many of these researches inquire the induction process of new teachers by displaying the necessities for improvement. In some studies, the concerns of novice teachers in the surveys and conversations were reflected. In others, recommendations were provided for all planning and implementation activities particular to teacher training and development. The studies are presented in a chronological order.

To start with, Allingham (1990) conducted a study on the adequacy of induction, orientation, and in-service practices considering the needs of new teachers, and the critical incidents experienced by newcomers. It is aimed to see if there were changes in perceptions gained in experience, and to determine which in-service practices were perceived as most useful. The study involved novice high school teachers voluntarily participating across British Columbia. Major findings included some differences between genders in terms of choices of resource personnel, some significant differences in the perceptions of older novices regarding peers, some significant differences in the methodological influences between age groups, and differences between urban versus rural school districts in induction.

An ethnographic study was undertaken by McClelland (1991) to support three veteran elementary teachers in different grades and their student interns during a teaching internship. In the case of student interns, their academic record, their writing and thinking abilities, and their history of becoming involved in improving the curriculum and instruction was taken into account. The six participants were required to keep dialogue journals and to become part of a support group. Unstructured schedule interviews were constructed and administered to all six teachers at the beginning and end of the semester. Field observations in each of the three classrooms under study were also conducted. The results showed that the participants shared many common characteristics typically associated with exemplary teachers and that the model was successful for the teaching internship experience and for professional growth of the veteran and novice teachers.

About the problems among novice teachers, Greenlee and Ogletree (1993) put forward the following results: (a) 82% of respondents indicated that teachers needed more skill and training in handling disruptive behaviour, and (b) 78% indicated that

stress related to classroom management was the most influential factor in failure among novice teachers. In the same study, most frequently occurring discipline problems were listed as: disrespect for fellow students, disinterest in school, lack of attention, and excessive talking. Additionally, major causes of problems were identified as: violence in media, broken families, drugs, and alcohol. The top ways to improve discipline were given as: counselling and guidance, administrative procedures, more consistent discipline, and better communication.

After three years of pilot testing with more than five hundred beginning teachers, Long and Stansbury (1994) shared a number of different possibilities for assessing the skills of beginning teachers in California. These innovative approaches to the assessment of beginning teachers were: (a) *high-inference classroom observations* requiring substantial documentation on the part of a trained observer who then uses it to make a judgment about certain critical functions of teaching, such as promoting a positive learning environment, creating a structure for learning, and using appropriate questioning techniques; (b) *semi-structured interviews* in which an interviewer asks the teacher to answer a standardized set of questions allowing interviewers to use follow-up questions as well; (c) *structured simulation tasks* requiring teachers to respond in writing to a set of tasks simulating situations or problems that a teacher is likely to encounter on the job; (d) *performance-based assessment centre exercises* which bring teachers together at a central place to participate in a series of assessment activities, including different methodology and different demonstration of skills or abilities; (e) *portfolios* documenting a teacher's actual teaching experience over a specified period of time and including examples of what the teacher considers to be superior work, such as lesson plans, handouts, student work produced after instruction or various materials related to an actual unit taught; (f) *videotaped teaching episodes* through which teachers are shown videotaped scenarios of classroom events and activities and then are asked to answer a series of questions about them; (g) *multiple-choice examinations* requiring teachers to answer highly focused questions about teaching and subject matter by selecting one or more correct responses from a fixed number of options.

In 1995, Ganser was engaged in a study on the first-year teachers and their mentoring by mostly focusing on the concerns of the mentors of beginning teachers.

The concerns were mostly about discomfort due to being viewed as an evaluator, which created obstacles in mentoring. Mentoring of novice teachers were seen the central feature of many beginning teacher programs by veteran teachers, and support issues were discussed a lot. On the other hand, Harris (1995) described a mentoring program designed for novice teachers in the United States. It was proved that the success might be ensured through a detailed description of the program, the characteristics and other features of the mentoring and necessary modifications.

Schwartz (1996) asserted hypothetical assumptions that many novice teachers in New York City were not adequately prepared by their colleges and universities for classroom circumstances found in typical city schools, and suggested ways to deal with the problems. About one of every five new teachers (18.5%) would leave the New York City public school system after just one year and about one of three (31%) would leave after three years. As it is claimed, the reason behind was the nature of student teaching in colleagues, where professors arrange student teaching placements in schools that are “exemplary” offering prospective teachers favourable environments in which they can learn from successful teachers and work in one or two classrooms under the supervision of excellent teachers, and they are encouraged to interact with other faculty members to become familiar with a variety of effective teaching practices. For this problem, three alternatives were suggested: (1) placing student teachers in a “model school” rather than in a model classroom, many of which exists in typical schools as a valuable preparatory experience, where they would learn fine teaching practices while learning to cope with less than desirable surroundings; (2) a “dual school” experience, with the first being in a model school (fall semester) and the second (spring semester) in a more typical setting; and (3) assigning student teachers in teams of two, three, or four, in exemplary or average classrooms.

Martin and Baldwin’s study (1996) investigated the questions about (a) how the beginning teachers were different from experienced teachers in their perceptions of classroom management, and (b) how elementary school counsellors can help beginning teachers develop healthy learning environments. It was aimed to measure about (1) the beliefs regarding *psychosocial environment* including student interaction, respect, achieving school success, fostering responsibility and self-discipline, and nurturing creativity; (2) the perceptions of *instructional management*

including learning expectations, deciding on topics and materials for learning, handling off-task behaviours, and organizing learning time; (3) the beliefs about *communication* like providing verbal encouragement, feedback to students, and giving directions; and (4) the domain of *setting a classroom structure* like seating assignments and classroom rules. Significant differences, in the analyses, were determined between inexperienced and experienced teachers for three of those four subscales. For instance, inexperienced teachers scored significantly less interventionist than experienced ones on the psychosocial environment dimension, and significantly more interventionist on both the instructional management, and communication dimensions. There was not a significant difference in relation to the setting a classroom structure dimension.

Years ago, Britt (1997) examined first-year and second-year teachers' perceptions of issues pertinent to their profession. The results from open-ended questionnaire pointed out that the perceptions of the novices on their beginning teaching were not all positive, yet they were still satisfied that they had chosen to become teachers. Their responses fell into these main categories: (1) time management, (2) discipline, (3) parental involvement, and (4) preparation.

Trent (1998) reported, in his study, the interviews taken from individuals representing three different roles: mentees, mentors, and school principals. Information was gathered and examined with the objective of determining what occurred in an urban school district's mentoring program, including the first-year mentees. All participants were questioned about career identity, inter-personal and intra-personal experiences, the school as a work place, and particularly the dynamics occurring through their individual roles. The majority liked their workplaces, and liked each other. All expressed strong support of mentoring by suggesting improving the mentoring process through quality training programs and well thought-out goals and objectives. They made clear that there should be a grade level match in mentoring and consideration should be given to the personality dynamics of the two people being matched. There was agreement that the matched mentors' and mentees' offices should be located close to each other and the mentors should contact the mentees frequently.

Liou (2001) provided a description of pre-service teachers' reflections by examining their observation reports while they were taking a practice teaching course. Results indicated that student teachers talked mainly about topics related to practical teaching issues and evaluation of other teachers' or their own teaching. The seven major categories related to classroom teaching were: (1) theories of teaching, (2) approaches and methods, (3) evaluating teaching, (4) questions about teaching, (6) self-awareness, (7) classroom management, and (8) evaluation of lesson plan.

A qualitative case study was conducted by Mayotte (2001) for the sake of understanding the perceptions of novice second career teachers (SCTs) regarding their first year teaching experiences through interviews, documents, and use of a survey. The major arguments in the findings were: (1) experiences within a previous career had an impact on a career switcher's adaptation to teaching and teaching philosophy; (2) the impact of a previous career was more a positive influence than a negative one; (3) the specific career that SCT came from, the experience of that career as well as the age of the career switcher might influence the experience of the adaptation to teaching; (4) support during the induction was primarily needed for practical concerns, but there were emotional, intellectual, and social needs as well; and (5) taking into consideration a career switcher's concerns and needs, and providing the necessary support could aid the adaptation process. This study also presented a support model that emphasizes key components for meeting support needs of SCTs.

Trenta, Newman, Newman, Salzman, Lenigan, and Newman (2002) reported the evaluation process of a program designed to support new teachers in a school district with the participation of multiple stakeholders like teachers union, school district administrators, and entry-year teachers. Responses from all stakeholders supported the mentor-evaluation program. Participants thought that the teacher education programs should not be applied to all participants in the same way. Accordingly, experienced but newly hired teachers should not receive the same focus as novice teachers. Participants also objected to the amount of record keeping required in mentoring activities. The issues raised in the evaluation reports were: (a) the need to prioritise time for the mentoring process; (b) the need to provide more

time for consulting teachers to devote to the program, and (c) the need for consulting teachers and administrators to prioritise time to deal with evaluation requirements.

Stanulis, Fallon, and Pearson (2002) were engaged in a study in order to help the novices deal with challenges and uncertainties of the first year of teaching. Three first-year teachers, who were very successful during their university teacher preparation, struggled with three predominant issues during their first year of teaching: (1) the induction into the isolation of teaching: the isolating nature of teaching and the lack of collaboration contributed to the novices' feelings of being left on their own, (2) the interest in not abandoning university teacher preparation: the novices were sacrificing philosophies and practices learnt during university preparation, because they were left on their own to learn how to manage their classrooms, and (3) the need to learn from mentoring: there were situations where they had mentors in different grade levels, who were not in close proximity, and whose roles were not clearly defined.

Wonacott (2002) examined and classified "induction detractors" of new beginning teachers as: (1) internal detractors arising within the teacher; (2) pedagogy detractors related to short-term instructional planning, delivery, evaluation, and improvement; (3) curriculum detractors involving medium-term planning of course content and preparation for instruction; (4) program detractors arising in long-term departmental or program planning and operation; (5) student detractors originating in students; (6) peer detractors arising in contacts and exchanges with co-workers; (7) system detractors encompassing individuals and forces within the educational system that require compliance; (8) community detractors occurring outside the administrative and physical bounds of the educational system.

Rogers and Babinski (2002) created new teacher groups to provide beginning teachers regularly scheduled opportunities to engage in professional dialogue with one another in a place they could talk safely about their particular concerns. The content of their discussions, according to their frequency, were grouped around: (1) individual children, their special needs, their home and family lives (as the most frequently discussed problem); (2) working with other adults, like dealing with parents, teaching assistants, mentors, administrators, and other teachers; (3) curricular planning issues like how to plan lesson for the entire year, how to structure

lessons and assignments to promote student independence, and how to plan activities for gifted children in the classroom; (4) self as a teacher (individual's development of his or her identity as a teacher and the associated stress of meeting the demands of the job); (5) politics in school including issues like school climate and culture, lack of resources in the school, lack of collaboration among teachers; and (6) classroom management issues like how to create an orderly but positive teaching environment in the classrooms. With the help of this new teacher groups, the NTs came to realize that they were not the only ones having difficulty in their first year and they could see their issues from multiple perspectives when sharing their successes and failures, raising questions and concerns, and providing socio- emotional support to each other.

Uhlenbeck, Verloop, and Beijaard (2002) aimed to determine the best approach to the development of procedures to assess beginning teachers and provided a framework. According to them, developing of an assessment is not only a complex technical process but also a social process. Their framework was: (a) bringing together insights from recent theories about teaching and assessment and considering their implications for the development of teacher assessment procedures, (b) developers' generating evaluative questions from the framework to evaluate an existing assessment system and users' benefiting the framework as a checklist to examine existing system; and (c) an overview of the factors involved in developing assessment procedures.

In addition, Orland-Barak (2002) examined the influence of student teaching assessment on teaching and the relationship between assessment and performance. Data gathered from portfolios, evaluation forms, feedback sessions, interviews, and written stories highlighted the student teachers' making use of their assessment to understand real-life teaching contexts.

Huntly (2003) prepared her dissertation on beginning teachers competence, which aimed to include voice of their own conceptions as an alternative view, rather than traditional ways in which principals are to decide. Eighteen beginning teachers were interviewed in order to see the variation in the conceptions. As the outcome, beginning teachers experienced competence in a number of ways: (1) The notion of *being well prepared*, despite being vital for overall success, did not necessitate sophisticated pedagogical skill, nor long-term classroom experience; on the contrary

lesson planning, time management and the setting an appropriate physical environment as vital aspects of competence. (2) The conception of *being in control* was an agreed focus as establishing control over the learning environment, because they considered effective behaviour management to be an essential part of professional responsibilities and admitted that these effective strategies were developed as part of a ‘trial and error’ process in a continued classroom experience. (3) The final conception, *having a sound knowledge base* recognised the importance of curriculum knowledge to the overall competence, because the participants referred to knowledge of the curriculum, knowledge of students and pedagogical knowledge as vital elements of their overall teaching performance, without which they would consider themselves to be incompetent.

As posed in Athanases and Achinstein’s paper (2003), the novices carried such concerns with (1) self-image, (2) resources, and (3) procedures that characterize early teaching for many years. More specifically, common questions appeared like “do the students think I’m in charge?; what materials should I use in this unit?; how can I manage the class?” (p. 1486).

Roasen (2003) analysed the reflective pieces of student teachers’ and categorized the content discussed in their writing as: (1) *curriculum* (like discussing specific activities, decisions about materials, topics of conversation, and goals for the students’ actions); (2) *pedagogy* (such as specific activities they would use in the classroom, learning their students’ interest, families, and individual struggles); (3) *multicultural competence* (as developing a sense of one’s own background, reducing attitudes of prejudice and stereotyping, enhancing, intercultural knowledge, and developing knowledge of home and school discontinuities); and (4) *social justice* (like social issues and values, social action perspective). This study announced the need for more satisfying and informative ways to measure teacher candidates’ learning, because findings were based on their self-report and immediate reactions.

Similarly, Wang, Strong, and Odell (2004) analysed the content and forms of mentor-novice conversations about novices’ lessons and found that the U.S. and Chinese mentor-novice interactions were different in focus and form, and these differences were likely related to the curriculum structures and organization of teaching and mentoring in each country. For example, the two U.S. cases were

clearly different from the two Chinese cases with regard to subject matter content. Although all cases paid substantial attention to teaching and student issues, the two Chinese cases had a significant number of topics devoted to issues of subject matter while the two U.S. cases had few. These results revealed that concerns of novice teachers varied in different parts of the world from country to country.

For another example, Agee's (2004) case study examined the experiences of a young African American English teacher over 3 years, when she tried to teach multicultural literature. In the university program, she expressed a desire to teach multicultural literature, to use constructivist approaches to teaching that built on students' personal experiences, and to broaden students' understanding of racial and cultural differences. However, in her practice teaching as well as in her first 2 years as a teacher, she found her goals difficult to implement. The focus of this case study appeared as a novice's struggle to construct a teaching identity and a multicultural curriculum.

Lundeen (2004) investigated about (a) what the perceived problems of new teachers in their first year are, (b) how they change over time, and (c) what changes in their development are evident. It is identified, among the perceived problems, that there is a distinct struggle between the processes of caring for self as a developing adult in society and caring for the needs of students in their classrooms. The analyses provided two emerging categories for individual and group problems: (1) Classroom Management and Discipline Problems, and (2) Adult Relationship and Interaction Problems. Additional analyses indicated six sub-problems: (a) single student problems, (b) small group problems, (c) whole classroom management problems and issues, (d) colleague and administrator problems, (e) parents and classroom assistant problems, and (f) mentor problems.

The categories, in the study of Achinstein and Barret (2004) were summarized in three frames: (1) the managerial frame (like routines and procedures for managing students during activities in the classrooms, behaviour problems and consequences for discipline, timing and pacing of lessons) was addressed in 93% of the cases; (2) the human relations frame (such as knowing individual students' needs and learning styles, student-teacher relationships and communications, classroom culture, sense of community, collaboration, and connections with students and

parents, student expression, choice, and motivation) was addressed in 100 % of the cases. (3) the political frame (like diverse students' needs in order to foster equity and access to learning, differentiation of instruction, students' prior knowledge and cultural understandings, teachers' expectations about learners, an analysis of race, culture, language and access; and inequities of student participation in classroom discourse) was addressed in 87% of the cases.

Robertson (2004) had the purpose of researching organizational sources of administrative support that contribute to novice teacher retention and turnover. Two large urban school districts in North Carolina were compared for organizational influences on novice teacher commitment and satisfaction, and thus retention in the profession. Quantitative data were gathered through the use of a survey administered to novice teachers and principals in the two urban school districts. Qualitative data were gathered through written comments concerning items on the survey, personal and group interviews with novice teachers, principals, and central office administrators from both districts. Analysis of the data revealed evident differences in organizational sources of administrative support for the two districts. Factors that affected novice teacher satisfaction appeared to be present in both districts, but administrative support factors that affected novice teacher turnover appeared to depend on the school, rather than district level. In addition, novice teacher perceptions of administrative support seemed to be highly individualized.

Jeanlouis (2004) conducted a research on the high attrition rate among first year public elementary school teachers in the states of Texas and Louisiana. The questionnaire developed to identify the causative factors that lead to attrition among teachers, was applied to seventy-one novices. In the responses, most of the participants indicated that their formal training in teacher education programs did not prepare them to teach in a culturally diverse classroom, and they did not believe the teaching profession was consistent with their expectations. On the other hand, the results showed that the first year teachers enjoyed working with children and had a positive working relationship with their colleagues. The number one reported reason why first-year teachers left the profession was low salary. Other important reasons were like overwhelming teacher workload, a lack of administrative support, and insufficient attention to student discipline. In relation to administration, the primary

reasons were that school administrators did not provide sufficient feedback and assigned too many tasks and responsibilities unrelated to classroom teaching.

Reiatone (2004) argued, in a longitudinal study, that pedagogical content knowledge was an essential knowledge base for effective teaching, and that its development might not depend on years of experience. The findings in the cases confirmed that pedagogical content knowledge growth of novice social science teachers did not develop only within experience, and it existed as a key component of effective teaching at the novice stage of their teaching. It is also indicated that novice teachers had a substantive as well as procedural understanding of pedagogical content knowledge, and that they focused on goals and purposes of learning and knowing the learner after they began teaching practice.

The results in the study of Hoffman, Roller, Maloch, Sailors, Duffy, and Beretvas (2005), suggested that participation in a high-quality teacher preparation program had a positive influence on the transition of teachers entering the profession and on the adoption of effective teaching practices by these teachers. Graduates of excellent programs were more effective than teachers in the comparison groups in creating and engaging their students with a high quality literacy environment. In accordance with this claim, there were three important arguments: (1) Learning to teach should be considered a career-long endeavour, because all reviewers advocated ongoing professional development and support for teachers in their first years of teaching. (2) Teacher educators constantly face the challenge of helping pre-service teachers link new knowledge learned through course work to instructional practice during field experiences. Therefore, most reviewers suggested that course work should build on a knowledge base that prepares teachers to be flexible, adaptive, and responsive to students' needs in reading. (3) Teacher education, which is field-based and emphasizes practicum experiences, seems to have the most positive effects. Specifically, supervised, relevant, field-based or clinical experience in which pre-service teachers receive ongoing support, guidance, and feedback is critical.

McKenzie (2005) was engaged in a case study exploring the experiences of five beginning teachers in four Catholic secondary schools in Australia with a qualitative approach of an interpretative paradigm. The participants were interviewed many times and kept a journal. After comparing and contrasting the first year process

of the participants, findings indicated the “fundamental importance of the careful meshing of past and present realities in the development of teacher identity” and the beginning teachers contended, “their experiences set amongst the backdrop of the culture of the school” (p. 133). It was claimed that within a supportive, collegial environment, beginning teachers had positive experiences that increased their development and affected their classroom experiences, and that the school culture and the life story of the beginning teachers led their experiences. For example, in schools where isolation was the dominant culture, the experiences were around loneliness and seclusion where problems were often unresolved. As a result, the researcher proclaimed that the current literature neglected the individuality, agency, competency, and the interaction between culture and identity; thus emphasized the necessity of a new model for understanding the experience of beginning teachers.

In Gilbert’s (2005) study, data gathered from new teachers was about what helped them most in the induction process. Interestingly enough, the top four or five items related with their concerns were all about spending time with other and more experienced teachers.

Another good example related with the teacher development was Smith and Sela’s (2005) paper, which described the rationale for and the use of the action research during the fourth and the final year of teacher education, which is also their first year as teachers. During this induction year, the novice teachers were engaged in an action research project as a compulsory assignment in the course of “teacher as researcher”. The NTs were provided with reflective tools for systematic examination of their work as teachers, and their learning process was also documented.

Robbins (2005) examined the beliefs of pre-service, experienced, and expert teachers on: (a) socio-cultural consciousness, (b) ethic of caring, (c) cultural communication, and (d) transformative curriculum. The study revealed that pre-service teachers established more culturally responsive beliefs than experienced teachers in all areas, except the ethic of caring. And, more pre-service teachers proved “higher explicit beliefs than implicit beliefs” and suggested that their teacher preparation programs could have given “more influence on the rhetoric of culturally responsive teaching than the actual application of culturally teaching to classroom situations” (p. 191).

Walker-Wied (2005) conducted an ethnographic case study examining the socialization of new teachers, which is affected by the school culture. The findings indicated that the school principal was a vital factor in the successful induction and socialization of the teachers. All faculty and staff, also, appeared to be major players in effective induction and socializing first year teachers. Additionally the findings pointed the importance of special education support staff being involved in sharing knowledge of special education procedures and policies. When there was a mismatch between teacher preparation and the work environment, more assistance was necessary for the novice teacher to ensure his/her success.

Finally, the study conducted by McCann, Johannessen, and Ricca (2005) presented nine major categories of concerns identified in interview transcripts of beginning teachers: (1) relationships with students; (2) relationships with parents; (3) relationships with colleagues; (4) relationships with supervisors; (5) workload, time management, and fatigue; (6) knowledge of subject and curriculum; (7) evaluation and grading; (8) authority and control; and (9) appearance and identity.

Slightly different from the study above, McCann and Johannessen (n.d.) re-studied two central questions: “what are the significant frustrations that could influence beginning teachers to leave the profession?” and “what supports, resources, and preparations influence beginning teachers to remain in the profession?” (p. 138). The major concerns of beginning teachers were reported under five general headings with their reflective questions, as in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2
Major Concerns of Novice Teachers

Issue	Reflective Questions
Relationships	
Relationships with students	<i>Will students like me?</i>
Relationships with parents	<i>Will they accept me as a bona fide teacher?</i> <i>What will I do if a parent is upset with me?</i> <i>Will parents accept me as a legitimate teacher?</i>
Relationships with colleagues	<i>Will my colleagues believe that I know what I am doing?</i> <i>Will they respect my efforts?</i>
Relationships with supervisors	<i>Will I satisfy the expectations of evaluators?</i> <i>Am I doing what “real” teachers do?</i>
Workload & Time Management	
Fatigue	<i>How can I get it all done?</i> <i>Do I have a life any more?</i>

Table 2.2. (continued)

<p>Knowledge of Subject & Curriculum Focus and framework</p> <p>Evaluation and Grading Value judgements</p> <p>Autonomy and Control Independence and integrity</p>	<p><i>In the end what is really important to teach? What principles guide the development of the curriculum?</i></p> <p><i>What am I measuring? What do I do when the numbers do not match my subjective impressions?</i></p> <p><i>Can I teach the way that I was prepares to teach and the way that I believe is the best way to teach?</i></p>
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(McCann, & Johannessen, n.d., p. 139)

2.3.2. Research Studies in Turkey

Studies related with the issues discussed above are very limited in Turkey. One of them was Korkmaz's (1999) master thesis, through which he attempted to find out whether the novice teachers' problems in induction years show any difference with respect to gender, the faculty they graduated from, the location of their school, and the number of the teachers in the school. These four factors were evaluated in terms of their effect on the perceptions of novice teachers about their own job-adaptation stage. This study was limited to the novice classroom teachers that were assigned to Afyon province in the 1997-1998 academic year. The participants of the study were both the sample and the population of the research. The results revealed that there was not a significant difference between male and female novices in their perceptions of job-adaptation problems, but there was a significant difference between the teachers who were graduates of Education Faculty and the others, as the graduates of other faculties encountered a higher level of problems than the Education Faculty graduates. What is more, there appeared a significant mean difference in the perceptions of the novices with respect to the place where they work and the number of the teachers in their schools. Results of the multiple comparisons showed that the novices working in villages had more problems than the ones working in towns or cities. Lastly, the number of the teachers in the school had a significant effect on the adaptation levels. For instance, the ones encountering the most problems were from the schools, in which there were only 3 to 5 teachers working.

