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An Examination of Pre-service ELT Teachers' Sense of Self-efficacy, Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Knowledge as Constituents of Teacher Identity Construction

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(Doctoral Dissertation)**

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June, 2016

Declaration

I hereby declare and confirm on my honour that the report entitled “An Examination of Pre-service ELT Teachers’ Sense of Self-efficacy, Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Knowledge as Constituents of Teacher Identity Construction”, which I have presented as a doctoral thesis, was written by myself without resorting to any assistance contrary to ethical scientific conduct or values, and that all sources which I have used and cited are those contained in the References.

Date. 20 /06/2016





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Certification

We hereby certify that the report prepared by Müge KARAKAŞ and presented to the committee in the thesis defence examination held on 20th June 2016 was found to be satisfactory and has been accepted as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Foreword

This doctoral dissertation has provided new horizons for me. As an individual I learned to observe the life and events deeper and became more forbearing. I believe it contributed so much to my personal growth. I would like to express my deepest gratitude first and foremost to Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN, my supervisor, who has supported me with his experience and knowledge, I admire so much, at all the stages of my study. Without his profound guidance and valuable advice, this dissertation could not have been successfully completed.

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Abstract

An Examination of Pre-service ELT Teachers' Sense of Self-efficacy, Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Knowledge as Constituents of Teacher Identity Construction

This dissertation investigated pre-service ELT teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence (EQ) and teacher knowledge in search of constituents of teacher identity in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University English Teacher Education Department in Turkey.

The study implemented mixed method design for data collection. The study was longitudinal in nature, data collection took five semesters. A total of 207 students participated in the study. The study collected the quantitative data through Turkish version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TTSES), Bar-On (1997) emotional intelligence inventory, Cambridge teacher knowledge tests and the qualitative data through semi-structured interviews. Following a sequential explanatory mixed methods approach, data were first analysed quantitatively and relevant evidence was sought in the qualitative data to explain the findings. Students' achievements were measured by marks for individual courses in their transcripts.

The data revealed that before taking the field courses, performing micro teachings, completing the school experience and teaching practice courses pre-service teachers' English language teachers sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge was lower.

The findings suggested that the pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge was developmental in nature. After completing the teaching practice Pre-service ELT teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge levels grew higher. Overall findings indicated that teaching experience had

an important impact on pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge in teacher identity shaping.

This dissertation presents the findings regarding the changes in pre-service ELT teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge in shaping of foreign language teacher identity in a particular English Teacher Education Department in Turkey. It is assumed that other departments and language curriculum designers can benefit by modifying and adapting the findings of the study and implement the sense of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in the practicum courses in a wider context in Turkey and other countries.

Key words: Emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, teacher identity construction, teacher knowledge.

ÖZET

İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Yabancı Dil Öğretmeni Kimliklerinin Oluşumunda Öz-yeterlilik, Duygusal Zekâ ve Mesleki Bilgilerinin İncelenmesi

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart üniversitesi İngiliz dili eğitimi anabilim dalında yürütülen bu çalışma hizmet öncesi öğretmen adaylarının yabancı dil öğretmeni kimliğini ortaya çıkaran unsurlar olarak öz-yeterlilik, duygusal zekâ ve öğretmenlik bilgisini araştırmıştır.

Çalışma veri toplama için karışık metot desenini kullanmıştır. Çalışma boylamsal olduğundan veri toplama süresi 5 akademik yarıyıl sürmüştür. Çalışmaya 207 öğretmen adayı katılmıştır.

Nicel veri Türkiye bağlamına uyarlanmış öğretmen öz-yeterlilik ölçeği, duygusal zekâ envanteri ve Cambridge öğretmenlik bilgisi testleri ile toplanmıştır. Nitel veri ise yarı yapılandırılmış mülakat ile toplanmıştır. Ardışık açıklamalı karma metot desenini kullanarak, veri öncelikle nitel olarak analiz edilmiş ve sonrasında nicel veriyi destekleyen ve bulguları açıklamada kullanılmak üzere nitel veriler kullanılmıştır. Öğrencilerin başarı durumları ise her birinin şahsi not dökümleri ile ölçülmüştür.

Bulgular, alan derslerini almadan, mikro-öğretim denemeleri yapmadan, okul deneyimi ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerini tamamlamandan önce öğretmen adaylarının öz-yeterlilik, duygusal zekâ ve öğretmenlik bilgisi seviyelerinin düşük olduğunu göstermiştir.

Alan dersleri, mikro-öğretimler, okul deneyimi ve öğretmenlik uygulaması dersleri tamamlandıktan sonra öğrencilerin öz-yeterlilik duygusal zekâ ve öğretmenlik bilgisi seviyelerinin yükseldiği görülmüştür.

Çalışmanın genel bulguları öğretmenlik uygulaması dersinin öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen kimliklerinin oluşumunda öz-yeterliliklerinin, duygusal zekalarının ve öğretmenlik bilgilerinin gelişiminde büyük etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir.

Bu tez, Türkiye’de belli bir İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümündeki yabancı dil öğretmeni adaylarını kimlik gelişimine ait bulguları sunmaktadır. Yabancı dil öğretmenliği kimliğini destekleyen öz-yeterlilik, duygusal zekâ ve öğretmenlik bilgisi kavramlarının Türkiye’de ve diğer ülkelerde daha geniş bağlamda ele alınması diğer bölümlere ve müfredat programcılarına fayda sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Duygusal zekâ, öğretmenlik bilgisi, öz-yeterlilik, öğretmen kimliği oluşumu.