Toker (2001), in her master thesis, searched the problems and perceptions of classroom teachers who were certified through alternative teacher training programs. The study was conducted with participant ACTs, primary school principals, and primary school inspectors. The general findings showed that ACTs could not, considerably, adapt to classroom teaching. The problems reported were about classroom management, instructional activities, and communication with principals and inspectors. Principals indicated that most of the ACTs had problems in planning, implementing instructional activities and teaching according to student level. Some ACTs preferred to be teaching at secondary levels. ACTs working in Aegean and Black Sea regions were more satisfied with teaching than the ones in other regions. Lastly, they perceived difficulty in relationship with school inspectors and that necessary assistance was received from colleagues and other resources.

Apart from these, Alan (2003) prepared a master's thesis, which explored novice teachers' perceptions of a ten-week INSET program implemented at School of Foreign Languages at Anadolu University in the 2002-2003 academic year. He investigated to what extent novice teachers perceived the INSET courses valuable for their teaching. The results indicated that the perceptions of the novices on the INSET courses were generally positive. An important finding was that one of the most beneficial INSET course for the novices were described as the sessions about classroom management, which reflected the prior needs of the novice teachers.

2.4. Summary of the Literature Review

Both the themes in literature and the findings in the research argued that the first year in teaching profession has a striking importance, and thus new teachers need a big deal of guide and mentoring in the early years. Depending on the school context in which they teach and the staff with whom they work, the adaptation challenges of the novice teachers might vary or gather around certain concerns, which result in general or specific induction problems.

Specifically discussed problems of novice teachers can be a simple in-class activity or different tasks like cooperation with parents, assessment meetings, and problems with colleagues, students' lack of enthusiasm, management and discipline issues, and the exhausting nature of their work. Other examples might range from the

problems with pupils with special needs to the personal struggles for surviving in workplace. Some of them are internal and some are external challenges.

However, most of the studies cluster around some influential issues like problems of: “workload, classroom management, discipline and student behaviour, diversity and individual differences, curricular planning, instruction and teaching, measurement and evaluation, insufficient mentoring or professional support, isolation and loneliness, school context and school community, administrative applications, relationships and social environment”. The core of many challenges appeared to be “the student”, like understanding student differences, focusing on their needs, engaging all learners in teaching, planning instructional opportunities for diverse learners, learning quickly about the students, learning their names, calling them by name, trying to develop some kind of personal contact, which are reflected in many of the interview transcripts of various surveys.

The literature revealed that induction problems are mutual for most of the novice teachers starting first teaching in any part of the world. Considering the differences in applications and the changes in situations and conditions, their excitement and anxiety as beginners in new positions are rather natural. Hence, it is tolerated that each new teacher might have adaptation challenges in their early years.

The new teachers all go through similar stages and have similar experiences. That is why they need opportunities to talk frequently about their work with other new teachers in a novice community. This brings the necessity that it is very crucial to design mentoring programs carefully and to cover meaningful staff development procedures. In mentoring programs, it is more beneficial when the mentor is an experienced and a judicious person who is interested in supporting less experienced individuals. The willingness is very important, as it can cause uneasiness if the mentor is assigned obligatorily by the administration. The mentors must also act as a role model to help the novice progress professionally and construct self-awareness.

Reviewing the studies chronologically and thematically, the adaptation challenges encountered in induction stage are categorized under three issues: (a) *work-related problems*; (b) *social concerns*; and (c) *the need for professional support*, each of which has sub-categories.

Under work-related challenges, the issues of: (1) *overwhelming workload* (indicating work taken home, non-instructional duties, extra-curricular activities and lack of spare time); (2) *instructional problems* (ranging from subject matter knowledge to assessment like curricular planning, content preparation, effective teaching, in-class happenings, dealing with instructional tools, testing and evaluation, etc); and (3) *classroom management* (including control of discipline problems, individual or group behaviours, classroom atmosphere), were emphasized.

Under social concerns, (1) *social status and teacher identity* (expressing personal and cultural conflicts, constructing a teacher persona, developing a self); (2) *teacher-student relationship* (covering all kinds of ties between teacher and the students); (3) *teacher-parent relationship* (meaning possible challenges with students' parents); (4) *conflicts with colleagues* (like setting social and professional contacts with other teachers); and (5) *isolation and loneliness* (meaning both personal, social, and professional loneliness in school community) were frequently mentioned in the literature.

Lastly, the need for the professional support indicated external problems resulting from system-wide units lacking in necessary induction or misapplications in support programs, like (1) *supervisor challenges and administrative problems*; (2) *school context problems*; and (3) *mentoring problems*.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter presents the description of the overall design of the study, research questions, population and sample selection, data collection instrument, pilot work, data collection and analysis processes, and limitations of the study.

3.1. Overall Design of the Study

The main purpose of the study was, firstly, to examine the induction process of the novice teachers who had just started teaching in different parts of Turkey by inquiring the frequency of their adaptation challenges in the early years, and secondly to investigate the factors that have significant influences on their adaptation levels. Other minor points of focus were the novice teachers' perceptions on the sufficiency of their pre-service experiences gained in their undergraduate studies, and the use of in-service trainings they had so far.

As it was aimed to describe the existing situation, the overall research design of the study was a survey study, in which the question of “what” was answered about the adaptation process of the novice teachers. Additionally, other existing facts related with the conditions, characteristics, and other perceptions of the novices were also revealed in the study.

Figure 3.1 demonstrates the overall research design of the study and the steps taken briefly. After determining the research questions, the starting point of the study appeared as literature review. Searching previously conducted researches and considering the related literature, a survey questionnaire, *Questionnaire for Novice Teachers*, was developed to obtain intended information about the induction process

and the factors influencing this process. Next, the target population and the sample selection criteria were determined. The questionnaire was pilot-tested to a group of novice teachers selected as representative sample of novice teachers. After revising and finalizing the questionnaire, the cities in which the questionnaire would be implemented were determined and the data collection started. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher himself in eight different provinces. Data were analysed through descriptive and inferential statistics.

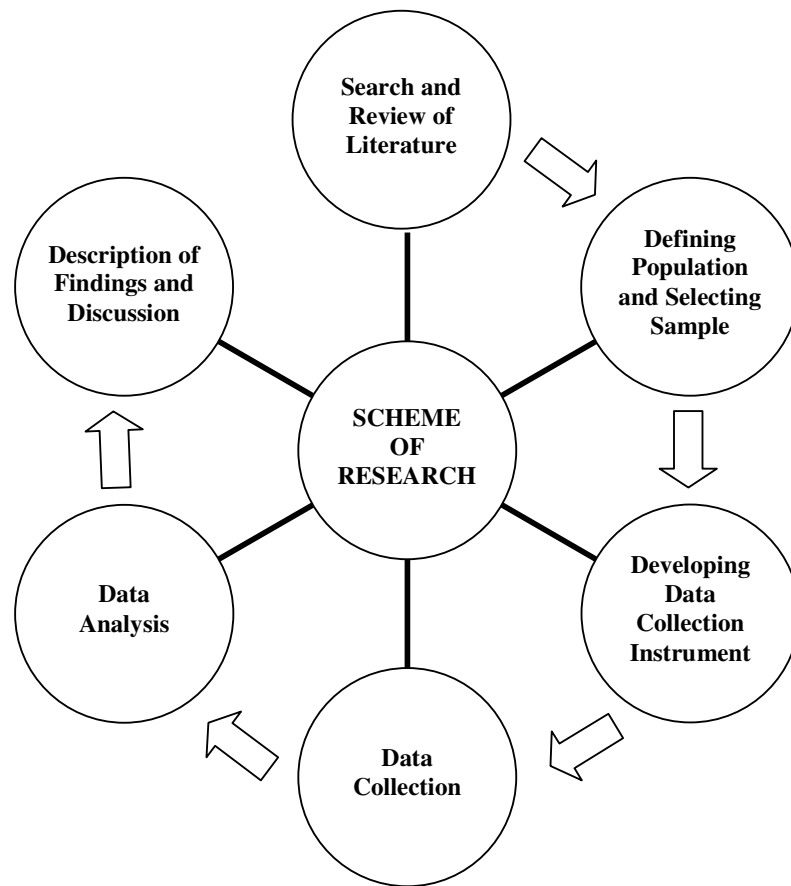


Figure 3.1
Overall Research Design

3.2. Research Questions

Basically, the data on the opinions of a large group of novice teachers about their adaptation difficulties were collected and analysed in a descriptive research

style. To define the variables in the study, the dependent variables of the study were determined as the adaptation difficulties that a novice teacher could have and the perceptions on their PRESET and INSET experiences. On the other hand, there appeared various independent variables like gender, age level, field, school location, school type, grade level taught, university and faculty they graduated from, pre-service and in-service experiences, etc. Accordingly, the specific research questions used in the study were:

1. What are the most and the least frequent adaptation challenges of the novice teachers in their early years of teaching profession?
2. How do the novice teachers assess their pre-service and in-service education?
3. Do the adaptation challenges of the novice teachers change according to certain factors like
 - a. age,
 - b. gender,
 - c. subject area,
 - d. university and faculty they graduated from,
 - e. practice teaching they had in their pre-service years,
 - f. existence of a mentor teacher in their pre-service years,
 - g. school location,
 - h. school type in which they started to teach,
 - i. grade levels taught,
 - j. in-service training they received,
 - k. existence of a mentor teacher in their induction period,
 - l. level of love they had for teaching profession?
4. Do the perceptions of the novice teachers on their pre-service and in-service education change according to different variables like
 - a. subject area,
 - b. university and faculty they graduated from,
 - c. practice teaching they had in their pre-service years,
 - d. existence of a mentor teacher in their pre-service years,
 - e. work place?

The rationale for including those dependent variables in the third research question was, firstly, to see how many of them have really an effect on the novice teachers' adaptation and secondly to assess if the factors like practice teaching, in-service training, and working with a mentor is helpful or not in this adaptation process. The dependent variables for the fourth research question was determined to see the differences on the perceptions about (1) pre-service training with respect to subject area, university, faculty and practice teaching; and (2) in-service training with respect to work place, which might affect the procedures and applications.

3.3. Population and the Sample of the Study

The target population of the study, to which the results would be applied and generalized, was determined as all the novice teachers teaching in various school contexts in different parts of Turkey. Each year, the MONE assigns approximately 10 to 15 thousands of newly-graduated teachers to various parts of the country, and the number of the assigned teachers for regions changes from city to city as a result of the teacher needs. Apart from this, there are novice teachers, who take positions of teaching independently from MONE in different private institutions each year. Considering this huge number of the target population, which are more than 10 thousands of novice teachers, it was difficult to reach the entire population working in an area of 780.000km²; thus the study was conducted with "sample". When determining the sample, it was important that they were representative of the actual population, and the selection procedure was feasible. Considering the resources of the researcher, such as financing, time, transportation, etc. as well as the limitations placed upon research by the MONE's permission procedures, cluster random sampling was used. Rather than selecting a random sample among all individuals of the target population, it was easier to cluster the population and select ten provinces of Turkey randomly, and implement the study with all the novice teachers in these provinces.

A randomly selected 10 sample of 81 provinces were believed to be sufficient to study. However for practical reasons, the questionnaire could be applied to 465 novice teachers in 8 provinces of selected sample, due to late official permission from the MONE and different planning of local directorates. In other words, NTT

program in one province was planned for summer holiday, which became a late date for this study. In the other one, it was already finished when the official permission was received. Therefore, it became impossible to reach the novices in those two cities, as the only way to see them gathered was in NTT program.

Figure 3.2 shows a map on which the distributions of the eight provinces, where the questionnaire was administered are seen in bold. The number of the participants from each province is also given on the bold areas. As it is seen, the sample did not represent all the geographical regions. Since it does not represent some regions, the sample does not claim to perfectly represent the whole population.

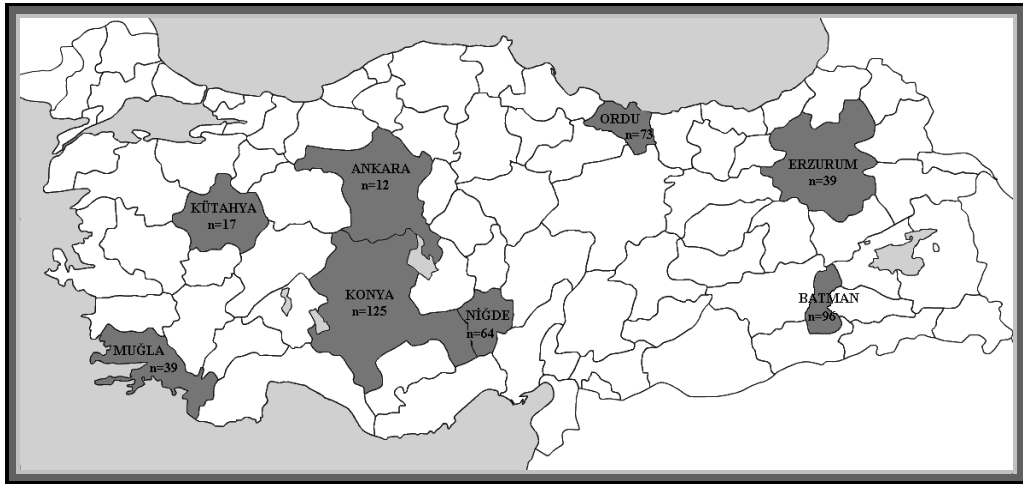


Figure 3.2
Provinces Selected as Sample

Reaching the novice teachers working in the various areas of these eight provinces became possible with the help of the National Education Directorates in the provinces. Procedurally, all the novice teachers in Turkey have to, compulsorily, attend NTT program (named in Turkish as *Aday Öğretmenlerin Yetiştirilmesi*), which is prepared for the novice teachers' development in their first year of teaching. The courses are done at the weekends, in the evenings, or in the semester break by the NEDs (National Education Directorates) in each province. During this period, all the novice teachers either working in the city centre or in villages has to come together and attend the program. Visiting one of the sessions in the schedule of the program in

a particular city made it easier to see and even talk with the novice teachers in that particular city.

Table 3.1 shows the schedules of visits to the provinces in order to administer the questionnaire, and displays the number of the novice teachers ($N=465$), who responded to the questionnaire of the research, according to selected provinces. The highest percentage of teachers was in Konya (approximately 27%, $n=125$), followed by Batman (20.6%, $n=96$), Ordu (15.7%, $n=73$), Niğde (13.8%, $n=64$), Erzurum and Muğla (8.4%, $n=39$ in each), Kütahya (3.7%, $n=17$), and lastly Ankara (2.6%, $n=12$).

Table 3.1
*Schedules of Visits to Provinces and
Participants' Distribution According to Provinces (N=465)*

Date	Province (*)	F	%
December 15, 2007	Batman	96	20.6
December 29-30, 2007	Ordu	73	15.7
January 5, 2008	Erzurum	39	8.4
January 20, 2008	Kütahya	17	3.7
January 15-22, 2008	Ankara	12	2.6
January 26, 2008	Niğde	64	13.8
January 29-30, 2008	Konya	125	26.9
February 5, 2008	Muğla	39	8.4

(*) Since all the cities are selected randomly in the whole country, there remained regions, which are not represented with a city, or the ones represented with more than one city.

The reason for aiming to select the provinces randomly and administering the research questionnaire to all the novices in each particular province, rather than only the ones in the city centres, was to ensure the diversity among the novices in terms of different backgrounds such as their school location, and school type. Thus, the whole sample was bettered not only representing different provinces, but also different locations like villages, towns, districts, and cities, and different school types like public schools and private institutions. Figure 3.3 demonstrates the sample distribution in terms of three dimensions: (a) province, (b) school location, and (c) school type. Although the samples representing different provinces were not equal or close to each other in size, the size of the samples representing different school locations were closer to each other like 29% from city centres, 25.6% from districts, 23.4% from small towns, and 21.9% from villages. On the other hand, school type

representation was not equal in size, as the percentage of participants from public schools was 86%, being larger than private institutions (14%).

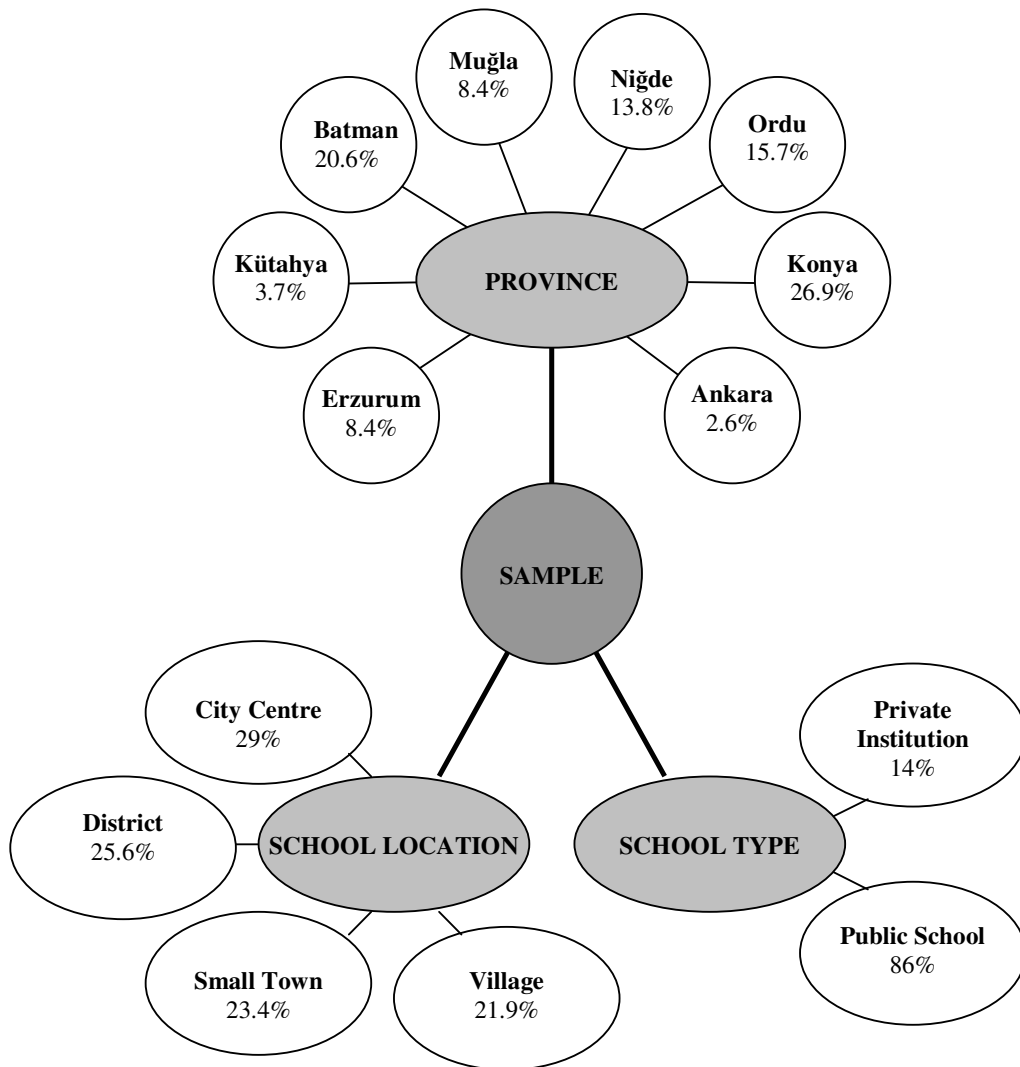


Figure 3.3
Sample Distributions by Province, School Location, and School Type

3.4. Data Collection Instrument

The data analysed in the study were collected through a questionnaire named *Questionnaire for Novice Teachers*, which was developed and administered by the researcher himself. While designing the questionnaire, the steps, demonstrated in Figure 3.4, were followed.

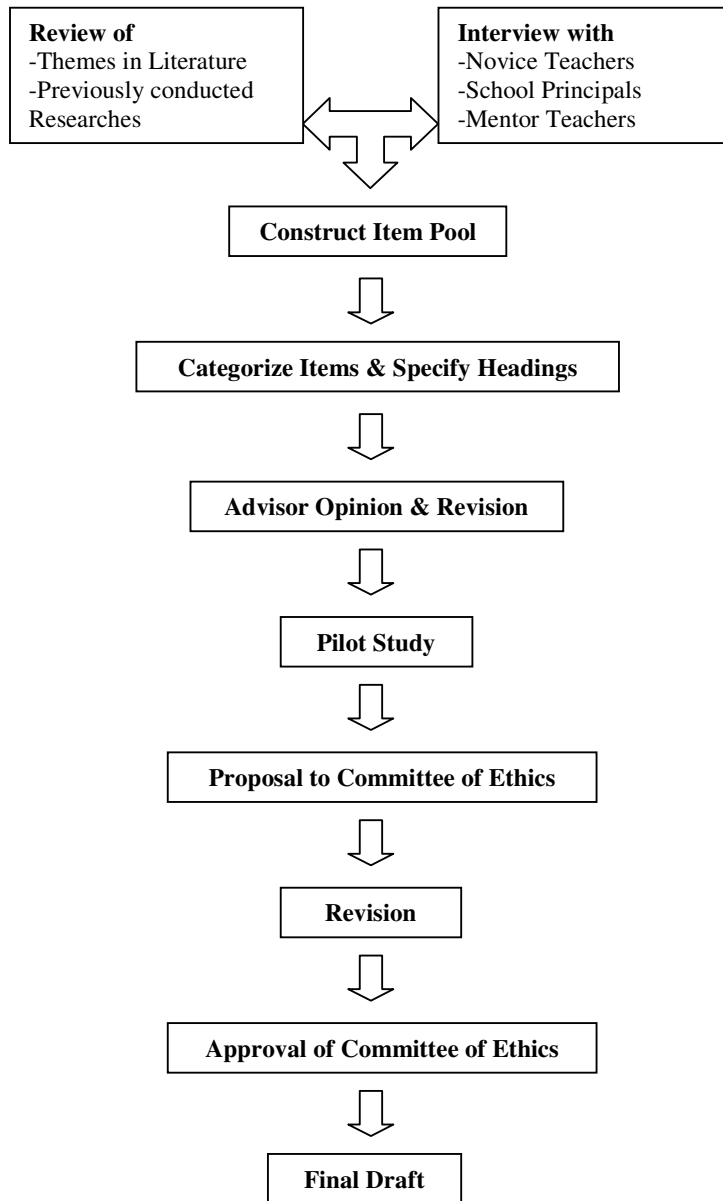


Figure 3.4
Steps Followed to Construct the Data Collection Instrument

First of all, previously conducted studies about the novice teachers' induction process were considered and other related resources of literature were reviewed. Accordingly, item related with the issues like workload, classroom management, instructional challenges, identity conflicts, and relationships with school community were prepared. Later, daily speeches and interviews reflecting the concerns of the novices, as insiders in the field, were noted down. In accordance with this step, items

clarifying the issues like social status, overwhelming workload, and supervisor challenges were added. Apart from these, the opinions of the school principals and some mentor teachers around were taken into account, which brought different items in relation to the issues of classroom management, relationship with mentors and supervisors to the light. As a result of this three-step inquiry, an item pool, where numerous statements appeared, was constructed.

In categorizing the items in the pool into groups and specifying the headings again previously conducted studies were taken as a basis. After having advisor opinion and making necessary revisions on the items, the questionnaire was pilot tested. The results of the pilot testing also added to the scope and the content of the questionnaire. The next step was proposal of the instrument to the Committee of Ethics in Graduate School of Social Sciences at METU. After doing necessary revisions based on Committee's opinion, the final draft was obtained upon the approval of the Committee.

Considering the initial data resulted from pilot work and literature, the questionnaire consisted of five parts (see Figure 3.5 displaying the general parts and sub-headings in the questionnaire): (1) Personal Information; (2) Job-related Concerns: a) Workload Challenges, b) Instructional Challenges including knowledge of subject matter, curriculum, planning, evaluation and grading, and c) Classroom Management Challenges; (3) Social Concerns: a) Social Status and Identity Challenges, b) Challenges in Relationship with Students, c) Challenges in Relationship with Parents, d) Conflicts with Colleagues, e) Supervisor Challenges, and f) Challenges in Relationship with Mentor Teachers; (4) Perceptions on Pre-service Training; and lastly (5) Perceptions on In-service Training. Turkish version of the questionnaire can be seen in the Appendix B.

A *Likert Scale* was adopted in the questionnaire in two ways: (a) to inquire the frequency of adaptation challenges in five-level scale like (1) *Never*, (2) *Rarely*, (3) *Sometimes*, (4) *Usually*, and (5) *Always*; and (b) to inquire the perceptions on PRESET and INSET in five-level scale like (1) *No idea*, (2) *Insufficient*, (3) *Slightly Sufficient*, (4) *Partially Sufficient*, and (5) *Sufficient*. Each part of the questionnaire required the participants to read the items and simply mark the preferred option,

except for the first part related with their personal information, which require one or two-word answers.

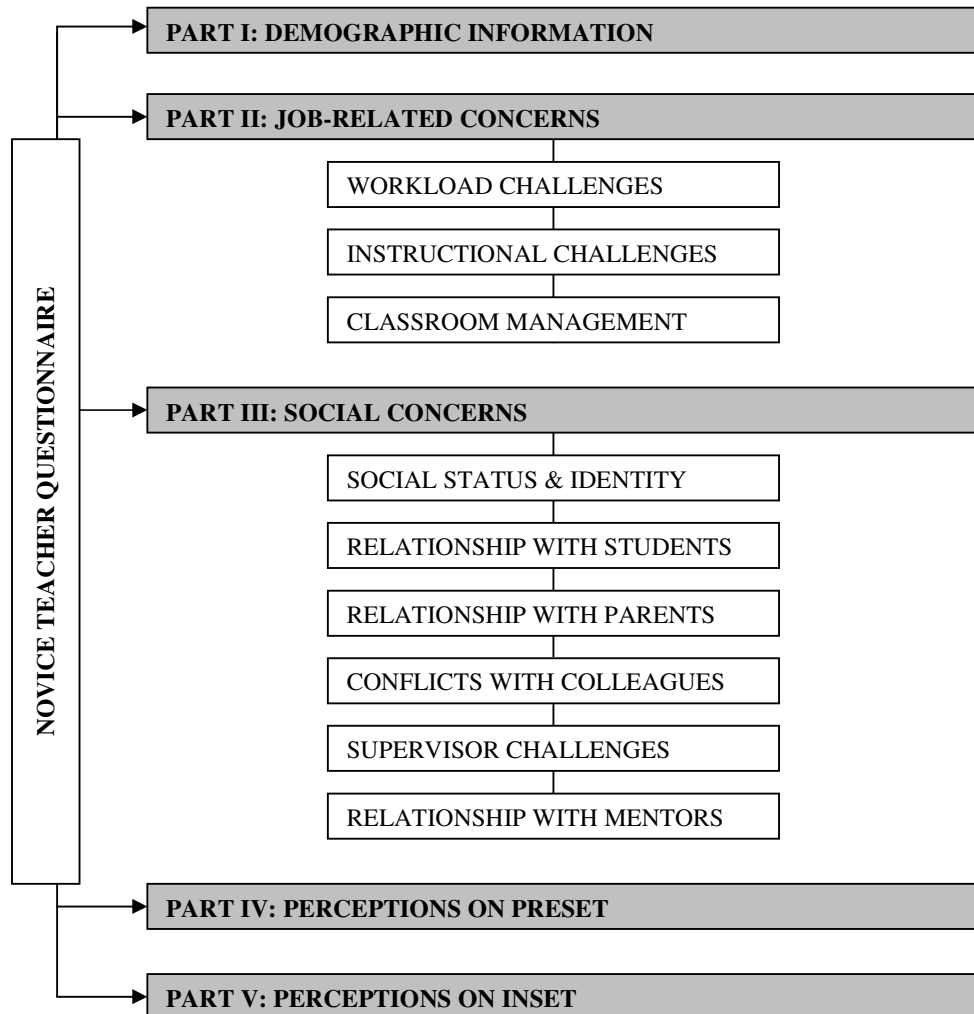


Figure 3.5
Framework of the Questionnaire

3.5. Pilot Work

With the help of pilot work, which would be a basis for the future measurements in the study in terms of reliability and validity, it was aimed to see the probable results and limitations of the study beforehand. Therefore, the instrument was piloted with 17 NTs, who had just completed the first half-year of teaching in

different parts of Turkey, before administering the questionnaire with the actual sample in the whole country.

The NTs involved in the pilot study were selected conveniently from different schools situated in different cities of Turkey. It was conducted in the second half of August 2007. The administration was carried out via e-mail. Collection of the instruments and the analysis of the results took two weeks. Among these 17 NTs, there were 7 male, 10 female NTs working in 12 different cities of Turkey ranging from Ağrı to Muğla. There were samples from all work places like city centre, district, small town, and village teachers. The participants of the pilot test represented 8 different universities and 4 different branches. They composed NTs teaching to primary and high schools and grade levels from 4th to 12th grades. Only one of them was the graduate of a Non-Education Faculty. All had the pedagogic formation certificate, so the related item asking about certification was removed from the questionnaire in the revision done after pilot study. Also another item clarifying if they were a private or a public school teacher was added to the questionnaire.

3.6. Validity and Reliability

The number of the items in the data collection instrument was a first step to ensure validity and reliability, as 78 items were designed to measure different adaptation challenges and 28 items for perceptions on PRESET and INSET. On the other hand, other steps, like expert opinion, translations, and pilot work, were taken to finalize the instrument. In order to establish the reliability of the measurement, open-ended items were avoided, so the questionnaire included almost all close-ended items and only one optional open-ended item requiring the novice teachers to share their additional perceptions about their induction process.

After the first draft of the questionnaire was designed, the opinion of the advisor was taken and necessary revisions were made. The validity of the prepared instrument was ensured through expert opinion on the adequacy and appropriateness of the items and their relevance to the content and the purpose of the study. Since the first draft was prepared in English, four different translators translated the questionnaire into Turkish in order to ensure validity of the translation.

Next, a pilot work was conducted, as another chance to revise the questionnaire before administering it to the real sample. After pilot administration of the instrument, the questionnaire was proposed to the Committee of Ethics in the Graduate School of Social Sciences at METU. In the light of the recommendations of specialized experts in the committee and the results of the pilot study, the questionnaire was revised such as eliminating, deleting, or adding some items, shortening and developing some headings, etc. The final draft was formed with the approval of the Committee of Ethics, as the last step

Reliability of the instrument was ensured through “reliability analysis” of Cronbach’s alpha level. With the objective of looking at the internal consistency of the items in the data collection instrument, Cronbach’s alpha level was calculated. The Cronbach’s alpha level was .89 for the whole questionnaire including all the items. Since there were two different scales used in the questionnaire, the internal consistency of different parts were also calculated. Accordingly: (a) the alpha level of the part measuring the frequency of job-related concerns was .88; (b) the alpha level of the part measuring the frequency of social concerns was .92; and (c) the alpha level of the part measuring the perceptions of NTs on PRESET and INSET was .94. As it is indicated, there was a high internal consistency among the items.

3.7. Data Collection Procedures

After determining the sample provinces in which the data would be collected, official permission, which was necessary to conduct the study, was required from the MONE enclosed with a permission request letter, a proposal, a sample of the questionnaire, the list of the cities in which the study was going to be carried out, and other documents. It took two months to get the necessary official permission from the MONE.

When the permission was received, the number of the novice teachers, assigned to those eight cities in 2007-2008 academic year, was obtained from NEDs by having phone and e-mail contacts. This process helped the determination of the sample size, which appeared approximately as 500. In order to reach all the novice teachers in a particular city at the same time, the starting and the finishing dates of the NTT programs in each city was confirmed, the courses might start and finish late

or early in various cities. The programs' weekly schedules and daily timetables, the centres and the schools where they were carried out, and the names of the responsible instructors were taken and noted down.

Since it was planned to use one way of data collection, which is direct administration of the survey instrument to the whole group by the researcher himself in each city, all the data required would have been obtained by visiting one of the sessions in the program in any week before it ended. The final draft of the questionnaire approved by the MONE was copied according to the sample size. Together with the official permission, it was administered in a different city in each week. The first administration was done in Batman on 15th of December 2007, whereas the last one was done in Muğla on 5th of February 2008, due to different planning in different cities (see Table 3.1). In some provinces like Batman, Erzurum, Ordu, and Konya, the questionnaire was administered on the last day of the NTT program, but in others (Niğde, Muğla, Kütahya, and Ankara) it was administered a few days before the end of the program. Some of the provincial NEDs did not let the questionnaire be applied in that city by ignoring the MONE's official permission but requiring an extra permission taken from the governorship of that particular province. Therefore, official permissions were taken from governorships in four of the provinces. The researcher, with a direct administration strategy, did all of the administration, except one. This procedure ensured high rate of response and provision of assistance by researcher on time during the application. The respondents completed the questionnaire themselves, and the researcher provided any help about unclear items by being there. However, the access to one particular city, which is Muğla, became impossible, so direct administration could not be achieved. The questionnaire was administered by one of the academicians in Education Faculty of Muğla University upon a personal request.

3.7.1. Ethical Issues

As to the issue of ethics, there was not any physical harm to any stakeholders in the study, but there could be some psychological discomfort. When anyone of the participant was unwilling to fill in the questionnaire, they were not forced. The ones responded to the questionnaire were promised to keep "privacy" principle, and the

participants were not required to provide their names in the questionnaires. It was made certain that there would not be any share of the private data obtained in the study, no one would have any chance to access the data, and the study was going to be reported confidentially without any deception. Apart from these, there was not any particular risk under which they were forced. Participants were fully informed about the purpose and the scope of the study that would be for the use of others in the future. The research was done in naturalistic conditions. All the informants were informed clearly and explicitly about the study and the process to be followed.

3.8. Data Analysis Procedures

Since the purpose of the study was to determine the frequency of adaptation challenges among novice teachers and factors affecting their perceptions, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse quantitative data collected through closed-ended questions. The responses were summarized in frequency distribution tables and the findings were organized according to percentages, means, standard deviations calculated for each item. Percentages of responses for each item were beneficial in interpreting the concerns and trends pertaining to the study. Furthermore, inferential statistics, like t-tests, ANOVAs, and Chi-Square were carried out to investigate whether the differences among the groups of NTs by background factors were statistically significant and “*F*”, “*t*”, and “*p*” values were presented in tables. After ANOVA, the multiple comparisons necessary as “post-hoc” tests were administered. The follow up test Dunnett C was conducted to evaluate the differences among the means. The reason for selecting Dunnett C was that the equal variances were not assumed. The confidence level of t-test and ANOVA was established as $p < .05$.

In relation to the optional open-ended item at the end of the questionnaire, the data were coded under themes according to research questions. The codes under each theme were identified in time from the answers provided. Later, the coded data under the categories were converted to frequency tables.

3.9. Limitations of the Study

One obvious limitation of the study was about the internal validity, which is “history threat”. Eight different cities composed the sample of the study, yet access to each city needed at seven and half weeks, which is a long time. This fact brings history threat onto surface. Secondly, another possible threat was location threat. Different locations and different school contexts might have affected the results in answers to the questionnaire. An instrumentation effect appeared as another problem in some occasions of administration, when it was waited for the end of the sessions of the day to apply the questionnaire and the respondents of the questionnaire became tired and rushed in answering in the last hour. Another limitation was that the study was limited to the concerns determined in the measuring instrument, although there was an optional open-ended item inquiring their additional concerns. Lastly, it should be admitted that the generalization was also limited with the provinces, which represent only five geographical regions of Turkey. Even though it was aimed to include different backgrounds among the participants like work place and school type representation, it was not a perfect sample in terms of regional representation; because it represented only five regions of the country, as some of them having a big accumulation of participants (like Central Anatolia and South Eastern Anatolia Regions), while the others have less participants (like Eastern Anatolia Region). Including more provinces from all seven regions and having close sample sizes from each region could have achieved a better generalization.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter, the findings obtained through *Questionnaire for Novice Teachers* are presented under five headings: (1) background of the participants, (2) responses in relation to their preparation for teaching profession, (3) descriptive results of the study, (4) adaptation challenges of the novice teachers by background variables, and (5) perceptions of the novice teachers on PRESET and INSET by background variables.

4.1. Background of Study Participants

This section provides demographic information about the study participants, and the backgrounds of the novice teachers with respect to teaching profession. The demographic information about the sample in the study is presented in Table 4.1. The participants of the study consisted of 465 novice teachers who were working in eight different provinces of Turkey. Out of 465 participants, approximately 60% were female ($n=274$), and 41% were male novice teachers ($n=191$). The age of the sample ranged from 21 to 37 with a mean standing for 24. The mode in the age group was 23 with the highest frequency of 145 people (31.2%). Almost all (98.5%) of the participants were 30 and below. Approximately 80% were 25 and below. 75.1% of the participants were in the age group from 22 to 25, and 50.8% of them were between 23 and 24 years old.

Nearly half (47.1%) of the participants were (1) Classroom Teachers (18.7%, $n=87$), (2) English Teachers (15.7%, $n=73$), and (3) Turkish Teachers (12.7%, $n=59$). The rest (52.9%) were in other 24 branches like, Mathematics and Science (including

Chemistry, Physics, and Biology; 14.8%), Social Studies and Ethics (including History, Geography, and Literature; 13.1%), Computer and Technology-Design (8%), Kindergarten (6.5%), and other branches (Guidance, Art, Physical Education, Music, German Language, Arabic Language, Early Childhood Education, Economy, and Philosophy; 10.5%).

The distribution represented 49 universities in Turkey. Approximately, half (51.2%) of the participants had graduated from Selçuk University (20%, $n=93$); Atatürk University (10%, $n=46$); Gazi University (8%, $n=37$); 19 Mayıs University (6.7%, $n=31$) and Anadolu University (6.7%; $n=31$). The rest (48.8%) were the graduates of other 44 universities (See the whole list of universities in Appendix C).

87% of the participants studied in “Education Faculties” in their pre-service years ($n=404$), and the rest (13%) studied in “Non-education Faculties” ($n=61$) like humanities, theology, fine arts, and engineering departments. When location of the participants’ schools were categorized, it was found out that 29% ($n=135$) were assigned to the cities, 25.6% ($n=119$) were assigned to districts, 23.4% ($n=109$) to small towns, and 21.9% ($n=102$) to villages. As a whole, 71% ($n=330$) of the novice teachers started teaching in rural areas in their first years. Another finding revealed that 14% ($n=65$) were teachers in private institutions, whereas the rest (86%, $n=400$) were teachers in public schools.

The novice teachers in the study were teaching at different school levels and different grade levels ranging from the age group of 6 to 18 (see Table 4.1). While 83% ($n=386$) were teaching at primary school level, 12.9% ($n=60$) were teaching at high school level. The rest (4.1%, $n=19$) were teaching both in primary and high schools at the same time. It was drawn from the findings that 87.1% of the novice teachers had primary school teaching experience, and 17% of the novice teachers had high school teaching experience.

For the teaching levels, it was found out that 78.6 % ($n=348$) were teaching at different grade levels, while 21.4% ($n=95$) were teaching only at one level. The findings showed that 35.3% ($n=164$) were teaching to 6th to 8th grades; 19.8% ($n=92$) 1st to 5th grades; 18.7% ($n=87$) 4th to 8th grades; 14.4% ($n=67$) 9th to 12th grades; and (5) 6% ($n=28$) kindergarten. 27 (5.8%) of the participants were not teaching at any specific grade level, since they were either guidance or special education teachers.

Among the classroom teachers, 70% ($n=63$) were assigned to single-level classrooms, whereas 25.6% ($n=23$) of them were assigned to multi-level classrooms; and the rest (4.4%, $n=4$) were not assigned to any specific classroom. Among the teachers working at high schools (17%, $n=79$), 39.2% ($n=31$) were teaching at General Public High Schools; 22.8% ($n=18$) at Private High Schools; 15.2% ($n=12$) at Vocational High Schools; 13.9% ($n=11$) at other types of High Schools; and the rest 8.9% ($n=7$) at Private Teaching Centres (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1
Background Information about Participant Novice Teachers

Background Variables		F	%
Gender	Male	191	41.1
	Female	274	58.9
		N=465	
Age	21-22	80	17.2
	23-24	236	50.8
	25-26	79	17.0
	27-more	69	14.8
		N=464	
Branch	Classroom	87	18.7
	English	73	15.7
	Turkish	59	12.7
	Mathematics & Science	69	14.8
	Social Studies & Ethics	61	13.1
	Computer & Technology	37	8.0
	Kindergarten	30	6.5
	Others	49	10.5
		N=465	
Universities Participants Graduated From	Selçuk University	93	20.0
	Atatürk University	46	9.9
	Gazi University	37	8.0
	19 Mayıs University	31	6.7
	Anadolu University	31	6.7
	Other Universities (*)	227	48.7
		N=465	
Faculty Type	Education	404	86.9
	Non-Education	61	13.1
		N=465	
School Location	Village	102	21.9
	Small town	109	23.4
	District	119	25.6
	City centre	135	29.0
		N=465	

Table 4.1 (continued)

Type of School	Private Institution	65	14.0
	Public School	400	86.0
		<i>N</i> =465	
School Level	Primary School Level	386	83.0
	High School Level	60	12.9
	Both	19	4.1
		<i>N</i> =465	
Grade Level Taught (**)	Kindergarten	28	6.0
	1 st to 5 th Grades	92	19.8
	4 th to 8 th Grades	87	18.7
	6 th to 8 th Grades	164	35.3
	9 th to 12 th Grades	67	14.4
		<i>N</i> =438(***)	
Single or Multiple Grade Levels (for classroom teachers only)	Single-level class	63	70.0
	Multi-level class	23	25.6
	No class	4	4.4
		<i>N</i> =90	
Type of High School	General H.S.	31	39.2
	Private H.S.	18	22.8
	Vocational H.S.	12	15.2
	Other H.S.	11	13.9
	Private T.C.	7	8.9
		<i>N</i> =79	

N for each item may vary due to missing responses in this table and the following ones.

(*) See Appendix C for the list of the other universities.

(**) Since some branch teachers teach both lower (4th and 5th) and upper (6th to 8th) primary levels, they were categorized under a separate group, which is 4th to 8th grade teachers.

(***) 27 of the participants were not teaching at any specific grade level, since they were either guidance or special education teachers.

4.2. Participants' Responses in Relation to Preparation for Teaching Profession

Table 4.2 shows the participants' responses to questions related with their preparation for induction into teaching profession. Firstly, the participants were asked to what extent they benefited from the practice teaching in their pre-service education. Within a scale of (1) much, (2) to an average extent, (3) a little, and (4) not at all, the mode response was "2 (to an average extent)" getting the most frequent rating from 186 (40%) participants. Similarly, the arithmetic mean was 2.3 standing closer to value of 2. Only 17.8% (*n*=83) of the participants benefited from their practice teaching much. On the other hand, 33.5% (*n*=156) found it a little beneficial, and the rest (8.6%, *n*=40) didn't benefit from it at all.

Secondly, to the question if they had worked actively with a mentor teacher in their pre-service education, 67.3% (*n*=313) answered "yes", whereas 32.7% (*n*=152)

answered “no.” For another question if they had worked or were still working with a mentor teacher in their induction process, 55.1% ($n=256$) answered, “yes,” whereas 44.9% ($n=209$) answered “no.”

The participants were asked, fourthly, about how much in-service training they had received so far, and the answers were various within a scale of (1) sufficient, (2) partially sufficient, (3) slightly insufficient, and (4) insufficient. The mode was “2 (partially sufficient)” getting the most frequent rating from 188 (40.4%) participants. Similarly, the arithmetic mean was 2.1. Only 25.2% ($n=117$) of the participants found their in-service training taken so far sufficient. On the other hand, 26.2% ($n=122$) of them thought that it was slightly insufficient, and the rest 8.2% ($n=38$) answered that they had insufficient in-service training.

Table 4.2
Participants’ Responses in Relation to Preparation for Teaching

Background Variables	Categories	<i>F</i>	%	<i>Mean</i>	<i>N</i>
To what extent did you benefit from practice teaching in your pre-service education?	Much (1)	83	17.8	2.32	465
	Average (2)	186	40.0		
	Little (3)	156	33.5		
	None (4)	40	8.6		
Did you actively work with an MT in your PRESET?	Yes	313	67.3	-	465
	No	152	32.7		
Did/Do you have an MT in your induction period?	Yes	256	55.1	-	465
	No	209	44.9		
How much in-service training have you received so far?	Sufficient (1)	117	25.2	2.17	465
	Partially Sufficient (2)	188	40.4		
	Slightly Sufficient (3)	122	26.2		
	Insufficient (4)	38	8.2		
To what extent did you have love of teaching when choosing the profession?	Much (1)	270	58.1	1.52	465
	Average (2)	158	34.0		
	Little (3)	23	4.9		
	None (4)	14	3.0		

Lastly, the participants were asked a question about the amount of love they had when they were choosing the teaching profession and the answers were various within a scale of (1) much, (2) average extent, (3) little, and (4) none. Accordingly, the mode was “1 (much)” getting the most frequent rating from 270 (58.1%) participants. The arithmetic mean was 1.5, which is between “much” and “average.”

34% ($n=158$) had an average love when choosing the profession. Only 3% ($n=14$) of the participants had chosen the profession without any love of teaching. On the other hand, approximately 5% ($n=23$) had little love of the profession (see Table 4.2).

4.3. Descriptive Results of the Study

This section supplies information about the main concerns the novice teachers had in general, the frequencies and percentages of the sub-categories under these main concerns, their perceptions on their PRESET and INSET, and lastly description of the open-ended responses.

4.3.1. Results Regarding the Main Concerns of the Novice Teachers

In relation to the first research question, *what are the most and the least frequent adaptation challenges of the novice teachers in their induction period?*, the general concerns of NTs were investigated under two categories: job-related concerns and social concerns. The mean scores, which were calculated as the average value of the items in each group, revealed that the novice teachers had job-related concerns ($M=2.78$) more often than the social concerns ($M=2.54$). For instance, 67.6% of the participants had job-related concerns sometimes or more frequently; whereas this percentage was 53.3% for social concerns (see Table 4.3.1).

Table 4.3.1
Results Regarding the Main Concerns of the Novice Teachers

General Concerns	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
1. Job-related Concerns	1.3	13.5	52.8	32.7	0.4	2.78	460
Workload Challenges	13.1	32.3	34.0	20.0	0.6	3.37	465
Instructional Challenges	1.1	10.0	33.7	49.3	5.9	2.51	460
Classroom Management	0.9	11.7	40.0	43.7	3.7	2.62	460
2. Social Concerns	0.0	3.7	49.6	45.4	1.3	2.54	383
Social Status & Identity Challenges	0.2	14.8	52.3	32.0	0.6	2.81	465
Relationship with Students	0.0	1.5	20.0	66.7	11.8	2.11	465
Relationship with Parents	2.0	8.9	23.0	52.7	13.4	2.33	461
Conflicts with Colleagues	1.7	11.9	28.7	42.0	15.7	2.41	464
Supervisor Challenges	1.1	16.4	45.3	33.4	3.9	2.77	464
Relationship with Mentor Teacher	9.9	9.9	20.3	37.8	22.1	2.47	384

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

Under the two main concerns, there were nine sub-group categories. The three most frequent sub-group challenges were listed in order of: (1) workload challenges having the highest mean ($M=3.37$) with 79.4%; (2) social status and identity challenges having the second highest mean ($M=2.81$) with 67.3%; and (3) supervisor challenges ($M=2.77$) with 62.8% of the NTs experiencing these challenges sometimes or more often.

These results indicated that NTs experienced job-related concerns a little more often than the social concerns. Under job-related concerns, workload challenges were more experienced than instructional or classroom management challenges, because 55.2% of NTs never or rarely experienced instructional challenges ($M=2.51$), and 47.4% never or rarely experienced classroom management challenges ($M=2.62$).

Under social concerns, social status and identity challenges, and supervisor challenges were more experienced than the other ones. It was also indicated that challenges or conflicts were never or rarely experienced in relationships with students ($M=2.11$) by 78.5%; with parents ($M=2.33$) by 66.1%; with mentor teachers ($M=2.47$) by 59.9%; and with colleagues ($M=2.41$) by 57.7% of the NTs.

4.3.2. Novice Teachers' Concerns about Job-related Issues

This part demonstrates the first domain, the job-related issues, of the novice teachers in three tables pertaining to sub-divisions as workload challenges, instructional challenges, and classroom management.

As Table 4.3.2.1 demonstrates, almost half of the novice teachers kept concerns for workload challenges usually or always by: having difficulty in completing administrative paperwork, and preparing official correspondence and reports (48%); finding non-instructional duties tiring (45.4%); having difficulty in getting everything all done because of overwhelming workload (43%); and spending time at home by assessing papers and students' writing (41.5%). However, almost half (42.2%) of them never or rarely had sleepless nights due to time consuming burden and 31.8% never or rarely had extra-curricular activities requiring too much time.

Table 4.3.2.1
Workload Challenges

Workload Challenges	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
I have difficulty in getting everything all done because of overwhelming workload.	11.2	31.8	39.6	11.8	5.6	3.31	465
Non-instructional duties become tiring.	15.9	29.5	28.0	19.8	6.9	3.27	465
I have challenges in preparing administrative paperwork, official correspondence, and reports.	17.0	31.0	28.2	15.5	8.4	3.32	465
Extra-curricular tasks require too much time.	11.6	22.2	34.4	24.7	7.1	3.06	465
I have sleepless nights due to time-consuming burden.	7.3	18.1	32.5	28.4	13.8	2.76	465
I spend my time at home assessing papers and students' writing.	11.2	30.3	28.6	15.9	14.0	3.08	465

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

In relation to instructional challenges, it was obtained that 68.7% of the participants experienced a curriculum conundrum; and 55.9% needed extra support in planning sometimes or more often. Most of the instructional challenges were among the least experienced challenges, as almost three-fourth of the NTs never or rarely had difficulties in using instructional tools (74.6%); when matching quantitative numbers with their subjective impressions (74.5%); and in testing and evaluation (72.2%). Apart from these, more than half of the NTs never or rarely felt insufficient in the issue of teaching strategies (68.5%); in drawing attention of the students into the activities of the lesson (63.7%); in deciding what is important to teach (63.3%); in choosing appropriate methods and techniques (59.1%); in determining course objectives (55.6%); and in implementing what is planned (52.6%) (see Table 4.3.2.2).