TO
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Abbreviations

ELT- English Language Teaching

FL - Foreign Language

HEC - Higher Education Council (Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu)

IATEFL – International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

MoNE - Ministry of National Education

OSS - Student Selection Examination

SPSS – Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TESOL - Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

TKT Teacher Knowledge Test

UCLES - University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate

YDS -Foreign Language Examination

YOK - Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu (Higher Education Council)

Chapter I: Introduction

Introduction

This chapter starts with the problem statement followed by the purpose and significance of the study. The assumptions, limitations of the study and definitions are presented subsequently. Discussion of the existing literature concerning teacher sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge are also included in this chapter.

Problem Statement

The issue of teacher identity attracted many researchers' attention as they concentrated how much/well the teacher's personality traits and skills contribute to student learning. The concept is new and interesting and seems to be useful in improving learning and teaching from the teachers' side.

In mainstream education, research on teachers' professional identity has grown and become a distinct area of inquiry recently (Beijaard et al., 2004). A review of recent literature draws attention to the importance of identity in teacher education (Freese, 2006; Hoban, 2007; Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf, and Wubbels, 2001; Olsen, 2008; Sachs, 2005; Bukor, 2011; Elsheikh, 2012; Jewett, 2012). However; defining teacher identity seems to be complex and there does not seem to be a consensus among scholars on how to identify teachers' professional identity. In the field of identity definition given by Gee (2001) is one of the most practical one who outlines four ways to view identity. These are labelled as nature, institution, discourse and affinity identity.

When literature reviewed; it can be seen that most of the studies have been carried out with novice or in-service teachers. Pre-service teachers seem to be ignored in this respect. Pre-service teacher period is salient, in which students undergo a change in identity as they complete the courses and semesters of teacher education. Since the study will take place at an ELT department; as the researcher, whether; as the institution, we contribute to the

development of foreign language teacher identity has attracted my attention and decided to write my dissertation on the subject. Gee (2001) also drew the researcher's attention to the contribution of the institution in identity construction.

Purpose of the Study

To define the teacher identity the personal and professional lives of general education pre-service and in-service teachers have been investigated (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999; Day, 2002; MacLure, 1993). In the field of L2 education, Varghese et al. (2005) argue that primarily we should understand teachers' the professional, cultural, political and individual identities to understand language teaching and learning. Keeping this in mind, this study seeks to examine the relationships between teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, professional knowledge and field work courses in teacher identity construction of pre-service teachers.

Since teacher knowledge and identity have traditionally been investigated separately this study will attempt to bring them together and will try to show the relationship between teacher identity and knowledge which will constitute one dimension of identity construction.

The study will also examine how teacher sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and field work courses contribute and collaborate in identity construction. Pre-service teachers' perceptions' on the contribution of field work courses' in teacher identity construction will provide a different point of view on the subject. To do this following research questions will asked.

RQ 1: Does experience in teaching practice influence self-perceived self-efficacy?

RQ 2: Does experience in teaching practice influence emotional intelligence of teacher candidates?

RQ 3: Does experience in teaching practice influence teacher knowledge (Lesson Planning skills) of teacher candidates?

RQ 4: Does experience in teaching practice influence teacher knowledge (Classroom Management skills) of teacher candidates?

RQ 5: Is student teachers' self-efficacy related to their emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge test scores?

RQ 6: Is student teachers' self-efficacy related to their course marks?

Significance of the Study

There is much to be gained from a greater understanding of teacher identity, particularly how it relates to English Teacher Education and what is meant when one says, "I'm an English teacher candidate." Examining the relationships between the constituents in teacher identity construction and deepening the issue of contribution and collaboration of them in identity shaping process is a valuable tool for teacher educators.

In a review of literature, Beauchamp et al (2009) found that despite the wealth of research, there remains a need to more effectively address identity in teacher education.

Luehmann (2007) argues that teacher education must look beyond the building of teacher knowledge and address the development of professional identity if it hopes to have any impact on curricular reform. "Learning the 'skills' of teaching and disciplinary content, although important, is not enough to create a happy and successful secondary school teacher" (Alsup, 2006, p. xiii). To keep the initial spirit alive in their future career and keep them in the profession we need to bring issues of identity into the methods (Alsup, 2006, p. xiii).

Assumptions of the Study

Conducting a research study requires to consider some points such as research participants, data collection instruments, and duration of the study. In this study, as voluntary participation is significant, the participants' verbal consent was taken. It is, therefore, assumed that their answers to the interview question were sincere.

The instruments used were internationally known ones. Their validity and reliability were tested and accepted, further information about the reliability and validity of the instruments can be found in chapter III methodology section. Thus, it is assumed that the data collection instruments were reliable and valid and appropriate for the participants and research purposes of the study.

Lastly, the duration of the study is considered to be adequate to gain insights into the impact of the teaching experience course on pre-service English language teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge in foreign language teacher identity construction.

Limitations of the Study

Investigations into shaping of teacher identity are just beginning to be part of the language of teacher education. As in any new area of study, several limitations in the research design make it difficult to make far-reaching generalizations about the potential implications of this research.

First, since the concept of identity is multifaceted in nature this study had a chance to focus on limited variables such as; sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and the teacher knowledge.