Table 4.3.2.2
Instructional Challenges

Instructional Challenges	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
I experience a curriculum conundrum.	4.8	23.9	40.0	23.3	8.0	2.94	460
I cannot decide what is really important to teach.	2.2	11.1	23.5	40.0	23.3	2.28	460
I feel I need an extra support in planning.	11.5	20.9	23.5	31.5	12.6	2.87	460

Table 4.3.2.2 (continued)

Determining course objectives is hard for me.	4.3	12.1	28.0	34.3	21.3	2.44	460
I have difficulty in choosing appropriate methods and techniques.	2.0	10.9	28.0	40.0	19.1	2.36	460
I have difficulty when implementing what I plan.	2.8	8.9	35.7	37.8	14.8	2.47	460
I feel insufficient in the issue of teaching strategies.	0.9	7.8	22.8	42.6	25.9	2.15	460
I have difficulty in drawing attention of the students into the activities in the lesson.	1.7	7.2	27.4	43.0	20.7	2.26	460
I feel hardship in using instructional tools.	1.1	3.7	20.7	38.5	36.1	1.95	460
I feel insufficient in testing and evaluation.	1.3	5.4	20.2	39.1	33.1	2.01	460
I have difficulty when matching quantitative numbers with my subjective impressions.	1.3	4.3	19.8	41.5	33.0	1.99	460

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

Lastly management challenges occurring sometimes or more frequently, almost three-fourth (73.3%) of the NTs perceived classroom management as the most challenging part of the profession; and 63.8% found it difficult to manage unruly classes with discipline problems. On the other hand, it was established that almost half (42.6%) of the novices never felt insufficient to undertake leadership or coaching roles in the class; 68.5% never or rarely had problems in determining class rules; 62.3% never or rarely experienced difficulty in choosing the best way to approach student behaviours and 56.9% were never or rarely unable to use effective classroom management strategies (see Table 4.3.2.3).

Table 4.3.2.3
Classroom Management Challenges

Classroom Management	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
I think classroom management is the most challenging part of the profession.	15.6	31.2	26.5	19.1	7.6	3.28	461
I have problems in determining class rules.	1.3	7.2	23.0	40.7	27.8	2.13	460
I don't know the best way to approach student behaviours.	5.2	14.8	17.6	48.0	14.3	2.48	460
I can't use effective classroom management strategies.	1.1	8.9	33.0	49.1	7.8	2.46	460
I have difficulty in managing unruly classes with discipline problems.	4.6	19.6	39.6	27.8	8.5	2.83	460
I feel insufficient to undertake leadership or coaching roles in the class.	0.7	3.9	17.0	35.9	42.6	1.84	460

4.3.3. Novice Teachers' Concerns about Social Issues

This part presents the results regarding the second main concern, the social concerns, of the novice teachers according to their frequency under six tables. For social status and identity challenges experienced sometimes or more often, it was seen that 74.3% of the participants were not satisfied with their employee rights; 70.1% were not satisfied with their salary; 66.3% needed emotional support for the profession; 64.7% felt a great pressure of teaching profession on them; 59.8% were unable to see themselves as professional educators; 57.9% experienced times when they felt darker and callous about the profession; 56.3% felt losing their idealistic side for the profession; and 49.6% had difficulty when revealing their persona in class and in school.

There were also other social challenges, which were never or rarely encountered. For instance, almost 80% of the NTs never or rarely found teaching profession unsuitable for their personality; 77.2% were never or rarely unable to adapt to the school culture; 75% were never or rarely worried about how the students judge them; 68.4% felt never or rarely disrespected in the society as a teacher; 59.4% were never or rarely worried about whether they are good teachers or not; and 55.4% were never or rarely dissatisfied with their social status (see Table 4.3.3.1).

Table 4.3.3.1
Social Status and Identity Challenges

Social Status & Identity Challenges	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
I don't think I am respected in the society as a teacher.	2.8	7.3	21.5	44.3	24.1	2.20	465
I find teaching profession unsuitable for my personality.	2.6	5.2	12.7	39.1	40.4	1.90	465
I have worries about whether I am a good teacher or not.	3.7	6.7	30.3	37.0	22.4	2.32	465
I have difficulty when revealing my persona in the class and at school.	20.4	14.8	14.4	27.1	23.2	2.82	465
I feel a great pressure of teaching profession on me.	11.0	26.0	27.7	23.7	11.6	3.01	465
I am losing my idealistic side for the profession.	4.9	19.6	31.8	27.5	16.1	2.69	465
I experience times when I feel darker and callous about the profession.	4.1	14.2	39.6	33.1	9.0	2.71	465

Table 4.3.3.1 (continued)

I think I need an emotional support.	17.6	22.2	26.5	24.3	9.5	3.14	465
I am unable to adapt to the culture of the school.	2.6	4.9	15.3	45.4	31.8	2.01	465
I am worried about how the students judge me.	3.0	4.9	17.0	39.1	35.9	2.00	465
I am unable to see myself as professional educator.	3.9	17.4	38.5	33.1	7.1	2.77	465
I am unable to connect my ex-environment with the current atmosphere of the school.	10.8	13.8	19.8	35.7	20.0	2.59	465
I am dissatisfied with my salary.	31.4	17.0	21.7	21.5	8.4	3.41	465
I am dissatisfied with my social status.	10.1	14.2	20.0	33.8	21.9	2.56	465
I am dissatisfied with my employee rights.	28.0	24.1	22.2	18.1	7.7	3.46	465

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

The most frequent challenges occurring in relationships with students was that 58.5% of the NTs experienced problems in helping the ones with behavioural problems; 48.4% encountered difficulty in guiding students and giving advice; and 42.4% had difficulty to perceive individual differences. All the other challenges were rather rare. For instance, 66.9% never had problems in learning the students' names and calling them by name; 52.5% never felt that students do not like them as a person; 48.2% were never afraid that students would not respect them as a teacher; 41.9% never worried that students would not accept them as a good teacher; and establishing a positive relationship with students was never hard for 40.4% of them (see Table 4.3.3.2).

Table 4.3.3.2
Challenges in Relationship with Students

Relationship with Students	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
I experience hardship in establishing a positive relationship with students.	0.4	2.4	12.7	44.1	40.4	1.78	465
I feel insufficient in dealing with students' physical, cognitive, and social development.	1.9	6.0	20.6	57.0	14.4	2.24	465
It is difficult for me to perceive individual differences.	0.9	7.7	33.8	45.2	12.5	2.39	465
I have problems in helping the ones with behavioural problems.	4.1	14.4	40.0	32.0	9.5	2.71	465
I am unable to be effective in providing emotional support.	1.9	2.8	17.8	55.1	22.4	2.06	465

Table 4.3.3.2 (continued)

I have difficulty in guiding students and giving advice.	2.6	9.9	35.9	37.8	13.8	2.49	465
I am unable to learn the students' names and call them by name.	1.1	1.9	7.1	23.0	66.9	1.47	465
I think the students do not like me as a person.	0.2	0.6	6.7	40.0	52.5	1.56	465
I am afraid that students do not respect me as a teacher.	0.4	1.5	8.6	41.3	48.2	1.64	465
I feel the students do not see me as a good teacher.	0.2	1.5	9.9	46.5	41.9	1.71	465

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

In the part concerning relationship with parents, it was realized that all the challenges were rare, because 79.4% of the NTs were able to develop a positive relationship with parents of the students; 74.4% never or rarely felt uncomfortable in parent meetings; 70.2% were able to cope with negative approach of parents; and 56.4% never or rarely felt insufficient in dealing with school-parent relationship.

Table 4.3.3.3
Challenges in Relationship with Parents

Relationship with Parents	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
I am unable to develop a positive relationship with parents.	2.0	6.9	11.7	49.7	29.7	2.01	461
I am unable to cope with negative approach of parents.	1.5	6.7	21.5	53.1	17.1	2.22	461
I feel insufficient in dealing with school-parent relationship.	2.6	11.5	29.5	41.9	14.5	2.45	461
I feel uncomfortable in parent meetings.	2.0	7.8	15.8	44.0	30.4	2.06	461

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

Regarding the conflicts, happening sometimes or more often, with colleagues, it was displayed that: unfriendly approach of colleagues upset 59.7% of the participants; and 57.1% thought that experienced colleagues were not dealing sufficiently with the beginning teachers. However, the other occasions were experienced never or rarely, because 90.3% did not feel unable to develop a positive relationship with their colleagues; colleagues respected personal efforts of 76.9% of the participants; colleagues were engaged in a professional sharing with 72.4% of the participants; 70.5% had collaboratively-approaching colleagues; 68.1% were glad

with the colleagues' behaviour and manner; and colleagues assisted or supported 63.2% of them (see Table 4.3.3.4).

Table 4.3.3.4
Conflicts with Colleagues

Conflicts with Colleagues	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
I think the colleagues don't assist and support me as a novice teacher.	5.8	11.4	19.6	34.1	29.1	2.30	464
I am unable to develop positive relationships with the colleagues.	0.9	1.7	7.1	43.5	46.8	1.66	464
The colleagues aren't being engaged in a professional sharing with me.	2.2	8.0	17.5	40.5	31.9	2.07	464
I am not working with collaboratively approaching colleagues.	1.9	8.0	19.6	42.5	28.0	2.13	464
I am not glad with their behaviour and manner.	3.0	8.6	20.3	41.6	26.5	2.20	464
My colleagues do not respect my personal efforts.	1.9	6.0	15.1	46.1	30.8	2.02	464
Unfriendly approach of colleagues upset me.	16.8	17.5	25.4	22.4	17.9	2.92	464
I think experienced colleagues are not dealing sufficiently with beginning teachers.	12.1	18.5	26.5	27.4	15.5	2.84	464

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

To go on with the supervisor challenges, Table 4.3.3.5 demonstrates that 74.1% had worries about satisfying the expectations of principals/supervisor; 63.4% thought that supervisors were not proactive in providing feedback; 63.2% had supervisors who were not sympathetic listeners trying to understand them; 54.3% claimed that their principal did not nurture an environment encouraging new teachers; 53.6% asserted that supervisors required too much work from them; and 49.4% found their principal unwilling to deal with their problems, sometimes or more frequently.

For the least frequent challenges occurring never or rarely, it was revealed that three-fourth (75.9%) of the NTs did not have supervisors with a highly critical assessment of them and their lessons; 69% did not feel unable to satisfy the expectations of principals/supervisors; 67.2% did not hesitate to ask questions to the principal; and 58.2% did not have problems in communicating with supervisors on professional development issues.

Table 4.3.3.5
Supervisor Challenges

Supervisor Challenges	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
My principal does not nurture an environment that encourages me as a new teacher.	12.7	16.6	25.0	27.2	18.5	2.77	464
I have worries like satisfying the expectations of principal/supervisors.	12.9	26.5	34.7	17.5	8.4	3.18	464
The principal/supervisors require too much work from me.	7.3	17.2	29.1	28.9	17.5	2.68	464
I don't feel that I will satisfy the expectations of principal/supervisors.	1.3	5.6	24.1	52.6	16.4	2.22	464
They have a highly critical assessment of my lessons and me.	3.2	5.6	15.3	34.3	41.6	1.94	464
They are not proactive in providing feedback.	14.4	24.4	24.6	26.9	9.7	3.06	464
I think they are not sympathetic listeners trying to understand me.	10.6	20.3	32.3	26.9	9.9	2.94	464
I hesitate to ask questions to my principal.	3.4	10.6	18.8	18.3	48.9	2.01	464
My principal is not willing enough to deal with my problems.	9.3	20.3	19.8	26.9	23.7	2.64	464
I have difficulty in communicating with principal/supervisors on professional development issue.	3.9	11.4	26.5	31.9	26.3	2.34	464

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

As Table 4.3.3.6 shows, there were not frequent challenges in relationships with mentor teachers; on the contrary almost all of them occurred rarely or never. It was seen that 74% did not have an MT with an attitude of critical assessment; 73.7% had a positive relationship with their MT; 69.5% were able to ask anything to their MT; 67.7% felt that they would satisfy the expectations of their MT; 62.8% found their MT as a sympathetic listener; 58.8% thought that their MT dealt with their problems sufficiently; 55.7% had a proactive MT in providing feedback; and lastly the MTs satisfied the professional expectations of 55.2%.

Table 4.3.3.6
Challenges in Relationship with Mentor Teachers

Relationship with Mentor Teacher	%					Mean	N
	A (5)	U (4)	S (3)	R (2)	N (1)		
I do not have a positive relationship with my MT.	8.8	6.0	11.4	34.0	39.7	2.10	385

Table 4.3.3.6 (continued)

My MT does not satisfy my expectations about professional support.	13.0	9.6	22.1	31.8	23.4	2.57	384
I am unable to ask anything to my MT.	10.2	8.3	12.0	29.9	39.6	2.19	384
I don't feel that I will satisfy my MT's expectations.	9.6	5.2	17.4	41.9	25.8	2.30	384
My MT does not deal with my problems sufficiently.	12.2	10.4	18.5	34.6	24.2	2.51	384
I don't find my MT as sympathetic listener.	11.7	7.3	18.2	31.3	31.5	2.36	384
My MT is not proactive in providing feedback.	12.2	11.5	20.6	29.7	26.0	2.54	384
My MT has an attitude of critical assessment about my lessons and me.	9.4	4.9	11.7	34.9	39.1	2.10	384

A= Always, U=Usually, S=Sometimes, R=Rarely, N=Never

4.3.4. Perceptions of the Novice Teachers on Pre-service training (PRESET) and In-service Training (INSET)

The second research question investigated how the novice teachers perceived their pre-service education and in-service trainings. In relation to the PRESET, only 4.1% of the participants found their pre-service education sufficient in general aspects, whereas 16.3% found it insufficient. While 34% rated it as partially sufficient, the rest (45.4%) rated it slightly sufficient. However, the INSET in the induction years had higher ratings like 6.2% of the participants found it sufficient and 38.7% classified it as partially sufficient; yet 39.4% rated it slightly sufficient and 15.3% found it insufficient.

According to the Table 4.3.4.1, the PRESET, which the novice teachers took in their undergraduate years, was insufficient or slightly sufficient in teaching the law related with teaching profession (69.9%); in introducing the educational programs of the MONE (68.4%); in teaching to overcome instructional difficulties (60.5%); in the issue of instructional planning (57.9%); in providing resources for professional development (57.2%); in the issue of guiding and counselling for the students (56.5%); in preparing the student teachers for the profession (56.1%); in the issue of evaluating student achievement (55.3%); in teaching to use course book and materials (54.8%); in the issue of classroom management (53.8%); in introducing the profession (50.3%); in teaching to consider individual differences of the students (50.3%); in making teaching more attractive for the students (49.6%); in the issue of

teaching methods and techniques (49.6%); and in helping to gain a teacher identity (47.5%).

Table 4.3.4.1
Perceptions of Novice Teachers on PRESET

	%				Mean	N
	S (4)	PS (3)	SS (2)	I (1)		
Sufficiency of Pre-service Education	4.1	34.0	45.4	16.3	2.25	465
In introducing the profession	11.6	37.2	30.8	19.6	2.39	465
In preparing me for the profession	8.8	34.8	34.0	22.2	2.29	465
In the issue of instructional planning	10.1	31.4	30.8	27.1	2.23	465
In the issue of teaching methods and techniques	12.5	37.0	28.8	20.9	2.39	465
In the issue of evaluating student achievement	8.8	34.4	33.8	21.5	2.27	465
In the issue of classroom management	11.6	33.1	32.5	21.3	2.32	465
In overcoming instructional difficulties	7.5	30.3	39.4	21.1	2.20	465
In the issue of guiding the students	8.6	33.8	35.3	21.3	2.27	465
In considering individual differences of the students	14.8	34.0	32.3	18.1	2.43	465
In making teaching more attractive for the students	16.1	31.8	31.2	18.5	2.40	465
In using course book and materials	9.5	32.7	35.3	19.6	2.26	465
In introducing the educational programs of the Ministry	4.7	21.1	29.5	38.9	1.80	465
In teaching the law related with teaching profession	5.8	18.3	29.5	40.4	1.77	465
In providing resources for professional development	10.8	28.4	31.8	25.4	2.17	465
In gaining a teacher identity	14.2	35.5	28.8	18.7	2.39	465

S= Sufficient, PS=Partially Sufficient, SS= Slightly Sufficient, I=Insufficient

Secondly, the INSET, which the novice teachers took in their induction period, was insufficient or slightly sufficient in the issue of evaluating student achievement (61.3%); in making teaching more attractive for the students (59.6%); in the issue of instructional planning (57.8%); in the issue of classroom management (57.4%); in the issue of guiding and counselling for the students (57.2%); in the issue of instructional implementation (55.7%); in providing resources for professional development (54.2%); in solving adaptation problems related to the profession (49.3%); in assisting the current induction process (46.7%); and in developing an identity as a teacher (45.8%) (see Table 4.3.4.2).

Table 4.3.4.2
Perceptions of Novice Teachers on INSET

	%				Mean	N
	S (4)	PS (3)	SS (2)	I (1)		
Sufficiency of In-service Training	6.2	38.7	39.4	15.3	2.35	465
In assisting my current induction process	9.9	41.7	28.8	17.8	2.40	465
In developing my identity as a teacher	11.6	41.1	30.1	15.7	2.45	465
In introducing the facts about teaching profession	20.9	36.8	26.0	15.5	2.61	465
In solving adaptation problems related to the profession	12.0	38.1	32.5	16.8	2.44	465
In providing resources for professional development	11.0	33.8	34.4	19.8	2.33	465
In teaching law related with teaching profession	24.5	39.6	22.8	12.3	2.74	465
In the issue of instructional planning	8.4	32.5	36.8	21.1	2.25	465
In the issue of instructional implementation	8.4	34.8	35.1	20.6	2.28	465
In making teaching more attractive for the students	7.7	30.1	33.1	26.5	2.13	465
In the issue of guiding the students	8.4	32.5	36.6	20.6	2.24	465
In the issue of evaluating student achievement	7.7	29.5	37.4	23.9	2.18	465
In the issue of classroom management	9.5	31.0	34.4	23.0	2.22	465
In developing professional relationships with colleagues	20.0	37.0	26.7	14.2	2.58	465

S= Sufficient, PS=Partially Sufficient, SS= Slightly Sufficient, I=Insufficient

4.3.5. Results Regarding Teaching Preparation by Background Factors

This section presents the participants' responses in relation to their preparation for teaching, according to various background variables through five tables (Tables 4.3.5.1 to 4.3.5.5). In order to see the differences in the proportions of the groups, Chi-Square was conducted in some analyses.

In Table 4.3.5.1, the existence of mentor teacher in pre-service years was compared according to (1) universities the participants graduated, and (2) the type of faculty they studied in. According to the results, 43% of the graduates from Selçuk University did not work with a mentor teacher in their PRESET. Approximately, one-fourth of the participants in other universities also did not have mentor teacher either. Another point is that 42.6% of the participants, who studied in Non-education Faculties, did not have a chance to work with a mentor teacher. Lastly, 31.2% of the Education Faculty graduates did not work actively with a mentor teacher in their pre-service years.

Table 4.3.5.1
Existence of MT in PRESET by University and Faculty

	Variables	%		N
		Yes	No	
Existence of Mentor Teacher in PRESET	Universities			
	Selçuk University	57.0	43.0	93
	Atatürk University	73.9	26.1	46
	Gazi University	75.7	24.3	37
	19 Mayıs University	77.4	22.6	31
	Anadolu University	77.4	22.6	31
	Faculties			
Education Faculties	68.8	31.2	404	
Non-Education Faculties	57.4	42.6	61	

As for the benefits of practice teaching done in pre-service years (see Table 4.3.5.2), there were significant differences in the perceptions among the different university graduates and between the EF and Non-EF graduates ($p < .001$). As a result of the multiple comparisons, it was seen that Anadolu University graduates ($M = 1.80$) had more benefits than the graduates of other four universities, and Selçuk University graduates ($M = 2.62$) had less benefits than the others. Approximately 42% of graduates of Anadolu University perceived that practice teaching in PRESET contributed very much to them; this percentage was only about 10% for Selçuk University graduates. Almost half of the participants in other universities found their practice teaching beneficial to an average extent (45.9% for Gazi University, 41.9% for 19 Mayıs University, and 41.3% for Atatürk University).

Table 4.3.5.2
Benefits of Practice Teaching by University and Faculty

To what extent did you benefit from practice teaching in your pre-service years?		%				Mean
		M (1)	A (2)	L (3)	N (4)	
Universities $\chi^2 (df=3, N=1937) = 530.591$, $p < .001$	Selçuk U.	9.7	35.5	37.6	17.2	2.62
	Atatürk U.	15.2	41.3	34.8	8.7	2.36
	Gazi U.	13.5	45.9	27.0	13.5	2.40
	19 Mayıs U.	12.9	41.9	32.3	12.9	2.45
	Anadolu U.	41.9	35.5	22.6	0.00	1.80
Faculties $\chi^2 (df=3, N=526) = 127.430$, $p < .001$	EF	17.8	41.8	31.7	8.7	2.31
	Non-EF	18.0	27.9	45.9	8.2	2.44

M=Much, A=Average, L=Little, N=None

By faculty type, it was revealed that EF graduates ($M = 2.31$) had more benefits than Non-EF graduates ($M = 2.44$). 54.1% of the participants who studied in a

Non-EF, and 40.4% of EF graduates replied that practice teaching contributed very little or not at all to them. 41.8% of the participants who studied in EF, and 27.9% in Non-EF found practice teaching beneficial to an average extent (Table 4.3.5.2).

Looking at the existence of mentor teacher in induction period, comparisons were made according to (1) school locations, and (2) type of schools, in Table 4.3.5.3. It was recorded 54% of the novice teachers working in villages; 46.2% in districts; 40.7% in cities, and 40.4% in small towns didn't have a mentor teacher. To compare the results, in accordance with the school type, we saw that 42.8% of the novice teachers working in public schools and 58.5% in private institutions didn't have a mentor teacher in their induction process, as well (see Table 4.3.5.3).

Table 4.3.5.3
Existence of MT in induction by School Location and School Type

	Variables	%		N
		Yes	No	
Existence of MT in Induction	School Location			
	City	59.3	40.7	135
	District	53.8	46.2	119
	Small Town	59.6	40.4	109
	Village	46.1	53.9	102
	Type of School			
	Public School	57.3	42.8	400
	Private Institution	41.5	58.5	65

Table 4.3.5.4 summarizes the Chi-Square results reflecting the responses regarding the amount of INSET taken so far indicated that there were significant differences by school location and school type. To illustrate, there were significant differences between cities and the villages in the amount of INSET ($p < .001$), as the NTs in cities ($M = 2.00$) had more amount of INSET than the ones in villages ($M = 2.42$). 45.1% of the novices working in villages replied that they had insufficient INSET; whereas 3% of the novices in cities responded that they had insufficient amount of INSET. What is more, approximately 68% of private school teachers and 65% of public school teachers were satisfied with the amount of INSET they had taken so far, even though the public school teachers ($M = 2.20$) had more sufficient INSET than the private school teachers ($M = 1.98$).

Table 4.3.5.4
Amount of INSET by School Location and School Type

How much INSET have you taken so far?		%				Mean
		S (1)	PS (2)	SS (3)	I (4)	
School Location χ^2 (df=3, N=1108) =216.845, $p < .001$	City Centre	30.4	42.2	24.4	3.0	2.00
	District	27.7	37.8	22.7	11.8	2.18
	Small town	25.7	41.3	25.7	7.3	2.14
	Village	14.7	40.2	33.3	11.8	2.42
Type of School χ^2 (df=3, N=530) =111.253, $p < .001$	Public S.	23.5	41.8	25.5	9.3	2.20
	Private S.	35.4	32.3	30.8	1.5	1.98

S= Sufficient, PS=Partially Sufficient, SS=Slightly Sufficient, I=Insufficient

For the amount of love kept when choosing the teaching profession, it was seen that there were not significant differences between the two genders. 60% of the female participants and 56% of the male participants had very much love when choosing the teaching profession. However, there were significant differences by the branches, ($p < .001$). According to multiple comparisons, English ($M=1.344$) and Kindergarten ($M=1.43$) teachers had more love than the Computer and Technology ($M=1.81$) and Mathematics and Science ($M=1.66$) teachers. There was neither an English teacher (0.0%) and nor a kindergarten teacher (0.0%) who did not have any love when choosing the profession. Similarly, 68.5% of the English teachers, 66.7% of the Kindergarten teachers, and 63.9% of the Social Studies and Morals teachers had very much love when choosing their profession. However, this percentage was 38% for the Computer and Technology teachers, 16.2% of whom had little or not any love for their profession when they chose to become a teacher.

Table 4.3.5.5
Amount of Love for the Profession by Branch

Amount of love when choosing the teaching profession		%				Mean
		M (1)	A (2)	L (3)	N (4)	
Branches χ^2 (df=3, N=1031) =186.145, $p < .001$	Classroom	57.5	33.3	4.6	4.6	1.56
	English	68.5	28.8	2.7	0.0	1.34
	Turkish	57.6	33.9	5.1	3.4	1.54
	Mathematics - Science	47.8	42.0	5.8	4.3	1.66
	Social Studies & Morals	63.9	31.1	1.6	3.3	1.44
	Computer-Technology	37.8	45.9	13.5	2.7	1.81
	Kindergarten	66.7	23.3	10.0	0.0	1.43
	Others	61.2	32.7	2.0	4.1	1.48

M=Much, A=Average, L=Little, N=None

4.3.6. Other Opinions of the Novice Teachers

At the end of the questionnaire, the participants were asked to add the things that were not considered in the items and that they wanted share in relation to their induction period. Once coding and summarizing the responses given to open-ended part, three categories arose: (a) complaints, (b) opinions, and (c) suggestions expressed in the questionnaire.

Table 4.3.6.1 presents the complaints the NTs expressed for their induction period. Among the complaining statements, the most frequent ones were that: (a) they did not have a mentor teacher and so they felt unguided in their induction process ($f=90$); (b) they were teaching in multi-level classrooms without enough support mostly as the only teacher in a village ($f=22$); and (c) they had indifferent parents, who never come to school ($f=13$).

Other minor but striking points were that, they were complaining about the inconsistency of teacher assignment system, as there were three ways like assigning: permanent teaching staff, teachers out of contract, and substitute teachers. The ones who were assigned out of a contract stated that they felt like a “second-class” and claimed that they did not have the same rights and salary with permanent staff and they were treated differently, even though they did exactly the same work. And they also made it clear that they were not matched with a mentor teacher as they were seen as “secondary” important staff.

Table 4.3.6.1
Complaints of the Novice Teachers

A. Complaints	<i>F</i>
I have no mentor teacher.	90
I am teaching in multi level classroom without enough support.	22
Parents are indifferent; they never come to school.	13
Many applications are in theory or just on paper.	10
I am disappointed with the facts; I need morale and motivation.	10
Superiors are not tolerant or temperate enough, but threatening.	7
Supervisors don't do their job, as it is required from them.	6
We are not assigned to a mentor teacher, as we are employees out of a contract.	6
I feel like a second-class teacher, as an employee out of a contract. I don't have the same rights/salary. I am treated differently, although I do exactly the same work.	6
I am authorized as a principal as the only teacher in the school.	5

Table 4.3.6.1 (continued)

I am not happy with the society's point of view.	4
I have mentor teacher but I haven't seen him yet	3
I have problems in implementing new curriculum.	3
My mentor teacher is not as well informed as I am.	2
We are left unguided and isolated.	2
The reality after university education makes me stressful.	2
We cannot benefit from classroom management courses in PRESET.	2
The superiors still see us as students.	2
Principals are cheating and being unfair to many teachers.	2
I hate my principal because he does not have the qualities of a principal.	2
I experience a cultural shock; I feel alien to this culture.	1
Paperwork is tiring and making me lose my energy for classroom.	1
I don't have financial support and resources for my profession.	1
I am worried that I haven't got life security (in the eastern part).	1

Table 4.3.6.2 shows the opinions of the NTs in the open-ended part. The most emphasized opinions were that: (a) the INSET being taken was useless, waste of time and energy, and remained in theory ($f=30$) according to them, although some thought it was useful for the MONE law but not for other things that already knew. ($f=8$); (b) there appeared a gap between PRESET and real teaching ($f=11$); and (c) PRESET was insufficient and wasn't preparatory for the profession and it was just memorization of theoretical facts and history, which were not updated ($f=9$).

Table 4.3.6.2
Opinions of the Novice Teachers

B. Opinions	F
The INSET being taken is useless, waste of time and energy, remains in theory.	30
There is a gap between PRESET and real teaching.	11
PRESET was insufficient and wasn't preparatory for the profession. It was just memorization of theoretical facts and history, which are not updated.	9
INSET is useful just for MONE law not for other things that we already know.	8
Teaching profession is learnt when you started the job through trial and failure.	6
It is tragicomic that people who don't know law teaching law to us.	3
Both PRESET and INSET were insufficient for the realities of the profession.	3
It is unfair the way the way teachers are assigned to their working place.	3
Teaching profession is the hardest job, which cannot be done without love.	2

Table 4.3.6.2 (continued)

Diversity and various conditions are the main problems in induction.	2
It is the working place that makes you a happy teacher.	2
PRESET is just a white lie told to draw a pessimistic painting.	1

In Table 4.3.6.3, suggestions from NTs are reflected. The NTs suggested to: (a) put an end to INSET formality ($f=25$); (b) choose the time for INSET properly ($f=20$); (c) carry out practice teaching in more different and realistic environments by seeing various conditions in distant places, rural areas, multi-level classrooms, etc. rather than the best schools ($f=8$); and (d) renovate teacher assigning system ($f=8$).

Table 4.3.6.3
Suggestions of the Novice Teachers

C. Suggestions	F
Put an end to INSET formality.	25
Time for INSET must be chosen properly.	20
Practice Teaching in PRESET must be done in more different and realistic environments to show us various conditions in distant places, rural areas, multi-level classrooms, rather than sending us to the best schools.	8
Renovate teacher-assigning system.	8
Provide INSET around practical issues like classroom management, planning (lesson, unit, and yearly plan), teaching methods, etc.	5
Renovate all PRESET and INSET activities for a better education.	2
Provide “real” mentoring programs, not in formality.	2
Set a close contact and cooperation between universities and schools.	2
The university instructors teaching classroom management must have an experience in real classrooms like ours at least for one year to be able to offer more practical things.	2
There must be courses for the MONE law in PRESET.	2
The programs of Education Faculties must be changed.	2
The last year in PRESET should be spent in a real school at all having the chance of getting to know all aspects of the profession.	1

4.4. Adaptation Challenges of the Novice Teachers by Background Variables

In relation to the third research question, t-test and ANOVA were carried out to investigate whether the differences in adaptation challenges and induction perceptions among the novice teacher groups were statistically significant by background factors.

Considering the values in the t-tests and ANOVAs of the whole picture, it was revealed that there is not a significant difference between the two genders ($p=.386$); and nor between the primary school teachers and the high school teachers ($p=.247$). Additionally, it was seen that there were not significant changes according to the school location of novice teachers ($p=.203$), and the type of high schools they were working at ($p=.175$). What is more, it was seen that the existence of a mentor teacher in induction process did not have any significant difference in the adaptation levels of the novice teachers ($p=.575$).

On the other hand, the results of t-tests indicated that there were significant differences between: (a) the Education Faculty graduates and Non-education faculty graduates ($p=.016$); (b) the public school teachers and private school teachers ($p=.001$); (c) the teachers teaching at same levels and the ones teaching at different levels ($p<.001$); (d) the classroom teachers having single-level class and the ones having multi-level class ($p=.009$); and (e) the novices who had worked with a mentor teacher in their pre-service years and the ones who did not have a mentor teacher in their pre-service years ($p=.001$). Accordingly, EF graduates ($M=2.48$) had more adaptation problems than the Non-EF graduates ($M=2.33$). Secondly, The NTs who had an MT in the PRESET ($M=2.40$) had less adaptation problems than the NTs who did not work with an MT in the PRESET ($M=2.57$). Moreover, public school teachers ($M=2.48$) had more adaptation problems than the private school teachers ($M=2.31$). The teachers teaching at same levels ($M=2.31$) had fewer problems than the ones teaching at different levels ($M=2.51$). In a sub-analysis on classroom teachers, it was seen that there was a significant difference between single-level class teachers ($M=2.39$) and multi-level class teachers ($M=2.74$), because multi-level class teachers had more problems than the others (Table 4.4).

As the results of ANOVA, it was revealed that there were significant differences among the groups according to their age level ($p=.011$); (2) their field ($p<.001$); the university they graduated ($p=.013$); the perceived benefits of practice teaching they had in their PRESET ($p<.001$); the grade levels they were teaching ($p<.001$); the amount of INSET taken so far ($p<.001$); and the extent of their love for the profession when choosing it ($p<.001$).

Table 4.4
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Background Variables

Background Variables		Mean (*)	SD	N
Age Level $F(3,449)=3.635, p=.011$	21-22	2.56	.49	79
	23-24	2.49	.41	228
	25-26	2.34	.40	79
	27-more	2.39	.44	67
Field $F(7,446)=6.950, p<.001$	Classroom	2.42	.40	85
	English	2.41	.31	72
	Turkish	2.66	.41	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.55	.43	68
	Social Studies & Morals	2.39	.39	59
	Computer & Technology	2.59	.40	37
University $F(48,405)=1.559, p=.013$	Kindergarten	2.12	.36	30
	Selçuk University	2.52	.43	92
	Atatürk University	2.54	.39	44
	Gazi University	2.47	.37	37
	19 Mayıs University	2.47	.37	31
Faculty $t(379)=2.466, p=.016$	Anadolu University	2.32	.37	30
	Education	2.48	.44	334
Benefits of Practice Teaching $F(3,450)=11.213, p<.001$	Non-education	2.33	.37	47
	Much	2.30	.36	79
	Average	2.40	.38	184
	Little	2.56	.42	152
Existence of MT in PRESET $t(379)=-3.509, p=.001$	None	2.62	.45	39
	MT Exist in PRESET	2.40	.40	253
	MT Non-exist in PRESET	2.57	.46	128
School Type $t(452)=3.356, p=.001$	Public School	2.48	.41	389
	Private Institution	2.31	.36	65
Teaching Level Variety $t(435)=-4.174, p<.001$	Teaching at same level	2.31	.40	95
	Teaching at different levels	2.51	.40	342
Grade Level Taught $F(4,427)=1.233, p<.001$	Kindergarten	2.13	.37	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.42	.40	90
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.43	.35	86
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.56	.42	162
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.50	.39	66
Teaching Level Details of CTs $t(66)=-2.843, p=.009$	Single-level CTs	2.39	.44	53
	Multi-level CTs	2.74	.41	15
INSET So Far $F(3,450)=6.932, p<.001$	Sufficient	2.36	.38	116
	Partially Sufficient	2.40	.40	184
	Slightly Insufficient	2.45	.41	117
	Insufficient	2.59	.46	37
Love of Profession $F(3,450)=13.707, p<.001$	Much	2.36	.38	265
	Average	2.57	.41	152
	Little	2.54	.39	23
	None	2.83	.50	14

(*) These are the total mean scores for the all adaptation challenges.
Non-significant results are not displayed in this table and the following ones
CTs=Classroom Teachers

Follow-up test were applied to evaluate pair-wise differences among the means of age groups. Since the variances were not homogeneous, the Dunnett's C test, a test that does not require the population variances among the groups to be equal, was conducted. The results of the post hoc comparisons indicated a significant difference between the age group of 21 to 22 and 25 to 26. Accordingly, the NTs within the age of 21-22 ($M=2.56$) experienced more adaptation challenges than the ones within the age of 25-26 ($M=2.34$).

Regarding the fields of the NTs, there seemed significant differences between the Turkish language teachers and Classroom, English, Social Studies-Morals, Kindergarten teachers, because Turkish teachers ($M=2.66$) had more adaptation challenges than these teachers. In addition, there were significant differences between the Kindergarten teachers and Classroom, English, Computer-Technology, Mathematics-Science teachers, as Kindergarten teachers ($M=2.12$) had less adaptation challenges than these teachers.

For the universities, there was a significant difference only between Anadolu University graduates and the graduates of other four universities, as Anadolu University graduates had less adaptation challenges ($M=2.32$) than the others. Another significant result was that the NTs, who benefited much from their practice teaching in the PRESET ($M=2.30$), had less adaptation challenges than the ones who benefited little ($M=2.56$) or none ($M=2.62$). There were also significant differences between the ones having benefited to an average extent ($M=2.40$) and the ones who had little or none, as they experienced more adaptation challenges.

Considering the grade level taught, there was a significant difference between the NTs teaching at Kindergarten level ($M=2.13$) and the NTs teaching at other levels. It was seen that NTs teaching at Kindergarten level had less adaptation challenges than the other NTs. Apart from these, the NTs who had sufficient ($M=2.36$) and partially sufficient ($M=2.40$) amount of INSET had less adaptation challenges than the ones who had insufficient ($M=2.59$) or slightly sufficient ($M=2.45$) amount of INSET. Lastly, the teachers who had much love for the profession when they were choosing their occupation ($M=2.36$) had less adaptation

challenges than the other groups, especially the ones who had not any love at all ($M=2.83$). The following sections present the results of ANOVAs and t-tests according to each background variable one by one.

4.4.1. Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Gender

The results (see Table 4.4.1) revealed that female novice teachers ($M=2.68$) had classroom management problems significantly more often than the male novice teachers ($M=2.54$); whereas the male novice teachers ($M=2.18$) had problems in relationship with students a little more often than the female novice teachers ($M=2.06$).

Table 4.4.1
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Gender

Categories	Gender	Mean	SD	N
Classroom Management $t(458)=-1.922, p=.045$	Male	2.54	.71	188
	Female	2.68	.80	272
Relationship with Students $t(463)=1.929, p=.044$	Male	2.18	.64	191
	Female	2.06	.57	274

4.4.2. Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Age Groups

Table 4.4.2 displays the relationship between the age level and the frequency of adaptation problems among the novice teachers. The independent variable, the age, included four levels: (a) age group of 21-22, (b) age group of 23-24, (c) age group of 25-26, and (d) age group of 27 and more. The NTs' adaptation challenges differed significantly from each other according to the age level in terms of both job-related concerns ($p=.021$), and social concerns ($p=.029$). For the sub-categories, there were also significant differences in workload challenges ($p=.033$), instructional challenges ($p=.028$), relationship with parents ($p=.015$), and relationship with MTs ($p=.035$); yet there was not significant difference among the age groups in terms of classroom management challenges ($p=.058$), social status and identity challenges ($p=.055$), challenges in relationship with students ($p=.530$), conflicts with colleagues ($p=.405$), and supervisor challenges ($p=.127$).

Table 4.4.2
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Age Groups

Categories	Age	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns $F(3,455)=1.211, p=.021$	21-22	2.73	.58	80
	23-24	2.62	.47	231
	25-26	2.47	.53	79
	27-more	2.48	.57	69
Workload Challenges $F(3,460)=2.933, p=.033$	21-22	3.21	.84	80
	23-24	3.21	.79	236
	25-26	2.97	.78	79
	27-more	2.98	.83	69
Instructional Challenges $F(3,455)=3.069, p=.028$	21-22	2.51	.71	80
	23-24	2.34	.62	231
	25-26	2.25	.69	79
	27-more	2.21	.71	69
Social Concerns $F(3,378)=2.826, p=.029$	21-22	2.48	.54	69
	23-24	2.43	.45	191
	25-26	2.27	.43	66
	27-more	2.34	.46	56
Relationship with Parents $F(3,456)=3.516, p=.015$	21-22	2.27	.69	79
	23-24	2.26	.81	235
	25-26	2.11	.75	79
	27-more	1.95	.61	67
Relationship with MTs $F(3,379)=2.897, p=.035$	21-22	2.55	1.27	69
	23-24	2.40	1.15	192
	25-26	2.07	.95	66
	27-more	2.14	.95	56

The results of the post hoc comparisons revealed that the novice teachers within the age group 21 and 22 ($M=2.73$) seemed to have more job related concerns than both the novices in the age group of 25-26 ($M=2.47$) and the ones in the age group 27 and over ($M=2.48$). Again, the NTs at the age of 27 and more ($M=1.95$) seemed to have less challenges in relationship with parents than both the novices in the age group of 21-22 ($M=2.27$) and the ones in the age group 23-24 ($M=2.26$).

4.4.3. Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Branch

The relationship between the adaptation challenges among NTs and the branches was investigated (see Table 4.4.3), in which they were categorized in seven levels: (a) Classroom teachers; (b) English teachers; (c) Turkish teachers; (d) Mathematics and Science teachers; (e) Social Studies and Morals teachers; (f) Computer and Technology teachers; and (g) Kindergarten teachers. The ANOVA

showed that NTs' adaptation challenges differed significantly from each other by their branches in terms of both job-related concerns ($p=.005$) and social concerns ($p=.009$). Similarly, there were significant changes in sub-categories as well: workload challenges ($p<.001$), instructional challenges ($p<.001$), classroom management ($p=.015$), social status and identity challenges ($p<.001$), relationship with students ($p<.001$), relationship with parents ($p=.002$), conflicts with colleagues ($p=.032$), supervisor challenges ($p=.019$), and relationship with MTs ($p=.004$).

Table 4.4.3
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Branch

Categories	Branch	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns $F(7,452)=2.230, p=.005$	Classroom	2.50	.46	87
	English	2.64	.43	73
	Turkish	2.86	.54	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.72	.52	69
	Social Studies & Morals	2.54	.53	61
	Computer & Technology	2.68	.50	37
	Kindergarten	2.07	.42	30
Workload Challenges $F(7,457)=8.959, p<.001$	Classroom	3.13	.73	87
	English	3.23	.74	73
	Turkish	3.53	.79	59
	Mathematics & Science	3.36	.75	69
	Social Studies & Morals	3.05	.73	61
	Computer & Technology	3.05	.80	37
	Kindergarten	2.33	.67	30
Instructional Challenges $F(7,452)=5.852, p<.001$	Classroom	2.25	.61	87
	English	2.36	.60	73
	Turkish	2.63	.71	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.49	.70	69
	Social Studies & Morals	2.27	.65	61
	Computer & Technology	2.44	.61	37
	Kindergarten	1.81	.50	30
Classroom Management $F(7,452)=2.515, p=.015$	Classroom	2.35	.57	87
	English	2.58	.61	73
	Turkish	2.62	.65	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.50	.61	69
	Social Studies & Morals	2.51	.68	61
	Computer & Technology	2.73	.60	37
	Kindergarten	2.30	.54	30
Social Concerns $F(7,451)=4.771, p=.009$	Classroom	2.38	.42	85
	English	2.29	.36	72
	Turkish	2.55	.44	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.48	.46	68
	Social Studies & Morals	2.31	.38	59
	Computer & Technology	2.54	.44	37
	Kindergarten	2.14	.39	30

Table 4.4.3 (continued)

Social Status & Identity <i>F</i> (7,457)=3.992, <i>p</i> <.001	Classroom	2.58	.51	87
	English	2.53	.49	73
	Turkish	2.88	.58	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.72	.58	69
	Social Studies & Morals	2.55	.53	61
	Computer & Technology	2.77	.58	37
	Kindergarten	2.40	.51	30
Relationship with Students <i>F</i> (7,457)=4.266, <i>p</i> <.001	Classroom	1.94	.44	87
	English	2.03	.46	73
	Turkish	2.06	.47	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.10	.51	69
	Social Studies & Morals	1.96	.41	61
	Computer & Technology	2.23	.59	37
	Kindergarten	1.67	.39	30
Relationship with Parents <i>F</i> (7,453)=3.342, <i>p</i> =.002	Classroom	2.13	.71	87
	English	2.15	.79	72
	Turkish	2.41	.78	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.23	.62	68
	Social Studies & Morals	2.08	.72	59
	Computer & Technology	2.47	.94	37
	Kindergarten	1.75	.67	30
Conflicts with Colleagues <i>F</i> (7,456)=2.221, <i>p</i> =.032	Classroom	2.36	.91	86
	English	2.00	.76	73
	Turkish	2.37	.80	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.41	.77	69
	Social Studies & Morals	2.19	.82	61
	Computer & Technology	2.41	.63	37
	Kindergarten	2.23	.68	30
Supervisor Challenges <i>F</i> (7,456)=2.430, <i>p</i> =.019	Classroom	2.65	.67	86
	English	2.49	.63	73
	Turkish	2.74	.64	59
	Mathematics & Science	2.71	.69	69
	Social Studies & Morals	2.42	.67	61
	Computer & Technology	2.65	.64	37
	Kindergarten	2.32	.60	30
Relationship with MTs <i>F</i> (7,376)=3.016, <i>p</i> =.004	Classroom	2.54	1.23	67
	English	1.93	.90	62
	Turkish	2.73	1.19	51
	Mathematics & Science	2.46	1.16	61
	Social Studies & Morals	2.16	.98	51
	Computer & Technology	2.40	1.21	33
	Kindergarten	2.07	1.10	21

The results of the Dunnett's C test revealed that there was significant mean difference between the kindergarten teachers ($M=2.07$) and all the other branches (M value ranging from 2.50 to 2.86) in terms of job related concerns, which posed that the kindergarten teachers had less job-related concerns than any other teachers. Other

pair-wise comparisons particular to job-related concerns also revealed that Turkish language teachers ($M=2.86$) had more concerns than both classroom teachers ($M=2.50$) and social studies and ethics teachers ($M=2.54$).

In the multiple comparisons of sub-group analyses under job-related concerns, the results revealed that: (a) kindergarten teachers ($M=2.33$) had less workload challenges than all the other branches (M value ranging from 3.05 to 3.53); (b) Turkish language teachers ($M=3.53$) had more workload challenges than both classroom teachers ($M=3.13$) and social studies and ethics teachers ($M=3.05$); (c) kindergarten teachers ($M=1.81$) had less instructional challenges than all the other branches (M value ranging from 2.25 to 2.63); (d) Turkish language teachers ($M=2.63$) had more instructional challenges than classroom teachers ($M=2.25$); and (e) computer and technology teachers ($M=2.73$) had more classroom management challenges than classroom teachers ($M=2.35$).

For the social concerns, the post hoc comparisons revealed that kindergarten teachers ($M=2.14$) had less social concerns than Turkish ($M=2.55$), Maths and Science ($M=2.48$), and computer and technology teachers ($M=2.54$). Apart from these, it was seen that Turkish language teachers ($M=2.55$) had more social concerns than English teachers ($M=2.29$). In the multiple comparisons of sub-group analyses under social concerns, the results revealed that: (a) Turkish teachers ($M=2.88$) had more social status and identity challenges than classroom ($M=2.58$), English ($M=2.53$), social studies and ethics ($M=2.55$), and kindergarten teachers ($M=2.40$); (b) kindergarten teachers ($M=1.67$) had less problems in relationship with students than all the other branches; (c) kindergarten teachers ($M=1.75$) had less problems in relationship with parents than Turkish ($M=2.41$), Maths and Science ($M=2.23$), and computer and technology ($M=2.47$) teachers; (d) Maths and Science teachers ($M=2.41$) had more conflicts with colleagues than English teachers ($M=2.00$); and (e) English teachers ($M=1.93$) had less problems in relationship with their mentor teacher than Turkish ($M=2.73$) and classroom teachers ($M=2.54$).

4.4.4. Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Faculty

In Table 4.4.4, the relationship between the faculty type NTs studied in their PRESET and the frequency of adaptation problems were reflected. There was not a

significant difference between the Education Faculty graduates and Non-Education Faculty graduates in terms of both job-related ($p=.186$) and social concerns ($p=.109$). However in relation to sub-categories, it was seen that Education Faculty graduates experienced these challenges more frequently than Non-Education Faculty graduates: (a) workload challenges ($M=3.41$ for EF graduates; $M=3.11$ for Non-EF graduates); (b) social status and identity challenges ($M=2.85$ for EF graduates; $M=2.60$ for Non-EF graduates); (c) conflicts with colleagues ($M=2.45$ for EF graduates; $M=2.19$ for Non-EF graduates); and (d) challenges in relationship with MTs ($M=2.51$ for EF graduates; $M=2.17$ for Non-EF graduates).