Second, the sample size of this study was limited because of the voluntary participation of undergraduate language teaching students. These methodological shortcomings limit the generalizability of the findings to the population of Turkish EFL pre-service teachers who do not resemble the subjects of this study. Therefore, the primary recommendation for future research will involve larger samples, with more diverse participants recruited from wider institutions. Not only pre-service teachers, but also in-service language teachers should be included.

Third, the study was carried out at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University ELT department, further studies should be extended other FL departments and also it may be productive if the study was applied on in-service teachers as well.

Fourth, this study used two self-report questionnaires to investigate emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. A potential limitation relates to the nature of these self-report instruments. They measure perception and some learners may not have an accurate understanding of their own competence or construct (Ciarrochi, Chan & Bajgar 2001). Therefore, it might have been better to complement the results through triangulation of data collection such as interviews and classroom observation.

Definitions

The study explored foreign language teacher identity development of pre-service teachers in relation to sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge. Definition of the terms may be helpful to the reader.

Teacher identity. Changes and results of the investigations in the field of teaching have underlined the importance of the teacher in the classroom. The teacher' role has changed from the rule teaching personality to learning facilitator or guide. The concept of teacher identity has become another important issue in teaching. Similarly, Olsen (2008) drew attention to the importance of teacher identity and research.

Being a foreign language teacher is different from being a teacher. They are like bridges between Turkish and the British culture. Their identities are multifaceted and in continuous transformation because of training, educational and professional experiences and the teaching context. The use of English language in international contexts and as a globalizing force adds to the complexity and multifaceted dimension of EFL/ESL teachers' identity. Language teacher identity is an evolving subject of interest in research on language

teacher education and teacher development. Unfortunately, the ways in which teacher identity is theorized has received little attention.

Nunan (1989) explained that classrooms are complex places, unfortunately they had been considered to be simple settings in which cause–effect models of teaching methodology took place. This is one of the important outcomes of classroom-based research.

Naturally, classrooms have become research realm where the teacher plays a huge role thus; the teacher became the focus of research attention.

Working definition of identity for the study. Identity as a concept is a complex one therefore, there is much to understand. Reaching just one complete definition of identity seems to be impossible. Different researchers gave different definitions of identity. For example, MacLure (1993) defined identity as an organizing element in teachers' professional lives and a resource to explain themselves in connection with others. Barrett (2008) and Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2005) identified teacher identity as a dynamic construct and stated that it has significant effects on teachers' development and performance. Likewise, Sachs (2005) refers to identity as a dynamic concept. He states that professional identity is the core of the teaching profession and provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas.

According to Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004), professional identity is not something teachers have but something they practise to make sense of themselves as teachers. Nguyen (2008) and Varghese (2005) defined learning to teach as primarily a process of professional identity construction rather than knowledge acquisition. Identity is something constructed in a formally evaluated education process.

Singh and Richards (2006) stressed the importance of pre-existing identities of pre-service teachers during the education period and the effects of teacher education leading to

positive changes. It may be concluded that pre-service teachers already possess a teacher identity and it is developed in interaction with the environment.

It can be briefly stated that teacher identity is not something that is stable and still. It is shaped and reshaped through experience.

The concept of teacher identity employed in this study corresponds to the definition according to Sachs (2005), who defines identity as a dynamic concept. Professional identity is the core of the teaching profession and provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas. The study also underlines the importance of teacher education programmes in teacher identity construction as proposed by Nguyen (2008) Varghese (2005) and Singh and Richards (2006).

Sense of self-efficacy. After the emergence of social cognitive theory sense of self-efficacy became prominent. To Bandura (1986) self-efficacy is a construct that combines social and psychological areas of life. It is about individual's own evaluation of his/her capabilities to organize and complete action. When the concept is limited to teacher efficacy it refers to teachers' belief and judgement which involves how well they can affect student learning and their skills to perform certain actions to attain a task. This is justified by Dembo and Gibson (1985) and Tschannen-Moran (1998). Their studies reported the influence of a person's previous successes and failures. Successes or failures in teachers' professional lives may define different types of teachers such as; teachers with high teacher efficacy and low teacher efficacy. Ashton and Webb (1986); Allinder (1994); Riggs and Enochs (1990); and Riggs (1995) studied teachers with high and low efficacy beliefs.

Ashton and Webb (1986) stated that teacher's efficacy beliefs have been shown to affect teacher activity, effort, level of aspiration, and the goals they set and productivity. High teacher efficacy appears to be associated with other desirable characteristics. Allinder (1994) outlined that teachers with a strong sense of efficacy tend to exhibit greater levels of planning,

organization, and enthusiasm. Riggs and Enochs (1990) found out that teachers with high sense of self-efficacy spend more time teaching in subject areas where their sense of efficacy is higher. Riggs (1995) declared that teachers tend to avoid subjects when efficacy is lower.

Emotional intelligence. Social Cognitive Theory emphasized the role of emotions as internal events that counterparts psychological subsystems including physiological responses, cognitions, and conscious awareness in individual's life. Schwarz and Clore (1983) pointed up that emotions convey meaning about relationships. Emotions are inescapable parts in human relations. Since teaching and learning has an important place in this kind of relationship emotions are significant in the classroom.