Table 4.4.4
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Faculty

Categories	Faculty	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns $t(458)=1.333, p=.186$	EF	2.79	.68	399
	Non-EF	2.67	.61	61
Workload Challenges $t(463)=2.560, p=.012$	EF	3.41	.98	404
	Non-EF	3.11	.81	61
Social Concerns $t(383)=1.623, p=.109$	EF	2.56	.59	336
	Non-EF	2.43	.49	47
Social Status & Identity Challenges $t(463)=2.759, p=.007$	EF	2.85	.68	404
	Non-EF	2.60	.63	61
Conflicts with Colleagues $t(462)=1.994, p=.049$	EF	2.45	.94	403
	Non-EF	2.19	.92	61
Relationship with MTs $t(382)=2.122, p=.038$	EF	2.51	1.23	337
	Non-EF	2.17	1.02	47

EF=Education Faculty, Non-EF= Non-Education Faculty

4.4.5. Differences by the Perceived Benefits of Practice Teaching

The relationship between the frequency of adaptation problems among the novice teachers and the perceived benefits of practice teaching in their undergraduate was investigated and analysed in four levels (a) the NTs having done much practice teaching, (b) the NTs having done average practice teaching, (c) the NTs having done little practice teaching, and (d) the NTs not having done any practice teaching.

As demonstrated in Table 4.4.5, the adaptation challenges of NTs differed significantly from each other with respect to their perceptions about their practice teaching experience in both job-related ($p=.002$) and social concerns ($p=.011$).

Table 4.4.5
Differences by the Perceived Benefits of Practice Teaching

Categories	Benefit Level of PT	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns <i>F</i> (3,456)=10.104, <i>p</i> =.002	Much	2.39	.50	80
	Average	2.52	.47	185
	Little	2.72	.54	155
	None	2.77	.56	40
Workload Challenges <i>F</i> (3,461)=4.491, <i>p</i> =.004	Much	2.92	.87	83
	Average	3.10	.78	186
	Little	3.22	.80	156
	None	3.42	.70	40
Instructional Challenges <i>F</i> (3,456)=11.213, <i>p</i> <.001	Much	2.08	.58	80
	Average	2.24	.57	185
	Little	2.52	.71	155
	None	2.56	.81	40
Social Concerns <i>F</i> (3,455)=8.726, <i>p</i> =.011	Much	2.24	.38	82
	Average	2.34	.42	185
	Little	2.48	.42	153
	None	2.56	.48	39
Social Status & Identity Challenges <i>F</i> (3,461)=11.294, <i>p</i> <.001	Much	2.49	.56	83
	Average	2.53	.49	186
	Little	2.78	.54	156
	None	2.89	.59	40
Relationship with Students <i>F</i> (3,461)=5.180, <i>p</i> =.002	Much	1.87	.50	83
	Average	1.96	.47	186
	Little	2.09	.46	156
	None	2.14	.54	40
Relationship with Parents <i>F</i> (3,457)=5.247, <i>p</i> =.001	Much	1.90	.67	82
	Average	2.21	.78	186
	Little	2.30	.74	154
	None	2.23	.78	39
Conflicts with Colleagues <i>F</i> (3,460)=2.856, <i>p</i> =.037	Much	2.17	.83	83
	Average	2.24	.76	186
	Little	2.27	.75	155
	None	2.59	.88	40
Supervisor Challenges <i>F</i> (3,460)=3.659, <i>p</i> =.013	Much	2.37	.67	83
	Average	2.58	.67	185
	Little	2.66	.69	156
	None	2.69	.60	40
Relationship with MTs <i>F</i> (3,380)=1.712, <i>p</i> =.013	Much	2.30	1.14	67
	Average	2.21	1.09	149
	Little	2.40	1.11	133
	None	2.66	1.22	35

PT=Practice Teaching,

The significant differences were apparent also in workload challenges ($p=.004$), instructional challenges ($p<.001$), social status and identity challenges ($p<.001$), relationship with students ($p=.032$), relationship with parents ($p=.001$), conflicts with colleagues ($p=.037$), supervisor challenges ($p=.013$), and relationship with MTs ($p=.013$); but not for classroom management ($p=.132$) (see Table 4.4.5).

The results of the post hoc comparisons revealed that there was a significant mean difference between the novice teachers who benefited their practice teaching experiences much and the ones who benefited their practice teaching experience little or none in terms of their adaptation challenges in all aspects. For instance, the novices who did much practice teaching ($M=2.39$) seemed to have less job related concerns than the ones who did little ($M=2.72$) or who didn't do at all ($M=2.77$). Again, the novices who did much practice teaching ($M=2.24$) seemed to have less social concerns than the ones who did little ($M=2.48$) or who didn't do at all ($M=2.56$).

4.4.6. Differences by the Existence of Mentor Teacher (MT) in PRESET

Table 4.4.6 displays the relationship between the existence of mentor teacher in pre-service years and the adaptation problems in induction years. It was revealed that there was a significant difference between the novice teachers who did not work with an MT and the ones who had an MT in their PRESET in terms of both job-related ($p=.041$) and social concerns ($p=.031$). According to the table, the novices who did not work with an MT in their PRESET had more job-related and social concerns than the ones who had an MT (see M values in Table 4.4.6).

For the sub-categories, it was revealed that there was significant differences among the NTs in terms of instructional challenges ($p=.013$); relationship with parents ($p=.045$); and relationship with supervisors ($p=.019$). The mean differences showed that the novices who did not work with an MT in their PRESET ($M=2.64$) had instructional challenges more frequently than the ones who had an MT ($M=2.44$); the novices who did not work with an MT in their PRESET ($M=2.45$) had problems in relationship with parents more frequently than the ones who had an MT ($M=2.27$); and the novices who did not work with an MT in their PRESET ($M=2.90$)

had problems in relationship with supervisors more frequently than the ones who had an MT ($M=2.70$).

Table 4.4.6
Differences by the Existence of MT in PRESET

Categories	MT in PRESET	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns $t(458)=-2.056, p=.041$	MT existing in PRESET	2.73	.65	309
	MT non-existing in PRESET	2.87	.71	151
Instructional Challenges $t(458)=-2.507, p=.013$	MT existing in PRESET	2.44	.75	309
	MT non-existing in PRESET	2.64	.85	151
Social Concerns $t(381)=-2.987, p=.031$	MT existing in PRESET	2.48	.56	255
	MT non-existing in PRESET	2.67	.61	128
Relationship with Parents $t(459)=-2.016, p=.045$	MT existing in PRESET	2.27	.83	310
	MT non-existing in PRESET	2.45	.97	151
Supervisor Challenges $t(462)=-2.356, p=.019$	MT existing in PRESET	2.70	.78	312
	MT non-existing in PRESET	2.90	.82	152

MT=Mentor Teacher

4.4.7. Differences in Adaptation Challenges by School Location

Regarding the relationship between the adaptation challenges and the school location, the ANOVA included four levels: (a) city centres, (b) districts, (c) small towns, and (d) villages. The results revealed that the NTs' adaptation challenges did not differ significantly from each other in many aspects; however there was a significant differences in terms of social challenges ($p=.002$) and supervisor challenges ($p=.045$). The results of the Dunnett's C test revealed that the novices working in districts ($M=2.71$) seemed to have more problems in their relationship with supervisors than the novices working in city centres ($M=2.47$) (Table 4.4.7).

Table 4.4.7
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by School Location

Categories	School Location	Mean	SD	N
Social Challenges $t(3,455)=4.997, p=.002$	City centre	2.34	.42	135
	District	2.41	.46	117
	Small town	2.41	.47	107
	Village	2.41	.35	100
Relationship with Supervisors $F(3,460)=2.628, p=.045$	City centre	2.47	.64	135
	District	2.71	.71	119
	Small town	2.56	.74	109
	Village	2.59	.58	101

4.4.8. Differences in Adaptation Challenges by School Type

For the relationship between the school type and adaptation problems, the independent variable was categorized in two ways: (1) school type for all teachers as (a) public school teachers and (b) private school teachers; and (2) school type for only high school teachers like teachers working in (a) General High Schools, (b) Vocational High Schools, and (c) Private High Schools.

There were significant differences between the public school teachers and the private school teachers in most of the aspects ($p=.016$ for job-related concerns; $p=.022$ for social concerns; $p=.003$ for instructional challenges; $p=.044$ for status and identity challenges; $p=.045$ for relationship with students; $p<.001$ for relationship with parents; and $p=.004$ for conflicts with colleagues). According to the results, public school teachers had more challenges, in those aspects mentioned above, than the private school teachers (see M values in Table 4.4.8.1).

Table 4.4.8.1
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by School Type

Categories	School Type	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns $t(458)=2.451, p=.016$	Public School	2.80	.68	395
	Private Institution	2.60	.59	65
Instructional Challenges $t(458)=3.035, p=.003$	Public School	2.55	.78	395
	Private Institution	2.23	.80	65
Social Concerns $t(457)=3.477, p=.022$	Public School	2.56	.56	394
	Private Institution	2.32	.50	65
Social Status & Identity Challenges $t(463)=2.046, p=.044$	Public School	2.84	.68	400
	Private Institution	2.66	.66	65
Relationship with Students $t(463)=2.931, p=.045$	Public School	2.13	.60	400
	Private Institution	1.96	.61	65
Relationship with Parents $t(461)=4.842, p<.001$	Public School	2.40	.88	396
	Private Institution	1.89	.77	65
Conflicts with Colleagues $t(461)=2.925, p=.004$	Public School	2.46	.96	399
	Private Institution	2.13	.80	65

In relation to the significant differences in the adaptation problems according to the type of high school, it was revealed that the NTs' adaptation challenges differed significantly from each other in two aspects: classroom management ($p=.043$) and relationship with parents ($p=.004$). The results of the Dunnett's C test

revealed that the novices working in General ($M=2.49$) and Vocational ($M=2.37$) High Schools seemed to have more problems in their relationship with parents than the novices working in Private High Schools ($M=1.70$) (Table 4.5.8.2).

Table 4.4.8.2
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Type of High School

Categories	School Type	Mean	SD	N
Classroom Management $F(4,74)=2.600, p=.043$	General H.S.	2.50	.61	31
	Vocational H.S.	2.77	.48	12
	Private H.S.	2.38	.51	18
Relationship with Parents $F(4,73)=4.293, p=.004$	General H.S.	2.49	.86	30
	Vocational H.S.	2.37	.62	12
	Private H.S.	1.70	.68	18

4.4.9 Differences in Adaptation Challenges by School and Grade Level

In this part, three analyses were conducted in order to investigate the differences in adaptation challenges by: (1) school level, (2) grade level taught, and (3) teaching level details of classroom teachers. Firstly, Table 4.4.10.1 shows that there was not a significant difference between primary and high school teachers in general, except for the classroom management challenges ($p=.040$). It was seen that the high school teachers ($M=2.81$) had problems in classroom management a little more often than the primary school teachers ($M=2.59$).

Table 4.4.9.1
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by School Level

Categories	School Level	Mean	SD	N
Classroom Management $t(439)=-2.090, p=.040$	Primary School	2.59	.77	381
	High School	2.81	.74	60

Table 4.4.9.2 displays the relationship between the grade level being taught and the adaptation problems of NTs. The independent variable, grade level groups, included four levels: (a) NTs teaching in kindergarten, (b) NTs teaching in grades from 1st to 5th, (c) NTs teaching in grades from 4th to 8th, (d) NTs teaching in grades from 6th to 8th, and (e) NTs teaching in grades from 9th to 12th. According to the table, both job-related concerns ($p=.011$) and social concerns ($p=.017$) of the NTs differed significantly from each other by the grade level taught.

For the sub categories, it was seen that there were significant differences in workload challenges ($p<.001$), instructional challenges ($p<.001$), classroom management ($p=.033$), social status and identity challenges ($p=.002$), relationship with students ($p<.001$), relationship with parents ($p=.004$), supervisor challenges ($p=.035$), and relationship with MTs ($p=.047$).

Table 4.4.9.2
Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Grade Level Taught

Categories	Grade Level Taught	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns $F(4,433)=10.768, p=.011$	Kindergarten	2.08	.43	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.51	.46	92
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.60	.50	87
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.72	.53	164
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.67	.52	67
Workload Challenges $F(4,433)=9.944, p<.001$	Kindergarten	2.32	.69	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	3.15	.70	92
	4 th to 8 th Grades	3.11	.77	87
	6 th to 8 th Grades	3.30	.84	164
	9 th to 12 th Grades	3.26	.72	67
Instructional Challenges $F(4,433)=6.885, p<.001$	Kindergarten	1.82	.51	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.25	.60	92
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.34	.62	87
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.49	.68	164
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.38	.73	67
Classroom Management $F(4,433)=3.665, p=.033$	Kindergarten	2.31	.55	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.33	.58	92
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.59	.59	87
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.57	.66	164
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.59	.59	67
Social Concerns $F(4,427)=4.213, p=.017$	Kindergarten	2.16	.40	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.38	.43	90
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.34	.37	86
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.48	.45	162
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.42	.41	66
Social Status & Identity $F(4,433)=4.370, p=.002$	Kindergarten	2.43	.53	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.59	.52	92
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.55	.47	87
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.78	.58	164
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.62	.57	67
Relationship with Students $F(4,433)=6.292, p<.001$	Kindergarten	1.67	.40	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	1.93	.45	92
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.10	.47	87
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.09	.49	164
	9 th to 12 th Grades	1.98	.50	67

Table 4.4.9.2 (continued)

Relationship with Parents $F(4,429)=3.882, p=.004$	Kindergarten	1.79	.69	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.10	.68	92
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.22	.79	86
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.33	.77	162
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.15	.71	66
Supervisor Challenges $F(4,432)=2.608, p=.035$	Kindergarten	2.32	.61	28
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.65	.67	91
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.46	.63	87
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.64	.70	164
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.70	.68	67
Relationship with MTs $F(4,360)=2.432, p=.047$	Kindergarten	1.97	.99	18
	1 st to 5 th Grades	2.51	1.23	70
	4 th to 8 th Grades	2.08	1.02	75
	6 th to 8 th Grades	2.47	1.14	144
	9 th to 12 th Grades	2.30	1.14	58

The Dunnett's C test revealed that teachers teaching to kindergarten levels ($M=2.08$) had less job-related concerns than teachers of all other grade levels (M value ranging from 2.51 to 2.67). There was significant mean difference also between the teachers of 1st to 5th graders ($M=2.51$) and the teachers of 6th to 8th graders ($M=2.72$).

In the multiple comparisons of sub-group analyses under job-related concerns, the results revealed that: (a) teachers teaching at kindergarten level had less workload ($M=2.32$) and instructional ($M=1.82$) challenges than all the other teachers; (b) teachers of 6th to 8th graders ($M=2.49$) had more workload challenges than teachers of 1st to 5th graders ($M=2.25$); (c) teachers of 1st to 5th graders ($M=2.33$) had less classroom management problems than teachers of 6th to 8th graders ($M=2.57$) and teachers of 4th to 8th graders ($M=2.59$).

In the multiple comparisons of sub-group analyses under social concerns, the results revealed that: (a) teachers teaching at 6th to 8th grades ($M=2.78$) had more social status and identity challenges than the teachers teaching at kindergarten level ($M=2.43$) and 4th to 8th grades ($M=2.55$); (b) teachers teaching at kindergarten level ($M=1.67$) had less problems in relationship with students than the teachers teaching to 4th to 8th graders ($M=2.10$), 6th to 8th graders ($M=2.09$), and 9th to 12th graders ($M=1.98$); and (c) teachers teaching at kindergarten ($M=1.79$) had less problems in relationship with parents than the teachers teaching to 6th to 8th graders ($M=2.33$).

Considering the Table 4.4.9.3, a sub-analysis examining the changes in the concerns of the classroom novice teachers according to their teaching level details were reflected. The results showed that: (a) the classroom teachers teaching in multi-level classrooms ($M=2.65$) had instructional challenges more often than the classroom teachers teaching in single-level classrooms ($M=2.31$); (b) the ones teaching in multi-level classrooms ($M=2.69$) had more problems in relationship with parents than the multi-level classroom teachers ($M=2.19$), the ones teaching in multi-level classrooms ($M=3.40$, $SD=1.28$) had more problems in relationship with MTs than the multi-level classroom teachers ($M=2.47$).

Table 4.4.9.3
Differences by Teaching Level Details of Classroom Teachers

Categories	Teaching Level Details	Mean	SD	N
Instructional Challenges $t(84)=-1.957, p=.048$	Single-level CTs	2.31	.66	63
	Multi-level CTs	2.65	.71	23
Relationship with Parents $t(84)=-2.540, p=.015$	Single-level CTs	2.19	.80	63
	Multi-level CTs	2.69	.82	23
Relationship with MTs $t(66)=-2.862, p=.008$	Single-level CTs	2.47	1.28	53
	Multi-level CTs	3.40	1.05	15

CT=Classroom Teachers

4.4.10 Differences by the Perceived Sufficiency of INSET

The relationship between the frequency of adaptation problems among novice teachers and the perceived sufficiency of INSET taken in their induction period was investigated and analysed in four levels like the NTs having taken (a) sufficient, (b) partially sufficient, (c) slightly sufficient, and (d) insufficient INSET. The results indicated their job-related concerns ($p=.015$) and social concerns ($p=.008$) differed significantly from each other according to the perceived INSET taken so far. Sub-group analyses revealed that there were also significant differences in instructional challenges ($p=.001$), social status and identity challenges ($p=.001$), conflicts with colleagues ($p=.015$), supervisor challenges ($p=.013$), and relationship with MTs ($p=.004$) according to the perceived INSET (Table 4.4.10).

The results of the post hoc comparisons revealed that there was a significant mean difference between the novice teachers who took sufficient INSET and the ones who took insufficient INSET in terms of their adaptation challenges in all

aspects. For instance, the novices who took sufficient INSET ($M=2.48$) seemed to have less job related concerns than the ones who took insufficient INSET ($M=2.70$). Again, the novices who took sufficient INSET ($M=2.29$) seemed to have less social concerns than the ones who took insufficient INSET ($M=2.53$).

Table 4.4.10
Differences by the Perceived INSET

Categories	Perceived INSET	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns $F(3,456)=3.532, p=.015$	Sufficient	2.48	.50	117
	Partially Sufficient	2.59	.52	186
	Insufficient	2.70	.51	119
	Not at all	2.57	.62	38
Instructional Challenges $F(3,456)=5.459, p=.001$	Sufficient	2.15	.64	117
	Partially Sufficient	2.35	.65	186
	Insufficient	2.50	.64	119
	Not at all	2.33	.79	38
Social Concerns $F(3,455)=6.983, p=.008$	Sufficient	2.29	.41	116
	Partially Sufficient	2.37	.42	186
	Insufficient	2.53	.42	120
	Not at all	2.31	.44	37
Social Status & Identity Challenges $F(3,461)=1.760, p=.001$	Sufficient	2.53	.52	117
	Partially Sufficient	2.61	.52	188
	Insufficient	2.81	.55	122
	Not at all	2.56	.61	38
Conflicts with Colleagues $F(3,460)=3.512, p=.015$	Sufficient	2.13	.78	117
	Partially Sufficient	2.24	.75	188
	Insufficient	2.45	.78	122
	Not at all	2.27	.86	37
Supervisor Challenges $F(3,460)=3.605, p=.013$	Sufficient	2.48	.65	117
	Partially Sufficient	2.55	.67	187
	Insufficient	2.74	.68	122
	Not at all	2.49	.74	38
Relationship with MTs $F(3,380)=4.519, p=.004$	Sufficient	2.00	.89	101
	Partially Sufficient	2.39	1.19	152
	Insufficient	2.52	1.16	104
	Not at all	2.56	1.12	27

4.4.11. Differences by the Existence of Mentor Teacher (MT) in Induction

The results depicted that there was not a significant difference between the novice teachers who were not assigned to an MT and the ones who had an MT in their induction period in terms of their adaptation challenges. It is inferred that

existence of an MT in the induction process did not have an effect neither on job-related concerns ($p=.477$) nor on social concerns ($p=.263$) of the NTs (Table 4.4.11).

Table 4.4.11
Differences by the Existence of MT in Induction

Categories	MT in Induction	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns $t(458)=.712, p=.477$	MT existing in induction	2.79	.68	253
	MT non-existing in induction	2.75	.66	207
Social Concerns $t(386)=-1.121, p=.263$	MT existing in induction	2.52	.55	253
	MT non-existing in induction	2.59	.64	130

4.4.12. Differences by the Perceived Love of Profession

The relationship between the challenges among the novice teachers and the perceived amount of love they had for the profession was investigated and analysed in four levels like the NTs having (a) much love of profession, (b) average love of profession, (c) little love of profession, and (d) the ones not having any love of profession. The NTs' general concerns and adaptation challenges differed significantly from each other according to their level of love for the profession in terms of both job-related concerns ($p=.001$) and social concerns ($p=.004$). This significant relationship between the love of profession and the adaptation challenges was depicted also in sub-group aspects: instructional challenges ($p=.001$), social status and identity challenges ($p<.001$), relationship with students ($p<.001$), relationship with parents ($p=.006$), conflicts with colleagues ($p=.005$), supervisor challenges ($p=.003$), and relationship with MTs ($p=.011$) (see Table 4.4.12).

The results of the post hoc comparisons revealed that the NTs, who did not have any love of the profession when choosing it, had adaptation problems more often than the other groups (see M values in Table 4.4.12). There were also significant mean differences between the novices who had much love when choosing their profession and the ones who had average in terms of their adaptation challenges in all aspects. For instance, the novices who had much love when choosing their profession ($M=2.52$) seemed to have less job related concerns than the ones who had average love ($M=2.67$). Again, the novices who had much love when choosing their profession ($M=2.28$) seemed to have less social concerns than both the ones who had average ($M=2.52$) and the ones who chose the profession without any love ($M=2.52$).

Table 4.4.12
Differences by the Perceived Love of Profession

Categories	Love of Profession	Mean	SD	N
Job-related Concerns <i>F(3,456)=5.699, p=.001</i>	Much	2.52	.51	268
	Average	2.67	.52	155
	Little	2.59	.49	23
	None	2.99	.66	14
Instructional Challenges <i>F(3,456)=5.637, p=.001</i>	Much	2.25	.63	268
	Average	2.44	.67	155
	Little	2.37	.55	23
	None	2.83	1.04	14
Social Concerns <i>F(3,455)=15.592, p=.004</i>	Much	2.28	.40	267
	Average	2.52	.42	155
	Little	2.52	.43	23
	None	2.76	.50	14
Social Status & Identity Challenges <i>F(3,461)=18.451, p<.001</i>	Much	2.50	.51	270
	Average	2.78	.51	158
	Little	2.99	.63	23
	None	3.16	.59	14
Relationship with Students <i>F(3,461)=6.437, p<.001</i>	Much	1.92	.48	270
	Average	2.11	.46	158
	Little	2.05	.40	23
	None	2.25	.68	14
Relationship with Parents <i>F(3,457)=4.207, p=.006</i>	Much	2.08	.73	268
	Average	2.32	.77	156
	Little	2.40	.78	23
	None	2.35	.79	14
Conflicts with Colleagues <i>F(3,460)=4.300, p=.005</i>	Much	2.17	.74	269
	Average	2.42	.85	158
	Little	2.20	.70	23
	None	2.60	.65	14
Supervisor Challenges <i>F(3,460)=4.836, p=.003</i>	Much	2.49	.68	270
	Average	2.70	.62	157
	Little	2.59	.66	23
	None	2.97	.92	14
Relationship with MTs <i>F(3,380)=3.747, p=.011</i>	Much	2.20	1.08	217
	Average	2.56	1.16	135
	Little	2.01	.98	20
	None	2.64	1.09	12

4.5. Perceptions on PRESET and INSET by Background Variables

In relation to the fourth research question, t-test and ANOVA were conducted to investigate whether the differences in the perceptions of the novice teacher groups on their pre-service and in-service training by background factors were statistically

significant. Table 4.5.1 displays the perceptions of NTs on the sufficiency of their PRESET according to background variables. The results of t-tests and ANOVAs revealed that there were significant changes among the NTs' perceptions on PRESET according to their branch ($p=.008$); the university they graduated from ($p<.001$); the practice teaching they did in their pre-service years ($p<.001$); and the existence of MT in their pre-service years ($p<.001$).

Table 4.5.1
Differences in Perceptions on PRESET by Background Variables

Background Variables		Mean	SD	N
Branch $F(7,457)=2.785, p=.008$	Classroom	3.29	.70	87
	English	3.24	.69	73
	Turkish	3.01	.76	59
	Mathematics & Science	3.09	.73	69
	Social Studies & Morals	3.24	.70	61
	Computer & Technology	3.28	.78	37
	Kindergarten	3.59	.52	30
	Others	3.39	.62	49
	University $F(5,459)=4.755, p<.001$	Selçuk University	2.95	.68
Atatürk University		3.23	.71	46
Gazi University		3.35	.68	37
19 Mayıs University		3.20	.69	31
Anadolu University		3.53	.63	31
Practice Teaching $F(3,461)=28.653, p<.001$	Much	3.66	.64	83
	Average	3.36	.67	186
	Little	3.00	.62	156
	None	2.74	.69	40
Existence of MT in PRESET $t(463)=4.565, p<.001$	MT Exist in PRESET	3.34	.70	313
	MT Non-exist in PRESET	3.03	.68	152

In order to see the mean differences in the perceptions of PRESET among the groups of novice teachers, post hoc comparisons were carried out. The results of the Dunnett's C test in relation to the branches, revealed that kindergarten novice teachers ($M=3.59$) seemed more satisfied with their pre-service training than both Turkish novice teachers ($M=2.67$) and Maths and Science novice teachers ($M=2.28$). There were not significant mean differences among the other branches. For the university graduated, it was seen that Selçuk University graduates ($M=2.96$) seemed to be less satisfied with their pre-service training than both Anadolu University graduates ($M=3.53$) and the other groups (M value ranging from 3.20 to 3.35). It was

indicated that Anadolu University graduates had higher level of satisfaction with their pre-service training than the other groups.