Researchers like, Salovey and Mayer (1990), and Mayer and Salovey (1997) took emotional intelligence as an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships. Depending on the emotions reasoning and problem-solving may be easier. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them. Emotional intelligence is rich in nature. Different researchers developed different assessment models for emotional intelligence. The major ones are Bar-On (1997) Goleman (1998) and Mayer-Salovey (1997).

Teacher knowledge. Pre-service teachers are equipped with theory and some limited practice at universities. How much or how well they acquire the knowledge has been investigated rarely. The importance of teacher knowledge needs to be taken into consideration for effective teaching. Researchers categorized teacher knowledge as content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge, and support knowledge.

Day (1993) defines teacher knowledge or professional knowledge as a set of experiences and activities by which the pre-service teachers develop knowledge of the future career. These set of experiences and activities include pre-service teachers' experiences in

which they develop knowledge, they received in theoretical courses at the faculty. In between, there are various activities that may allow the learner to develop knowledge closer to one end or the other. Micro-teaching and observation can be given as examples of such activities where the learner may develop knowledge about teaching. Unfortunately, micro-teaching is not same as teaching in a real classroom with real students. Observation of a foreign language classroom provides pre-service teachers opportunity to become a part of an actual class with real students. It can be concluded that different activities may facilitate different type of knowledge about teaching.

Classroom teaching is of great importance for pre-service teachers. Wallace (1991), termed the knowledge developed from classroom teaching as experiential knowledge and the knowledge developed from sources at the other end of the continuum can be thought of as acquired or received knowledge.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized in five chapters. The first one is the introduction chapter and it focuses on problem statement, purpose, significance and the limitations of the study. Then it introduces some necessary definitions which are the cornerstones of the study. Lastly organization of the dissertation is given.

The second chapter is the review of literature. The chapter gives detailed information on the constituents of the teacher identity, starting with the concept of identity, narrowing it down to the teacher identity. Then; the chapter introduces the constituents of teacher identity of such are sense of self-efficacy, self-efficacy measurement instruments and the research on teacher self-efficacy. The chapter moves on to the second construct; emotional intelligence in detail. The chapter concentrates on the history and models of emotional intelligence and concludes with the research on emotional intelligence. Lastly; chapter two, gives a detailed

account of teacher knowledge, bases of knowledge, models of foreign language education and the research of teacher knowledge.

The third chapter is the methodology chapter. The chapter aimed to give a detailed explanation of the methodology pursued. The chapter firstly; introduced the aims, research questions and the methodological framework of the study. Secondly; research design of the study was presented in detail. Thirdly; detailed information about teacher education system and the foreign language teacher education system in Turkey was given. Lastly; setting and participants, materials and instruments for data collection were defined. Following this, procedures for data collection and data analysis of the study were introduced.

The fourth chapter is the findings chapter. This chapter presented findings from the analysis of the data and provided relevant evidence in seek of answers to the research questions.

The fifth chapter is the discussion, implications and the conclusion section of the study.

Summary of the Chapter

The introduction chapter firstly, presented the problem statement, purpose, significance assumptions and limitations of the study.

Secondly; important definitions that are crucial in the study are given. The next chapter is the literature review chapter.

Chapter II: Review of Literature

Introduction

This chapter explores the concept of teacher identity. To do this a broader concept of identity is initially examined and summarized. Teacher identity then is examined in relation to general terms of identity. The chapter further reviews the constituents of teacher identity. Of such constituents relevant to this study are teacher sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, teacher knowledge and achievement.

The Concept of Identity

Identity as a Long-existing Concept. As the title mentions identity is a long existing concept and there are various definitions of it. Many researchers in the field of education have been influenced by descriptions of identity given by academics such as, Erik Erikson and, Lev Vygotsky and George H. Mead (Beijaard et al., 2004; Bullough et al., 1992; Nias, 1989). An individual with an identity exists in a society and culture in which social experiences are crucial to create a link between self and the society. Different researchers such as, Erikson (1968), Vygotsky (1978) and Smith-Lovin (2002) emphasized the importance of society in identity formation. Erikson (1968) commented that one's sense of the self is not a simple entity. It is made up of cultural values, social contexts and settings

Vygotsky (1978) defended the construction of personal identity in society. He emphasized the exchange between individual development and social origins and suggested that identity is socially constructed.

Smith-Lovin (2002) attempted to explain identity via Mead's (1934) symbolic interaction theory. There were three assumptions in their identity definition as follows; individuals act toward each other in terms of the meanings they have for those individuals;

meanings are derived from social interactions; and people manage and transform meanings of their social worlds through an interpretive process

As mentioned earlier in the section the concept of identity is not a new phenomenon. It is not a recent idea in that and has been influenced by developments in philosophy (e.g. Blackburn 2008; Block 2007; Taylor, 1992). For example; Taylor (1992) pointed a connection between personal identity and the Enlightenment philosophy and traced it through in the Romantic individualism of the nineteenth century to the development of psychoanalysis associated with Freud (see Taylor, 1992 for further details).

In the twentieth century as a result of developments in sociology man's inner self in psychoanalysis left its place to sociological accounts of identity in which individuals were located in society. Inner self on its own was not enough to have an identity or self unless it was located with respect to others. This view gave way to emergence of theory of Structuralism (Giddens, 1979; Giddens, 1984; Giddens, 1987; Layder, 1994; Burkitt, 1991) which stresses that elements of human culture must be understood in terms of their relationship to a larger system or structure. This overarching system or structure is composed of elements such as gender, race, ethnicity, nationality, migration, and language (Block, 2007). The aim of Structuralism may be briefly summarized as to discover the structures all the things humans do, think, perceive, and feel.

Complex structure of identity. The concept of identity affords a complex structure in that one's identity is often thought to be shaped by one's personal properties including his/her race, ethnicity, nationality, gender, social class, language, sexuality, and religion (for further details see Block, 2006a). Such a complex structure of one's identity is usefully illustrated by Kiernan (2008) by referring to a shape of an inverted triangle. This can be seen in Figure 1 below.

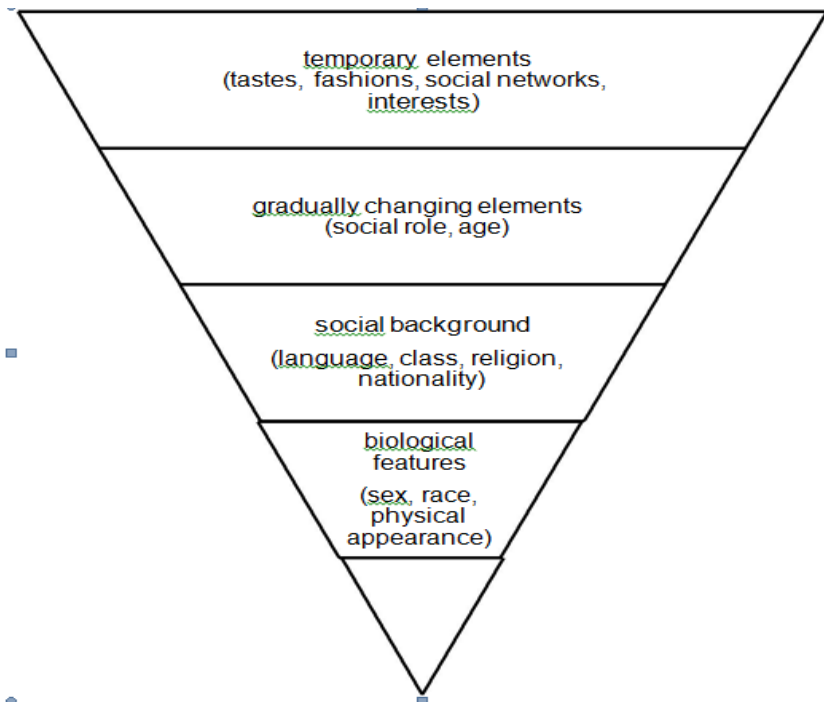


Figure 1. Elements of identity (Adapted from Kiernan, 2008, p. 14).

A structuralist analysis of the constituents of one's identity is not without its critics. Benhabib (2002, p. 8), for example, criticised such an analysis that treats elements of identity as discreet entities. Rather she asserts that such a structure needs to be examined from a broader perspective which she names as "mosaic models of identity". This broader perspective is embodied in poststructuralist /post-modern accounts of identity. (e.g. Bauman, 1996; Giddens, 2000; Hall & du Gay, 1996).

A modernist or post-modernist definition of identity was given by drawing differences between two types of identities by Bauman (1996). The first one is fixed to group identities in the past whereas the second one is open continuous change. He asserts that they coincide alongside in the modern world and identity questions are essentially products of modernity.

In the modern world having an identity and belonging to a group is a problem to be solved. Identity questions are born out of uncertainty and result from the insecurities which arise from introspection (Bauman, 1996). Introspection or reflexivity seems to be an important element to understand the modern world. Giddens (2000), comments that the self

becomes a project that is remade and constructed by the one who controls his/her past and shelter the future. These remade identities are shaped by individual reflexivity that finds its counterpart in institutional reflexivity. In modernism there is an increasing interconnection between globalizing influences and individual nature which he calls as extensionality and intentionality. Reflexivity, in a sense, is about the individual, since structuralism placed the man in society discourses are of great importance in shaping identity. The man exists in a society and communication is provided through discourse.

Hall and du Gay (1996) point the importance of discourse in identity construction. Hall (2000) justifies that the identities are constructed within discourse. Similarly, Pavlenko (2003) pointed to the importance of classroom discourses in identity construction.

Social categories have also been included in the formulation of one's identity. Butler (1988) and Weedon (1987) included sex and sexuality as one such category.

Butler (1988) suggests that gender is not a stable identity; it is created in time, through imitated repetition of acts. Gender is established through the stylization of the body and must be understood as the ordinary way in which bodily gestures, movements, and enactments of various kinds constitute the image of a continuing gendered self.

Weedon (1987) for example stresses the importance of biological features such as sex and sexuality are heavily overlaid with social discourses. He supports Foucault's thesis that they are "practices in which systematically form the objects of which they speak" (Foucault, 1972, p. 49).

Multidimensional nature of identity has also been discussed by Gee (2001) who suggested that identity is multifaceted, one's identity may change depending on the context the person is in but the person still has a core identity. The multiple forms operate across different contexts. Gee (2001) labels them as nature-identity, institution-identity, discourse identity, and affinity-identity.

A review of literature shows researchers; such as Beijaard et al., (2004), Coldron and Smith (1999), Huber and Whelan (1999), Kashima (2002),Kegan (1982), Kelchtermans (1993), Mesmer, (1998), Sachs (2001), Samuel and Stephens (2000), Van den Berg (2002), Volkmann and Anderson (1998), Wenger (1998), and Zembylas (2003) investigating identity resonate with three common points of Erikson's, Vygotsky's, and Mead's theories of identity.