There were significant mean differences among all the groups, also, in terms of their perceived practice teaching. For example, the novices who did much practice teaching ($M=3.66$,) seemed to be more satisfied with their PRESET than the other groups. Again, the novices who did average practice teaching ($M=3.36$) seemed to be more satisfied with their PRESET than the ones who did little ($M=3.00$) and who didn't do at all ($M=2.74$). The results lastly revealed that the novices who worked with an MT ($M=3.34$) were more satisfied with their pre-service training than the ones who did not have an MT in their PRESET ($M=3.03$).

Lastly, it was investigated to see the differences in the perceptions about INSET in terms of work place. The results of the ANOVA indicated that there were not significant differences in the NTs perceptions on their INSET with respect to their work place; however, there appeared provincial differences which were significant, ($p<.001$). Table 4.5.2 displays the relationship between the provinces and the perceptions of NTs on the sufficiency of their INSET.

Table 4.5.2
Differences in Perceptions on INSET by Province

Background Variable		Mean	SD	N
Province $F(7,457)=9.626, p<.001$	Ankara	3.88	.53	12
	Erzurum	3.56	.82	39
	Konya	3.09	.75	125
	Kütahya	3.82	.83	17
	Muğla	3.73	.51	39
	Niğde	3.03	.73	64
	Ordu	3.50	.61	73
	Batman	3.51	.67	96

The results of the Dunnett's C test revealed that the novices working in Niğde ($M=3.03$) seemed to be less satisfied with their in-service training taken in their induction period than the NTs working in Ankara ($M=3.88$), Kütahya ($M=3.82$) Muğla ($M=3.73$), Batman ($M=3.51$), and Ordu ($M=3.50$). It was also seen that the NTs working in Konya ($M=3.09$) seemed to be less satisfied with their in-service training than the NTs working in Ankara, Muğla, Ordu and Batman.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter discusses the main results pertaining to adaptation challenges of the novice teachers in their induction period, the factors influencing their adaptation, and their perceptions on the pre-service and in-service training activities, together with the implications for practice and further research.

5.1. Discussion of the Results

This section, firstly, summarizes the background information about the study sample and later discusses the results in relation to research questions in two parts. It was seen that four out of five (80%) were at the age of 25 and below. The most encountered branches were Classroom, English, and Turkish Teachers constituting nearly half (47.1%) of the participants. The distribution represented 49 different universities in and outside Turkey, but more than half (51.2%) of the participants were the graduates of Selçuk, Atatürk, Gazi, 19 Mayıs, and Anadolu Universities.

Almost ninety-percent (87%) studied in “Education Faculties” in their undergraduate. Almost one-fourth of the NTs were assigned to the schools in the cities, yet the rest to the districts, small towns, or villages, which reveals that 71% of the novice teachers started their teaching in rural areas. Approximately ninety-percent were teaching at public schools. Additionally, almost ninety-percent had primary school teaching experience, and one-fifth had high school teaching experience.

Most of the NTs were teachers of upper primary (6th to 8th grades) levels. Only one-fifth of the NTs were teaching at one (same) level, the rest at different

levels. Among classroom teachers, one fourth of each classroom teacher was assigned to multi-level classrooms, and another one-fourth was teaching to 1st grades. It was inferred that half of the novice classroom teachers had already experienced the most challenging parts of being a classroom teacher in Turkey.

Apart from these, it was seen that only 18% had benefited from their practice teaching much and 67.3% had worked actively with a mentor teacher in their pre-service education, whereas 32.7% did not. It was seen that the existence of a mentor teacher in pre-service years varied according to university, as almost half (43%) of the novices from a particular university (Selçuk University) and one-fourth in other universities (like 26.1% for Atatürk university; and 24.3% for Gazi university) did not have a mentor teacher. Strikingly, almost half (42.6%) of the participants who studied in Non-education Faculties did not have a chance to work with a mentor teacher. One-fourth of Education Faculty graduates did not work with a mentor teacher, neither. As for the benefits of practice teaching done in pre-service years, there were significant differences among the universities, as nearly half from some universities (like 42% for Anadolu University) perceived that practice teaching contributed very much to them; whereas one-tenth in many another universities (like Selçuk, 19 Mayıs, and Gazi Universities).

55.1% had a mentor teacher in their induction process, but 44.9% did not. Comparisons were significant among work places, because the number of the NTs working in villages and having no MT was bigger than the ones working in districts, cities, or small towns. It was, also, seen that more than half of the novice teachers in private institutions didn't have a mentor teacher in their induction process. This percentage was 42.8% for public school NTs.

Only 25.2% of the participants found their in-service training taken so far sufficient. On the other hand, 26.2% of them thought that it was insufficient. These percentages were also changing according to school location and school type. For example, nearly half of the novices working in villages replied that they had little or insufficient INSET; whereas this percentage was only 3% in cities.

Lastly, only 3% had chosen the profession without any love of teaching, whereas 58.1% had much love. It was seen that there was not significant differences between the two genders, but some slight differences among the branches in terms of

the amount of love. For instance, there appeared neither an English teacher and nor a kindergarten teacher who did not have any love when choosing the profession. However, the percentage for the computer and technology teachers, who chose the profession with much love, was 38%, as the least percentage of all other branches.

5.1.1. Discussion of the Results Regarding Adaptation Challenges

In relation to the research question about the adaptation challenges of the novice teachers, it was seen that the NTs experienced job-related concerns a little more often than the social concerns, which was consistent with some of the related literature pointing out the problems like workplace stress (Holmes, 2003), workload, time management, content and curriculum knowledge (Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006), teaching, subject matter, students (Wang, Strong, & Odell, 2004), and instructional errors (Kellough, 2005).

Under the main concerns, the means and the proportions clustering around particular sub-categories indicated a sequence of challenges starting from the most experienced sub-category: (1) workload challenges, (2) social status and identity challenges, (3) supervisor challenges, (4) classroom management challenges, (5) instructional challenges, (6) challenges in relationship with mentor teachers, (7) conflicts with colleagues, challenges in relationship with (8) parents, and lastly (9) the students.

Workload challenges received the top rating among the sub-group categories, which was supported by the related literature, as overwhelming workload was emphasized in many papers or books (Britt; 1997; Gilbert; 2005; Holmes, 2006; McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005; Smith & Sela, 2005; Thompson, 2007; Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002). Having difficulty in completing administrative paperwork, preparing official correspondence and reports, and getting everything all done because of overwhelming workload; finding non-instructional duties tiring; and spending time at home by assessing papers and students' writing were among the most frequently experienced workload challenges.

The second most frequent challenge group was social status and identity challenges. This finding seemed to be in line with small amount of related literature, which is rather focusing on creating an identity, defining the teacher persona or

developing a “self” as a teacher (Achinstein & Barret, 2004; Agee, 2004; McCann & Johannesses, n.d.). The results indicated that the participants needed an emotional support for the profession; they felt a great pressure of teaching profession on them; they were unable to see themselves as professional educators; they experienced times when they felt darker and callous about the profession; they felt losing their idealistic side for the profession; and they had difficulty when revealing their persona in class and in school. Differently from the literature, the participants expressed that they were not satisfied with their employee rights and salary.

Thirdly, the NTs had concerns about supervisor challenges more than many other issues. Being consistent with this finding, supervisor challenges were asserted in an average amount of the related literature (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003; Gilbert, 2005; Howard, 2006; McCann, Johannessen, & Ricca, 2005; Stanulis, Fallon, & Pearson, 2002; Thompson, 2007; Watkins, 2005; Williams & Prestage, 2002). The findings of this study indicated that more than half of the NTs had worries about satisfying the expectations of principals or supervisor; had principals who did not nurture an environment encouraging new teachers; did not have proactive supervisors in providing feedback or sympathetic listeners trying to understand them; and claimed that supervisors require too much work from them.

On the other hand, the findings about classroom management, appearing as the fourth most frequent group, were less similar with some literature, attaching a highlighting importance to the management issue, like Howard (2006) naming management as the “single most difficult challenge” or Wyatt III and White (2007) calling it as “teachers’ nightmares”. Still the findings were consistent with the arguments in some other literature drawing a moderate picture about classroom management (Achinstein & Barret, 2004; Stanulis, Fallon, & Pearson, 2002). Like the results in this study, McCann and Johannessen (n.d.) had expressed classroom management as a predictable concern of beginning teachers, and Athanases and Achinstein, (2003) had mentioned about it as one of the most identified particular persistent problem. It was also similar with the findings of Lundeen (2004), who had designated that classroom management problems outnumbered adult relationship problems; and Watzke (2003), who had stated that classroom management problems initially overshadowed novices’ attention to instructing and nurturing children. In

this study, classroom management challenges both outnumbered relationship challenges and were more frequent than instructional challenges. Some of the specific challenges occurring sometimes or more frequently in classroom management were that the NTs perceived classroom management as the most challenging part of the profession and found it difficult to manage unruly classes with discipline problems.

Instructional challenges followed classroom management challenges, but they were not as serious as some literature depicts (Athaneses & Achinstein, 2003; Jarvis & Algozzine, 2006; Wyatt III & White, 2007), because the NTs had very limited challenges about using instructional tools, testing and evaluation, teaching strategies, choosing appropriate methods and techniques, determining course objectives, and implementation. On the other hand, it was obtained that most of the participants experienced a curriculum conundrum like in the literature and needed extra support in planning (Achinstein & Barret, 2004; Grinberg, 2002; Lundeen 2004; Wyatt III & White, 2007).

The least frequent sub-categories were all about the relationships. Some of the challenges occurring in relationship with students were the difficulties in helping the ones with behavioural problems, guiding students and giving advice, and perceiving individual differences, like in some literature (Achinstein & Barret; 2004; Athaneses & Acinstein, 2003; Lundeen, 2004; Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002; Wang, Strong, & Odell, 2004). There were not frequent challenges in relationships with mentor teachers; on the contrary almost all of them occurred rarely or never. Contrary to the literature (Bubb, 2003; Wyatt III and White, 2007) the issue of relationship with parents received also less attention among the NTs. For the conflicts with colleagues, it was seen that unfriendly approach of colleagues upset most of the NTs and more than half of them thought that experienced colleagues were not dealing sufficiently with the beginning teachers.

In the open-ended part, it was seen that the novice teachers were not happy with the support and mentoring system provided to them, as Brock and Grady (2006), Lindgren (2005), Rogers and Babinski (2002), Stalunis, Fallon, and Pearson (2002), and Watkins (2005), all talked about the need for the support and right mentoring in early years. The findings revealed also the complaints of the NTs about

the harsh realities of teaching (like multi-level classes); the indifference of parents as Britt (1997), Jarvis and Algozzine (2006) pointed; the unfairness of teacher assignment system, the gap between theory and practice, and the supervisors' manner. In addition, they expressed opinions about the insufficiency and impracticality of teacher training activities; the gap between PRESET and real teaching by emphasizing that teaching is acquired in classroom through trial. They posed some suggestions like planning INSET appropriately and more practically and, doing practice teaching in more realistic environments like multi-level classrooms in rural areas, and renovating teacher-assigning system.

5.1.2. Discussion of the Differences in Adaptation Challenges by Background Variables

In relation to investigation of changes in adaptation challenges by background factors, it was indicated that there was not a significant difference between the two genders, like in the study of Korkmaz (1999), and nor between the primary school teachers and the high school teachers. Furthermore, there were not significant changes according to the school location of novice teachers, which is an inconsistent result with Korkmaz's findings stating a significant difference with respect to the place where the novice teachers work.

What is striking that the existence of a mentor teacher in induction process did not have any significant effect on the adaptation of the novice teachers, as there was not a significant difference between the novice teachers who were not assigned an MT and the ones who had an MT in their induction process in terms of their adaptation challenges. This result proved the argument of Gilbert (2005) who states that mentoring could vary greatly in its implementation. It also emphasized the importance of right mentoring, as Lindgren (2005) attached importance.

On the other hand, the results indicated that there were significant differences among the novice teachers with respect to their age level; their subject matter; the university and faculty they graduated from; the practice teaching they did in their PRESET; existence of an MT in their pre-service years; the school type they were working in; the grade level they were teaching at; the amount of INSET taken in induction period; and the extent of their love for the teaching profession when

choosing their occupation. Considering the general findings mentioned above, these specific results appeared to be impressive:

- Female NTs had classroom management problems more often than the male NTs; whereas it was just the opposite for the problems in relationship with students.
- The older the NTs were, the fewer challenges they experienced; as the NTs within the age group 21 and 22 seemed to have more problems than the novices in the age group of 25 and over.
- The branch of the NTs seemed to be an important variable impacting their adaptation levels, as kindergarten teachers had fewer problems almost in any aspect than the other branches.
- The practice teaching experience had also an important factor affecting NTs adaptation, as the NTs who benefited from their practice teaching experience much seemed to have less concerns than the ones who did little or insufficient practice teaching.
- There appeared a significant relationship between the existence of a mentor teacher in pre-service years and the adaptation problems in induction years, as it was revealed that the novices who did not work with an MT in their PRESET had more challenges than the ones who had an MT, especially in instructional challenges and relationship with supervisors.
- It was revealed that the school location the NTs were working in had significant impact only in terms of social challenges and supervisor challenges.
- There were significant differences between the public school teachers and the private school teachers in most of the aspects, as public school teachers had more challenges, in those aspects than the private school teachers.
- For the school level, there was not a significant difference between the primary school teachers and high school teachers in most of the challenges, except for the classroom management challenges, that high school teachers had problems in classroom management more often than the primary school teachers, unlike the arguments of Winch (2004), who thought that classroom management with young children is much more demanding.

- In relation to the significant differences according to the type of high school, it was revealed that the NTs' adaptation challenges differed significantly from each other with respect to classroom management and relationship with parents.
- The grade level taught was a significant factor on both job-related and social concerns of the NTs, especially in terms of workload challenges, instructional challenges, classroom management, relationship with students, relationship with parents, supervisor challenges, and relationship with MTs. For instance, there were significant differences between the teachers of 1st to 5th graders and the teachers of 6th to 8th graders. Strikingly enough, teachers teaching to kindergarten levels had less workload and instructional challenges, and fewer problems in relationship with students and parents than the teachers teaching to upper levels. Another striking finding of a sub-analysis showed that the classroom teachers teaching in multi-level classrooms had more problems than the classroom teachers teaching in single-level classrooms in terms of instructional challenges, relationship with parents, and in relationship with MTs.
- The results differed significantly from each other according to the perceived INSET taken in induction, as the NTs who took sufficient INSET seemed to have less job related and social concerns than the ones who took insufficient INSET.
- The amount of love they had at the beginning for their profession appeared to be an important factor affecting their adaptation, as the novices who had much love when choosing their profession seemed to have less concerns in many aspects than the others.

5.1.3. Discussion of the Perceptions on INSET and PRESET

The second research question investigated how the novice teachers perceived their pre-service education and in-service trainings. It was drawn that 38.1% were happy with their pre-service training, as only 4.1% of the participants found it really sufficient. On other hand, 44.9% were happy with their in-service training, still only 6.2% of the participants found it really sufficient.

The PRESET was perceived to be lacking in these issues: teaching the laws related with teaching profession; introducing the educational programs of the MONE; teaching to overcome instructional difficulties; instructional planning;

providing resources for professional development; guiding and counselling for the students; preparing the student teachers for the profession; evaluating student achievement; teaching to use course book and materials; classroom management; introducing the profession; teaching to consider individual differences of the students; making teaching more attractive for the students; teaching methods and techniques; and helping to gain a teacher identity.

It was seen that the perceptions mentioned above were significantly different from each other according to the branch of the participants; the university the participants graduated; the practice teaching they had in their pre-service years; the existence of MT in their pre-service years. To illustrate, kindergarten novice teachers seemed more satisfied with their pre-service training than both Turkish and Maths-Science novice teachers. Or, Selçuk University graduates seemed to be less satisfied with their pre-service training than the other groups. As another point, the novices who did much practice teaching seemed to be more satisfied with their PRESET than the other groups. Again, the novices who did average practice teaching seemed to be more satisfied with their PRESET than the ones who did little and who didn't do at all. The results lastly revealed that the novices who worked with an MT were more satisfied with their pre-service training than the ones who did not have an MT in their PRESET.

The INSET was perceived to be lacking in the issues of evaluating student achievement; making teaching more attractive for the students; instructional planning; classroom management; guiding and counselling for the students; instructional implementation; providing resources for professional development; solving adaptation problems related to the profession; assisting the current induction process; and developing an identity as a teacher. Considering the perceptions above, there were significant provincial differences, which indicated that the NTs working in some provinces (like Niğde and Konya) were less happy with their in-service training than the NTs in other provinces.

5.2. Implications for Practice

There are numerous stakeholders for the improvement in teacher education, as the teachers are not the only responsible team for the professional development.

Teacher organizations, teacher educators, state and local officials, inspectors, school principals, students, their parents, researchers and educational specialists all are to be included in the team. It is sure that different perspectives from different units are needed for improvement. Since the implications cannot be from one way, it is aimed to offer partnership between university trainers and the school community in ensuring the professional development of new teachers. This section offers implications for practice regarding all planning and leading activities pertaining to teacher education, induction and mentoring.

5.2.1 Implications for PRESET Programs

The results revealed that pre-service teacher education does not adequately respond to the needs of the NTs in early years. Covering strategies to be used in classroom without “real-life” examples does not supply a deep understanding or enactment for NTs. These programs were perceived and criticized for being too theoretical, having little connection to practice, and offering unrelated or ineffective courses for further processes. The general complaints of a novice teacher, mostly, resulted from the discrepancy between the teacher’s expectations out of pre-service training and the outcomes of the actual teaching experience. There must be a strong and coherent teacher education curriculum, which is planned and sequenced carefully.

This study proved that there is an urgent task to enrich the teacher education programs through covering the key problems of teaching profession; having a close contact with the MONE and introducing the educational programs of the MONE; including courses on the laws related with teaching profession; emphasizing instructional difficulties that a teacher might encounter and teaching to overcome these difficulties; providing resources for professional development and life-long learning; signifying the issue of individual differences and more effective teaching; helping the candidates to gain a teacher identity by introducing the real aspects of the teaching profession in Turkey; and preparing the student teachers more realistically for the profession, which can be accomplished with a more authentically-designed, supervised and implemented teaching practice courses.

A teacher education program must be inquiry-oriented and research-based, which asserts the needs assessment procedures in any engagement of planning. It is no doubt that the faculties and the school settings must be hand-in-hand with the purpose of well-designed trainings both for the pre-service students and in-service teachers.

5.2.2. Implications for Induction and Mentoring Programs

An effective teacher induction program is supposed to solve problems of new teachers. Therefore a deep assessment of current induction applications together with the existing challenges could ease focusing on more accurate induction. First of all, an induction should aim an encouragement of novices' work through supportive communicating and a response to novices' questions. Besides being informative; this program is expected to release the anxiety of the novices with the help of emotional supports and guiding activities. Including the NTs in decision-making process will surely make a difference.

At this point, the local officials like the directorates, the inspectors, the supervisors, the principals, and the mentors all are expected to contribute to this process by assisting and advising new teachers. The most crucial role belongs to school administrators, as they should organize meetings to introduce the new teacher to the school culture, school vision and mission, and practical matters; supply social events where beginning teachers can get to know their colleagues; establish a support program for the new teachers' professional development; organize peer teachings with an emphasis on formative evaluation; and schedule regular meetings to discuss any concerns and problems the beginning teachers might have and offer suggestions. The school principals or head of the departments should provide the new teachers with reasonable teaching assignments. As the major challenge is workload for many NTs, it is important to assign manageable work and limit the amount and the scope of non-instructional activities for the new teachers.

An effective induction program includes also an effective mentoring program. It was seen, in the results of this study, that mentoring in induction period was insufficient and mentor teachers were ineffective regarding the induction challenges of the NTs. This is resulted from the finding that existence of an MT did not have

any effect on the adaptation of the NTs, which brings the fact that mentoring is not being done properly or not meeting its objectives. Therefore, it should be questioned not if the mentoring is implemented or if a mentor teacher exists, but if the mentoring is implemented purposefully and if the mentor teacher is doing his/her duty properly.

The quality of the mentoring makes all the difference. A well-organized mentoring will be easier if both the mentees and mentors are aware of the goals and the expectations, because a mentoring program depends on the motivation and the willingness of the individuals to help each other and develop professionally. Hence, the mentor teachers must be selected and trained carefully, especially about peer coaching and communication, because mentor-novice meetings and interactions are the considerable parts of the professional sharing.

5.2.3. Implications for the MONE

The results in this study indicated a need for a redesign of the NTT (Novice Teacher Training) program or innovations in the issues like evaluating student achievement; creating more attractive teaching for the students; instructional planning; classroom management; guiding and counselling; and teaching and implementation. The current NTT program seemed especially inefficient in providing resources for professional development; solving adaptation problems related to the profession; assisting the current induction process; and developing an identity, among the novice teachers, as a teacher.

The second step should be taken to standardize the Novice Teacher Training activities, as there appeared provincial differences in the applications. The provision of training must be consistent throughout all locations in the country. The teachers teaching in rural areas need to be included in professional trainings as much as the other teachers.

Apart from these, it is important for the MONE to provide information about novice teachers' induction process to all the stakeholders. Both the individuals and the teacher education institutions need to be informed about the recent data related to teacher induction and teacher training. For a broader database, teacher development websites could be created and contact groups could be organized for new teachers.

5.2.4. Implications for Novice Teachers

Lesson observations of other colleagues, video recording of their own teaching, conducting action research, keeping learning logs, reflective writing could be beneficial to decrease particular adaptation difficulties for a novice teacher and to ensure professional development. Besides learning from self-study, new teachers will benefit from a broader network of contacts with their peers. Being part of a network of teachers across the country or across the world, establishing professional links outside the school, attendance to a conference or investment in a membership are essential parts of professional development. It is also necessary to be in contact with university colleagues, such as professors, cooperating teachers, or peers and to get support through group e-mails or discussion boards. As a novice teacher, it is important to talk confidentially with a more experienced teacher without fear of judgement and to request support for difficult situations; because beginning teachers are not expected to know everything.

5.3. Implications for Further Research

In this study, an important step was taken to see the induction processes of the novice teachers by clarifying their adaptation challenges, the factors influencing their adaptation level, and the perceptions about their pre-service and in-service activities. However, the findings of this study could be multiplied though a deeper research carried out with multiple participants and multiple instruments. In addition to the questionnaire administered in this study, another study in the forms of interviews with student teachers, who are close to be a novice, mentor teachers, school principals, and the inspectors could be carried out. It would help to see the “induction” picture from a broader and diverse perspective.

What is more, a larger sample selection could add more to the significance of this study. Including all seven regions and selecting equal or close sample sizes from each region will surely make it more objective to compare regional differences. When selecting sample provinces, physical and economical growth of the cities should be taken into consideration in order to promote more objective comparisons.