These common points state that identity is a constantly changing concept; a process of re-negotiating self in time; and the process is affected by society.

This brief review of the nature and constituents of the concept of identity show that it will not be incorrect to state that identity is an on-going process of social experiences, in which how we make sense of these experiences, and how we construct our own meaning of the experiences. Then, one's professional identity can be part of this multifaceted and ever developing structure. The next section deals with the concept of teacher identity.

Teacher Identity

The notion of identity has been studied in several fields such as philosophy, developmental psychology, sociology, social psychology and economics (e.g. Noonan, 2007; Bernstein & Olsen, 2009; Bosma & Kunnen, 2008; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). As can be seen identity as a concept is multifaceted in nature thus attracted many researchers' attention from different disciplines. It is difficult to offer a well-defined definition.

Various studies have attempted to organize existing views on the concept of identity. For example, Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004), and Deschamps and Devos (1998) pointed to a discrepancy between a social and a personal identity that has grown out of the work of Mead (1934). Mead (1934) and Deschamps and Devos (1998) and Doise (1998) stress the influence of the environment in the development of the self.

Deschamps and Devos (1998) state that personal identity is what makes you similar to yourself and different from others. The term others; in Deschamps and Devos (1998) is used to define one's individual's personal traits.

The definition used by Doise (1998) is more detailed and includes the portrayal of a personal identity in a social context. He described identity as a social representation in a field of symbolic relationships between individuals and groups.

The concept of teacher identity has so far attracted a considerable amount of attention by scholars in the field of teacher education.

The nature of identity has been introduced as being multifaceted earlier in the chapter, thus different researchers studied different dimensions of identity. For example; second language identities attracted the attention of Block (2007), language, identity and ownership were studied together by Norton (2000), and the construction of identity was by Maeda (2004); Clarke (2005) and Trent (2010).

In social theory identity has appeared as a key term which deals with what an individual is and how individuality is achieved (Clarke, 2005). It has also attracted attention in in many fields of social thought including both English Language Teaching (Block, 2007; Norton, 2000) and teacher education (Simon-Maeda, 2004; Trent, 2010).

As well as an increasing amount of attention a multitude of different types of research studies have also been conducted to explore the teacher identity for instance; Bullough (1997), Connelly and Clandinin (1999), Knowles (1992), and Kompf, Bond, Dworet, and Boak (1996). What appears to be transparent in both descriptions of the concept of identity and its constituents is that the concept itself proves difficult to easily define and elements of which are many. In some studies, just as, Knowles (1994), and Nias (1989) identity is related to teacher self-concept and in other studies, such as Goodson and Cole (1994), and Volkmann and Anderson (1998) on professional identity, and the professional roles.

An Elevated Interest in the Concept of Identity. The field of teacher education has witnessed a recent increase of interest in what constitutes teacher identity. In so far as the number of studies is increasing, concepts investigated in relation to teacher identity are also diverse.

Duff and Uchida (1997) and Olsen (2008) investigated identity from a sociocultural perspective and classroom practices through teacher generated stories to clarify themselves and their teaching lives.

Some other researchers studied identity as a concept described by metaphors that may enlighten the concept from a teacher's point of view.

A different group of researchers attempted to define identity in relation to professional development (e.g. Hunt, 2006; Leavy McSorley & Bote, 2006), whereas others investigated what creates teacher identity (e.g. Freese, 2006; Hoban, 2007; & Olsen, 2008; Varghese, 2001).

Identity as a concept is a complex one; as a result there is much to understand to reach an understanding in the field of teacher development. The studies mentioned above support the idea that recent literature draws attention on to identity.

To MacLure (1993) identity is an organizing element in teachers' professional lives and a resource to explain themselves in connection with to others. It seems that reaching a full understanding of the important aspects of identity and the ways in which they are related can be stimulating.

The Structure of Teacher Identity. The nature of teacher identity attracted discussions on how teachers come to construct their professional identity and its constituents. Of such discussions Constructivist point of view appears to be tenable one.

From the constructivist point of view teacher education has to view teachers as someone with the ability to theorize about their practices and practice their personal theories

instead of describing them as passive technicians who apply others' theories (e.g. Griffiths, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Wallace, 1995).

Student teachers should not be viewed as blank pages to be filled with knowledge and skills of teaching. Freeman and Johnson (1998) underpinned pre-service teachers' prior experiences and personal beliefs. With this new understanding researchers attempted to investigate teacher related issues such as teacher cognition, teacher beliefs (e.g. Freeman, 1996, 1998; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Woods, 1996), and, especially in the last decade, teacher professional identity (e.g. Kiernan, 2008; Nguyen, 2008; Singh & Richards, 2006; Tsui, 2007).

From this perspective one's professional identity (i.e. teacher identity) is a by-product of complex processes in which teachers make sense of themselves as teachers and how they define their professional roles (Lasky, 2005). Such perception is likely to impact on one's professional conduct and development. Studies conducted by Barrett, (2008); Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson, (2005), for example, identified teacher identity as a dynamic construct and stated that it has significant effects on teachers' development and performance.