The foci and the scope of this study were limited with an attempt to evaluate the sufficiency of the pre-service and in-service trainings. In order to redesign

teacher education and development applications, two detailed studies should be conducted: (a) curricular assessment of pre-service education, and (b) needs assessment for in-service training. For such a deep study, a mutual work of the MONE and the universities should be ensured, which will make the study reach farther.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. NOVICE TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM (in Turkish)

Aday Öğretmenlerin Yetiştirilmesi Kurs Programı

ADAYLIK EĞİTİMİ	ÜNİTELER	SÜRE (SAAT)
TEMEL EĞİTİM PROGRAMI	1.Devlet Teşkilâtı, Anayasa ve Kamu Hizmeti	8
	2.Devlet Memurları ile ilgili Mevzuat	16
	3.Türkçe, Dilbilgisi ve Resmi Yazışma Kuralları	12
	4.Halkla İlişkiler	4
	5.Tasarruf Tedbirleri ve Hizmette Verimlilik	4
	6.Atatürk İlkeleri ve İnkılâp Tarihi	10
	7.Millî Güvenlik Bilgisi	2
	8. Değerlendirme (Sınav)	4
	TOPLAM:	60 Saat
HAZIRLAYICI EĞİTİM PROGRAMI	1. Türk Millî Eğitim Sistemi	12
	2. MEB'in Teşkilat Yapısı	12
	3. Personelin Özlük Hakları	24
	4. Hizmet Sınıfları ile ilgili Konular	68
	5. Değerlendirme (Sınav)	4
	TOPLAM:	120 Saat
UYGULAMALI EĞİTİM PROGRAMI	1.Resmi Yazışma ve Dosyalama Kuralları.	-
	2.Hizmette Tasarruf ve Verimlilik.	-
	3.İnsan İlişkileri.	-
	4.Yenilik ve Gelişme.	-
	5.Koruma Tedbirleri ve Sivil Savunma.	-
	6.Hizmet Sınıfları ile İlgili Konular.	-
	MİNİMUM:	220 Saat

APPENDIX A.1 BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAM (in Turkish)

Temel Eğitim Programı

ÜNİTE I: Devlet Teşkilatı, Anayasa ve Kamu Hizmeti	ÜNİTE II: Devlet Memurları ile İlgili Mevzuat
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. T.C. Anayasası ve temel ilkeleri.2. Kamu hizmeti ve devlet kavramları.3. Devlet Teşkilatı:<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Merkezi Yönetim,b. Yerinden yönetim.4. Devletin Şekli ve Organları:<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Yasama,b. Yürütme,c. Yargı.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Anayasa, Kanun, KHK, Bakanlar Kurulu Kararı, Tüzük, Yönetmelik, Yönerge, Genelge, İdari Yargı Kararları, İçtihat'ı Birleştirme Kararları.2. Devlet Memurunun:<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Görev ve sorumlulukları,b. Genel Hak ve sosyal yardımları,c. Hizmet içi Eğitimi,d. Atama ve yer değiştirmesi,e. Müracaat ve şikâyetleri,f. İzinleri,g. Kılık-Kıyafeti,h. Disipline riyeti,ı. İlerleme ve yükselmesi.
ÜNİTE III: Türkçe-Dilbilgisi ve Resmi Yazışma Kuralları	ÜNİTE IV: Halkla İlişkiler.
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Türkçe'nin yapısı ve dünya dilleri arasındaki yeri.2. Kelime çeşitleri.3. Cümle çeşitleri.4. Cümlenin öğeleri.5. Kip, zaman ve şahıs.6. Noktalama işaretleri.7. İmla kuralları.8. Kompozisyon.9. Resmi yazışma ve iletişim kuralları.10. Resmi yazışma ve iletişim çeşitleri.11. Gizlilik, gizlilik dereceleri.12. Evrak dosyalama arşivleme.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Halkla ilişkiler kavramı.2. Halkla ilişkilerin nitelikleri.3. Halkla ilişkilerin teknikleri.4. Halkla ilişkilerde yararlanılan kaynaklar.5. Halkla ilişkilerde meslek kuralları.6. Yönetimin halk tarafından değerlendirilmesi.
ÜNİTE V: Tasarruf Tedbirleri ve Hizmette Verimlilik.	ÜNİTE VI: Atatürk İlkeleri ve İnkılâp Tarihi
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Tasarrufun önemi ve gerekliliği,2. Tasarruf alanları.<ol style="list-style-type: none">a. Yakıtta,b. Zamandac. Suda,d. Kırtasyede.3. Tasarrufun kişi ve toplum hayatındaki rolü.4. İnançlarımız ve geleneklerimizde tasarrufun yeri.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. 20.yy. başında Osmanlı İmparatorluğunun durumu.2. Kurtuluş Savaşı.3. Cumhuriyetin ilanı.4. Atatürk İlkeleri5. Atatürk inkılâpları.
ÜNİTE VII: Millî Güvenlik Bilgisi	
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Türkiye'nin jeopolitik konumu.2. Türkiye'ye yönelik iç ve dış tehditler3. İç ve dış tehditlere karşı alınabilecek tedbirler.	

APPENDIX A.2. PREPARATORY EDUCATION PROGRAM (in Turkish)

Hazırlayıcı Eğitim Programı

ÜNİTE I: Türk Millî Eğitim Sisteminin Yapısını Kavrayabilme
1. Türk Millî Eğitim Sistemi: a. Genel Amaçlar, b. Temel İlkeler, c. Örgün Eğitim Kurumları, d. Yaygın Eğitim Kurumları.
ÜNİTE II: Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın Teşkilat Yapısı
1. Merkez Teşkilatı: a. Bakanlık Makamı, b. Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu, c. Ana Hizmet Birimleri, d. Danışma ve Denetim Birimleri, e. Yardımcı Birimler. 2. Taşra Teşkilatı: a. İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlükleri, b. İlçe Millî Eğitim Müdürlükleri. 3. Yurtdışı Teşkilatı. 4. Bağlı Kuruluşlar: a. Millî Eğitim Akademisi, b. Yüksek Öğrenim Kredi ve Yurtlar Kurumu Genel Müdürlüğü, c. Film, Radyo, Televizyonla Eğitim Merkezi. 5. Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın diğer bakanlıklarla olan ilişkileri.
ÜNİTE-III: Personelin Özlük Hakları
1. Devlet Memuru'nun özlük haklarına ait tabi olduğu mevzuat: a. 657 Sayılı Kanunun İlgili Hükümleri, b. T.C. Emekli Sandığı Kanunu'nun İlgili Hükümleri. 2. Devlet Memuru'nun genel hakları: a. Uygulamayı isteme hakkı, b. Çekilme, c. Emeklilik, d. Müracaat, şikâyet ve dava açma, e. İsnat ve iftiralara karşı korunma. 3. Devlet Memurluğu'nda ilerleme ve yükselmeler: a. Kademe ilerlemesinde şartlar, b. Derece yükselmesinin usul ve şartları, c. İdari görevlere atanma, d. Sınıf değiştirme. 4. Atama ve Yer değiştirme: a. Atama, ilk atama, açıktan atama, b. Yer değiştirme, c. Vekâlet, d. İkinci görev, e. Silâh altına alınma ve terhis edilenlerin görevlerine dönmeleri ve hizmet değerlendirilmesi. 5. Çalışma Saatleri ve İzinler: a. Yıllık izin, b. Mazeret izni, c. Hastalık izni, d. Aylıksız izin. 6. Disiplin ve Disiplin cezaları: a. Disiplin amirleri, b. Disiplin cezaları ve çeşitleri (Uyarma, Kınama, Aylıktan kesme, Kademe ilerlemesinin durdurulması, Devlet memurluğundan çıkarma). 7. Siciller: a. Sicil amirleri, b. Sicil raporlarının doldurulması, c. Olumlu ve olumsuz sicil, d. Ödüllendirme (Teşekkür, Takdir, Aylıkla ödül). 8. Görevden uzaklaştırma. 9. Mali Haklar: a. Aylık (Dereceler kademe aylığı, Katsayı ve Gösterge), b. Tazminat ve Zamlar, c. Sosyal Haklar ve Yardımlar (Tedavi Yardımı, Konut edindirme yardımı, Aile yardımı, Doğum ve ölüm yardımı, Giyecek yardımı, Lojman tazminatı), d. Harcırah Kanunu yol masrafı, gündelik, aile masrafı, yer değiştirme masrafı. 10. Devlet Memuru'nun hizmet içi eğitim yoluyla yetiştirilmesi.
ÜNİTE-IV: Eğitim Öğretim Hizmetleri Sınıfı Personeli İçin Konular
1. Öğretim ilke ve yöntemleri; 2. Ders araç ve gereçleri; 3. Rehberlik; 4. Yıllık, ünite ve günlük plân; 5. 222 sayılı İlköğretim ve Eğitim Kanunu; 6. 430 Sayılı Tevhidi Tedrisat Kanunu. 7. Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı'na Bağlı Okul ve Kurumlarda Görevli Öğretmen ve Yöneticilerin Haftalık Ders Saatleri ve Ek Ders Ücretleri Hakkında Mevzuat (439 Sayılı Kanun ve ilgili diğer mevzuat). 8. 1702 Sayılı İlk ve Orta Tedrisat Muallimler Terfi ve Terfileri Hakkında Kanun. 9. 4357 Sayılı İlkokul Öğretmenleri Terfi, Teklif ve Cezalandırılmaları Hakkında Kanun. 10. Eğitim Öğretim hizmetleri sınıfı personelini ilgilendiren Kanun, Yönetmelik ve diğer mevzuat.

APPENDIX A.3. APPLIED EDUCATION PROGRAM (in Turkish)

Uygulamalı Eğitim Programı

ÜNİTE I: Resmi Yazışma ve Dosyalama Kuralları.	ÜNİTE II: Hizmette tasarruf ve verimlilik.
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Resmi Yazışma kuralları ve çeşitleri.2. Gizlilik ve gizliliğin dereceleri.3. Evrak, dağıtım, dosyalama ve arşivleme.4. Basılı evraklar.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Devlet malı2. Tasarruf tedbirleri3. Hizmette verimlilik4. Tüketim ve yatırım malları
ÜNİTE III: İnsan İlişkileri	ÜNİTE IV: Yenilik ve Gelişme
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Yönetimde insan ilişkilerinin yeri ve önemi.2. İş ilişkileri.3. Çevre ilişkileri.4. Ast-üst ilişkileri.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Personelin görev alanı ve ilgili mevzuat.2. Gözlem ve araştırma.3. Bilimsel ve teknolojik gelişmeler.4. Çevre imkânlarından yararlanma (kütüphane vb.)
ÜNİTE V: Güvenlik tedbirleri ve sivil savunma.	
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Güvenlik ve koruma tedbirleri.2. Sivil savunma tedbirleri.	
EĞİTİM ÖĞRETİM HİZMETLERİ SINIFI PERSONELİ İÇİN UYGULAMALI EĞİTİM	
ÜNİTE I: Öğretim planları A-Yıllık Plân B-Ünite Planı C-Günlük Plân D-Yıllık Çalışma Programı. ÜNİTE-II: Ders araç ve gereçleri ÜNİTE-III: Eğitimde çevrenin yeri ve önemi A-Eğitim amaçlı yararlanabilecek çevredeki kurum ve kuruluşlar B-Okul, aile ve çevre ilişkileri ÜNİTE-IV: Rehberlik hizmetleri 1. Rehberliğin yeri ve önemi 2. Rehber öğretmen, sınıf rehber öğretmen, danışman öğretmen 3. Aday öğretmenin rehber öğretmeni	ÜNİTE-V: Okulun yapısı ve özellikleri 1. Okulun amaçları ve yapısı 2. Okulda yönetim işleri a.Eğitim programlarının uygulanması b.Personel hizmetleri c.Öğrenci hizmetleri d.Bütçe ile ilgili işler e.Okulun fiziki kaynakları 3. Okuldaki kurul ve toplantılar ÜNİTE-VI: Ölçme ve değerlendirme 1. Ölçme araçları a. Çoktan seçmeli testler b. Doğru yanlış testler c. Eşleştirmeli testler d. Kısa cevaplı testler e. Performans testleri f. Sözlü yoklama g. Yazılı yoklama 2. Ölçme araçlarının nitelikleri a. Geçerlilik b. Güvenirlilik c. Kullanışlılık 3. Değerlendirme a. Tanımaya yönelik değerlendirme b. Yetiştirmeye yönelik değerlendirme c. Sonuç değerlendirme

APPENDIX B. NOVICE TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE (Turkish Version)

ADAY ÖĞRETMEN ANKET FORMU

Değerli Meslektaşım,

Aşağıdaki anket, göreve yeni başlamış aday öğretmenlerin mesleğe giriş sürecinde yaşadıkları uyum sorunlarını araştırmak ve yine aday öğretmenlerin uyum düzeyini etkileyen çeşitli etkenlere göre algılarının hangi oranda değiştiğini ortaya koymak için tasarlanmıştır. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları öğretmenlerin mesleğe girişte karşılaştıkları sorunlara ışık tutacağı ve çözüm bulunması çabalarına katkıda bulunacağı için, görüşlerinizi samimi bir şekilde ifade etmeniz önemlidir.

Kimlik bilgileriniz ve bireysel yanıtlarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır ve anket sonuçları sadece araştırma amacına yönelik kullanılacaktır. Eğer bulgular hakkında bilgilendirilmek isterseniz, formun sonuna e-posta adresinizi ekleyiniz.

Katılımınız ve içtenliğiniz için çok teşekkür ederim.

Mustafa ÖZTÜRK
Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
Yüksek Lisans Programı Öğrencisi

BÖLÜM I: KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

- Yaşınız: _____
- Cinsiyetiniz: () 1.Bay () 2. Bayan
- Branşınız: _____
- Mezun olduğunuz üniversite: _____
- Mezun olduğunuz fakülte ve bölüm: _____
- Şu an görev yaptığınız il/ilçe/kasaba/köy: _____
- Görev yaptığınız okulun türü: () 1.Devlet Kurumu () 2.Özel Kurum
- Hangi düzeyde öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz?
() 1. İlköğretim Okulunda (lütfen sınıf düzeyini belirtin _____)
() 2. Lisede (lütfen okulun türünü açıkça belirtin _____)
- Fakültede uygulama için gittiğiniz okullarda yaptığımız gözlem ve uygulamalardan ne düzeyde yarar gördünüz? () 1. Çok 2. () Orta 3. () Az 4. () Hiç
- Üniversite uygulamalarınızda bir rehber (danışman) öğretmenle birlikte çalıştınız mı?
() 1.Evet () 2. Hayır
- Şu anda bir rehber (danışman) öğretmenle birlikte çalışıyor musunuz? () 1.Evet () 2. Hayır
- Ne kadar hizmet içi eğitim aldınız veya alıyorsunuz:
() 1. Yeterli 2. () Orta 3. () Az 4. () Hiç
- Öğretmenlik mesleğini ne derece severek seçtiniz?
() 1. Çok 2. () Orta 3. () Az 4. () Hiç

Açıklama: 2. ve 3. bölümlerde her ifadeden sonra düşüncenizi belirten seçeneği daire içine alınız.

BÖLÜM II: MESLEKLE İLGİLİ KAYGILAR

A-İŞYÜKÜ	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. İş yoğunluğu nedeniyle, işlerimi yetiştirmekte güçlük çekiyorum	5	4	3	2	1
2. Öğretim işi dışındaki (sınıf dışı) sorumluluklar beni	5	4	3	2	1

yoruyor.					
3. Resmi dokümanları, raporları, yazışmaları hazırlamakta zorlanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Ders dışı etkinlikler çok fazla zamanımı alıyor.	5	4	3	2	1
5. İş yükü nedeniyle uykusuz kaldığım geceler oluyor.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Akşamlarımı ve hafta sonlarımı sınav okuyarak ya da öğrenci ödevlerine bakarak harcıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1

B-ÖĞRETİM (Müfredat Bilgisi, Planlama, Uygulama, Değerlendirme ve Not Verme)	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. Eğitim programları konusunda belirsizlik yaşıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Neyi öğretmem gerektiğine karar vermekte güçlük çekiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Planlama (yıllık, ünite, ders planları) konusunda desteğe ihtiyacım olduğunu düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Kazanımları belirlemek bana zor geliyor.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Uygun yöntem ve teknikleri seçmede zorluk yaşıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Planladıklarımı uygulamaya geçirmekte güçlük çekiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Öğretim stratejileri konusunda kendimi yetersiz buluyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Öğrencilerin dikkatini dersteki etkinliklere çekmekte zorlanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Eğitsel (öğretimsel) araç ve gereçleri kullanmakta zorlanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Ölçme ve değerlendirmede kendimi yetersiz hissediyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Değerlendirme yaparken, sayısal değerlerle öznel izlenimlerimi birleştirmekte güçlük çekiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1

C-SINIF YÖNETİMİ	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. Sınıf yönetimini, öğretmenlik mesleğinin en zor yönlerinden biri olarak görüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Sınıf kurallarını belirlemekte güçlük yaşıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Öğrenci davranışlarına nasıl tepkide bulunacağımı biliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Etkili sınıf yönetimi stratejileri kullanabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Disiplin problemleri olan sınıfları yönetmede zorlanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Sınıfta lider rolü üstlenmek konusunda kendimi yetersiz hissediyorum.	5	4	3	2	1

BÖLÜM III: SOSYAL KAYGILAR

A-SOSYAL STATÜ ve KİMLİK KARMAŞASI	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. Öğretmen olarak toplumda saygı gördüğümü düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Öğretmenlik mesleğinin kişiliğime uygun olduğunu düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3. İyi bir öğretmen olup olmadığım konusunda kaygılarım var.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Okulda ve sınıfta kişiliğimi ortaya koymakta güçlük çekmiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Öğretmenlik mesleğinin üzerimde önemli bir baskısını hissediyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Bu mesleğe dair idealist düşüncelerim azalıyor.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Mesleğim konusunda karamsar olduğum zamanlar oluyor.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Mesleğimle ilgili moral ve desteğe ihtiyacım olduğunu düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Okulun kültürüne uyum sağlayabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Öğrencilerin benimle ilgili ne düşündükleri konusunda kaygı duyuyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Kendimi profesyonel bir eğitimci olarak görebiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
12. Yetiştiğim çevre ile okul ortamımı bağdaştırabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
13. Maaşımdan memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
14. Sosyal statümden memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
15. Çalışan haklarımdan memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1

B-ÖĞRENCİLERLE İLİŞKİLER	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. Öğrencilerle olumlu bir ilişki kurmakta güçlük çekiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Öğrencilerin fiziksel, zihinsel ve sosyal gelişimleriyle ilgilenme konusunda yeterli olduğumu düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Bireysel farklılıkları belirlemek bana zor geliyor.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Davranış bozuklukları olan öğrencilere yardım etme noktasında problem yaşıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Öğrencilere duygusal destek sağlayabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Öğrencilere yönelik rehberlik ve yönlendirme faaliyetlerinde zorlanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Öğrencilerin isimlerini öğrenip, onlara isimleriyle hitap edebiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Öğrencilerimin beni bir insan olarak sevdiklerini düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Öğrencilerimin bana bir öğretmen olarak saygı duyduklarını düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Öğrencilerimin beni iyi bir öğretmen olarak gördüklerini düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1

C-VELİLERLE İLİŞKİLER	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. Öğrenci velileriyle olumlu ilişkiler kurabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Velilerin olumsuz yaklaşımları ile başa çıkabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Okul-veli ilişkisini sağlamakta kendimi yeterli buluyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Veli toplantılarında kendimi rahat hissediyorum.	5	4	3	2	1

D-DİĞER ÖĞRETMENLERLE İLİŞKİLER	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. Öğretmenlerin, göreve yeni başladığım için, bana destek olduklarını düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Öğretmen arkadaşlarla olumlu ilişkiler kurabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Öğretmen arkadaşlarım benimle meslekle ilgili paylaşımda bulunuyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Çoğunlukla işbirliğine yatkın meslektaşlarla çalışıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Meslektaşlarımın davranış biçimlerinden memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Meslektaşlarım kişisel çabalarımın saygı duyuyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Meslektaşlarımın dostça olmayan yaklaşımları beni üzüyor.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Deneyimli öğretmenlerin aday öğretmenlerle yeterli düzeyde ilgilendiklerini düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1

E-MÜDÜR ya da MÜFETTİŞLERLE İLİŞKİLER	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. Müdürümün, yeni bir öğretmen olarak beni teşvik edecek bir ortam yarattığını düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Müdür ya da müfettişlerin beklentilerini karşılama kaygısını taşıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Müdür ya da müfettişlerin benden fazla iş talep ettiklerini düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Müdür ya da müfettişlerin beklentilerini karşılayabileceğimi hissediyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Müdür ya da müfettişler beni ve derslerimi fazla eleştiriyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Müdür ya da müfettişler bana geri bildirim (dönüt) sağlıyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Müdür ya da müfettişlerin beni anlamaya çalıştıklarını düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Müdürüme soru sormaya çekiniyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Müdürüm benim sorunlarımla yeterli düzeyde ilgileniyor.	5	4	3	2	1

10. Müdür ve müfettişlerle mesleki gelişim konusunda iletişim kurmakta zorluk çekiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
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F-REHBER (DANIŞMAN) ÖĞRETMENLE İLİŞKİLER	Her zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiç
1. Rehber öğretmenimle aramızda olumlu bir ilişki var.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Rehber öğretmenim mesleki destek beklentilerimi karşılıyor.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Rehber öğretmenime her şeyi sorabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Rehber öğretmenimin beklentilerini karşılayabileceğimi düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Rehber öğretmenim benim sorunlarımla yeterince ilgileniyor.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Rehber öğretmenimi, iyi bir dinleyici olarak görüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Rehber öğretmenim geri bildirim (dönüt) sağlıyor.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Rehber öğretmenim, ben ve derslerim konusunda olumsuz bir tutum içinde.	5	4	3	2	1

Açıklama: 4. ve 5. bölümdeki ifadeleri, düşüncenizi belirten seçeneği daire içine alarak tamamlayınız.

BÖLÜM IV: HİZMET ÖNCESİ EĞİTİM HAKKINDAKİ GÖRÜŞLER

Üniversitede Aldığım Hizmet Öncesi Öğretmen Eğitimi	Yeterli	Orta Düzeyde Yeterli	Az Yeterli	Yetersiz	Fikrim Yok
1. Mesleği tanıma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
2. Beni mesleğe hazırlama konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
3. Öğretim etkinlikleri planlama konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
4. Öğretim yöntem ve teknikleri konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
5. Öğrenci başarısını değerlendirme konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
6. Sınıf yönetimi konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
7. Öğretimle ilgili zorlukların üstesinden gelme konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
8. Öğrencilere rehberlik yapma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
9. Öğrencilerin bireysel özelliklerini dikkate alma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
10. Öğretimi daha çekici hale getirme konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
11. Ders kitaplarını kullanma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
12. Bakanlık programlarını tanıma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
13. Öğretmenlik mesleğiyle ilgili mevzuat konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
14. Mesleki gelişim için kaynaklara ulaşma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
15. Öğretmenlik kimliği kazanma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1

BÖLÜM V: HİZMETİÇİ EĞİTİM HAKKINDAKİ GÖRÜŞLER

Hizmet İçinde Aldığım Eğitim (Aday Öğretmenlerin Yetiştirilmesi Kursları: Temel Eğitim, Hazırlayıcı Eğitim ve Uygulamalı Eğitim)	Yeterli	Orta Düzeyde Yeterli	Az Yeterli	Yetersiz	Fikrim Yok
1. Mesleğe geçiş sürecimi kolaylaştırma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
2. Mesleki kimliğimin gelişmesi konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
3. Öğretmenlik mesleğinin gerçeklerini tanıma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
4. Öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin sorunları aşma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
5. Mesleki gelişim için kaynaklara ulaşma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
6. Öğretmenlik mesleğiyle ilgili mevzuat konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
7. Öğretim etkinliklerini planlama konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
8. Öğretim etkinliklerini yürütme konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
9. Öğretimi daha çekici hale getirme konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
10. Öğrencilere rehberlik yapma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
11. Öğrenci başarısını değerlendirme konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
12. Sınıf yönetimi konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1
13. Meslektaşlarımla mesleki ilişkiler kurma konusunda...	5	4	3	2	1

Ekleyeceğiniz başka şeyler varsa, aşağıdaki boşluğu kullanabilirsiniz:

Anketi doldurduğunuz için teşekkürler. Veri analizi sonuçlarını öğrenmek isterseniz, lütfen e-mail adresinizi belirtiniz:

APPENDIX C
NAME OF THE UNIVERSITIES THE PARTICIPANTS GRADUATED

Name of University	F	%
SELCUK	93	20.0
ATATURK	46	9.9
GAZI	37	8.0
19MAYIS	31	6.7
ANADOLU	31	6.7
DICLE	26	5.6
HACETTEPE	20	4.3
NIGDE	15	3.2
ANKARA	13	2.8
9 EYLUL	11	2.4
CUKUROVA	10	2.2
KTU	10	2.2
MUGLA	10	2.2
BALIKESIR	9	1.9
INONU	8	1.7
MARMARA	8	1.7
PAMUKKALE	8	1.7
18 MART	5	1.1
AIBU	5	1.1
CUMHURIYET	5	1.1
ERCIYES	5	1.1
FIRAT	5	1.1
SAKARYA	5	1.1
100.YIL	4	.9
ULUDAG	4	.9

Name of University	F	%
AKU	3	.6
CBU	3	.6
MERSIN	3	.6
AKDENIZ	2	.4
HARRAN	2	.4
ISTANBUL	2	.4
KAFKAS	2	.4
KIRIKKALE	2	.4
KOCAELI	2	.4
MAEU	2	.4
MKU	2	.4
ODTU	2	.4
SDU	2	.4
TRAKYA	2	.4
AMASYA	1	.2
AMU	1	.2
BASKENT	1	.2
BILKENT	1	.2
BOGAZICI	1	.2
EGE	1	.2
GAZIANTEP	1	.2
GOP	1	.2
KIRGIZISISTAN	1	.2
ZKEU	1	.2