From a socio-cultural perspective, learning to teach is primarily a process of professional identity construction rather than knowledge acquisition (e.g. Nguyen, 2008; Varghese, 2005). Singh and Richards, (2006) stressed the importance of identities of pre-service teachers available with them in education period and effects of it in teacher education that leads to positive changes. It may be concluded that teacher identity exists with the pre-service teachers and developed in interaction with the environment.

Constituents of identity seem to be difficult and complicated to identify. They also reflect the multifaceted nature of the identity itself. Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004) carried out a systematic investigation of literature about teacher professional identity between 1998 and 2000 and their findings emphasized four features of professional identity.

Firstly; professional identity is an on-going, dynamic process. Secondly, implies both person and context. Identity may be shaped by the context in which the teachers are likely to think and perform professionally. Thirdly; as Beijaard and Verloop (2003) defined within a teacher's professional identity there are sub-identities.

Lastly; they stated that professional identity covers the concept of agency which means being active in the process of professional development and learning in accordance with a teacher's goals. This element of professional identity formation seems to be in line with constructivist view of learning. This view supports that learning, both individual and in collaboration, takes place through the activity of the learner. Teachers can exercise agency while trying to pursue their goals.

According to Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004), professional identity is not something teachers have but something they practise to make sense of themselves as teachers. Similarly, Coldron and Smith, (1999) highlight that teachers explain and justify their professional identity in relation to other people and contexts.

Sachs (2005) refers to identity as a dynamic concept. He states that professional identity is the core of teaching profession and provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas.

It can be briefly stated that teacher identity is not something that is stable and still. It is mediated through experience. This view of identity not only informs its importance in the profession, but also draws attention to the multiple dimensions of identity. The multiple dimensions may include both the personal and professional aspects of identity. The identity research proved itself to be important in the field.

The Importance of Identity with Pre-service Teachers. It seems that most of the work has been carried out on in-service teachers. Since this study deals with pre-service teachers it may be appropriate to focus on identity work with pre-service teachers. Graham and Phelps (2003)

stated that an understanding of pre-service teachers' identities is of critical importance. The research on pre-service teachers may provide projection into their future professional life to understand how different experiences may impact their identities and provide an idea about the challenges to their identities they may face throughout their careers before they face them. Actually, pre-service are on a journey to discover their teacher identity.

The pre-service teacher's images of self-as-person and self-as-teacher will determine how he or she interprets new information and experiences. The earlier concept of teacher education considered the process as a series of obtaining skills and has been changing to recognition that learning to teach involves an understanding of the complex personal and interpersonal dynamics involved in becoming a teacher (Mclean, 1999). The image of, self, is a determining factor in identity and identity in turn influences self-images. Danielewicz (2001) states,

Becoming a teacher is an identity-forming process whereby individuals define themselves as teachers and are viewed by others as teachers. (Danielewicz, 2001,p. 3)

As they create their identities, pre-service teachers are also working through the complicated processes involved in learning to teach as they begin to connect theory with practice.

Professional identity provides a framework for teachers that make it possible for them to construct their own ideas about how to be a teacher and how to understand their work as educators. When a teacher answers the question, "Who am I?" s/he identifies her beliefs, values, and attitudes toward how children learn. In the current education system as a result of obligations, standardization and directives, teacher identities are more and more formed and regulated by others outside the field of education. Graham and Phelps clarify that others include legislators and some boards of education. It may be questioned whether teachers have genuine opportunity to have their own identity. Thomas and Beauchamp (2007) criticized that

without acquiring their identity, educators are open to having others assign identities to them. From this point of view Sachs (2001) suggests that the new identity will be written by someone else.

The constantly changing role of teachers along with increasing demands and expectations being placed on them are also noted by Graham and Phelps (2003). Teachers' decisions about teaching are restricted as they are required to use compulsory programs of instruction. Danielewicz (2001) also drew attention to the importance of a teacher's understanding of her own identity by stating that one may not become a good teacher after acquiring all the theories of methodology. To become a good teacher, pre-service teachers need to engage in identity.

The authors above focused their attention on the importance of identity work. The next section will give information about teacher identity research.

Research on teacher identity. As mentioned earlier teachers' professional identity has emerged as a new research area (e.g. Block, 2007; Bukor,2011; Castaneda, 2011; Clarke, 2005; Freeman, 1996, 1998; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Lerseth,2013; Norton, 2000; Simon-Maeda, 2004; Soren, 2013; Trent, 2010; Woods, 1996).

The concept of professional identity has attracted interest of various researchers in many fields, such as, Khapova, Arthur, Wilderom and Svensson (2007) in information technology, Pratt, Rockmann and Kaufmann (2006), in medicine, and Mather, McEwen and Maiman (2001) in the legal profession.

However, as Beijaard et al. (2004) reported most research in this area has been carried out within the field of teaching and teacher education. Studies in the field of teacher education have mainly stressed what affects teacher professional identity and its development (e.g. Aelterman & Vlerick, 2009; Coldron & Smith, 1999; Hamman, Gosselin, Romano & Bunuan, 2010; Schepens,). To clarify what this concept means, several researchers have drawn

attention to the definition of identity. Since identity has been described as multifaceted the research related to it had various perspectives (e.g.; Gaziel, 1995; Knowles, 1992; Paechter & Head, 1996; Sugrue, 2005; Volkmann & Anderson, 1998). Beijaard and Verloop (2003) reviewed the literature on teachers' professional identity and stated that it can be categorized in three groups: as the studies on teachers' professional identity formation (e.g. Arpacı, 2015; Knowles, 1992; Öztürk, 2015; Sugrue, 2005; Volkmann & Anderson, 1998;), the characteristics of professional identity (e.g. Bozoğlan, 2014; Gaziel, 1995; Paechter & Head, 1996; Sayar, 2014) and teachers' stories that represented professional identity (e.g. Connelly and Clandinin, 1999; Elbaz-Luwisch, 2002; Kiernan, 2008, Yavuz, 2015).

Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) identified following overlapping issues common to investigation in teacher identity as the connection between identity and self, emotions, stories and discourse, reflection, link between agency and identity, and the responsibility of teacher education programmes to shape identity construction for developing teachers.

The authors note that different researchers offer differing reasons for why teacher identity matters. Some use it as a frame or analytic lens to examine teaching, others use it as an organizing element for professional lives, and still others, as a resource for teachers to explain, justify or understand themselves in world.

Current research on teacher identity explores a number of differing approaches for understanding this process. For example, some examinations involve looking at the central role emotions play in the development of teacher identity via emotional discourses (Zembylas, 2003) and the reporting out of mental states (Vasquez & Urzua, 2009). Some others examine how teachers use narrative (Britzman, 2003; Watson, 2006, 2007) and metaphor (Alsup, 2003, 2006) to perform and construct their identities. Others explore how previous perceptions and beliefs about teaching impact pre-service teacher identity (Friedrichsen et al, 2008) via

reflection (Walkington, 2005) and performance (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008; Stillwagon, 2008).

Day et al., (2006) pointed that a teacher's identity provides her with a sense of purpose and motivation and creates self-efficacy and job satisfaction, it has serious consequences for teacher practice, education and research.

Many studies have investigated how competing discourses impact new teachers' sense of self (e.g. Britzman, 2003; Jackson, 2001; Marsh, 2002a, 2002b; Seifert, 2004) and examined better ways to design teacher experience and curricula to aid in identity development (e.g. Alsup, 2003, 2006; Franzak, 2002; Kim, 2003).

A different group of researchers studied identity as it relates to teaching dilemmas and conflict (Enyedy et al., 2005; Jackson, 2001), identity-as-narrative (Sfard & Prusak, 2005; Tatsis, 2011), the impact of co-teaching (Gilmore et al., 2009), and ways that identity relates to the sociocultural discourses of specific subject matter (Barty, 2004) and reform (Leuhmann, 2007).

There are varying opinions and interpretations of what we mean when we talk about teacher identity and more specifically, about which factors are more influential in the process of constructing it. However, one constant issue in research on teacher identity is the understanding that identity is formed by internal and external relationships, which in turn shape and are shaped by a wider, sociocultural or collective teacher identity (Barty, 2004).

This collective identity is deeply tied to biases teachers first bring to the profession based on a lifetime of experiences in the classroom as a student. Many researchers have used identity as a framework to explain how the discourses of a student's past have greatly influenced their teaching selves as they learn to become teachers. Thus, in the process of becoming a teacher, pre-service teachers must become aware of these biases and reflect on the

external and internal discourses that work to shape teacher identity, individually and collectively (Barty, 2004).

Summary of Teacher Identity

This chapter explores the concept of teacher identity. Firstly; the concept of identity has been introduced. The concept of identity is a long-existing context which has been shaped and reshaped by changes in philosophy, psychology and anthropology. The studies in these fields described identity as having a multifaceted nature that proposes a kind of person within a specific context. According to it, one has a core identity with multiple forms of this identity that operates across different contexts.

Secondly, the structure of identity has been described. Identity has a complex nature that may be shaped by one's personal properties such as race, ethnicity, gender, nationality, social class, language, sexuality and religion.

Thirdly the chapter, concentrated on the interest in teacher identity and considerable amount of research in the field of teacher education. Because of the multifaceted nature of identity different researchers studied different dimensions of identity such as, identity formation, emotions and identity, job and life experiences, professional development, what constitutes teacher identity, and contextual factors on teacher and their practice.

Following this, the chapter focused on the identity discussed through constructivist and social-cultural perspectives.

Finally, the chapter briefly mentioned about the importance of identity research with pre-service teachers and research on teacher identity.

The next chapter explores the constituents of teacher identity in general and with specific reference to teachers of English as a foreign language.

Constituents of Teacher Identity

Introduction

This section will focus on the constituents of teacher identity of which are sense of self efficacy, emotional intelligence and the teacher knowledge. Since the study is investigating the interaction or interconnectedness of sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge in teacher identify construction it may be helpful to introduce these constituents in detail.

Teacher identity has a complex nature thus; it has various components such as teacher sense of self-efficacy, emotions, emotional intelligence, teacher knowledge, beliefs, prior beliefs of about teaching, self, personal identity, and social identity. This study will adopt sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge as constituents that may have an influence in teacher identity construction.

Teachers with higher sense of self-efficacy (e.g. Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Zimmerman, 2000) may be more inclined to implement new methods and techniques in their classes. They spend more time and effort in struggling difficulties. The study emphasizes the importance of self-efficacy in pre-service teacher development period.

The foreign language classrooms are the places where the most of the time is spent in interaction between the teacher and students and students and students. This points to the significance of interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships in which the control of primarily one's and respectively others' emotions is of great importance. The study highlights the importance of controlling emotions in teacher education. If the teacher has the knowledge of control of emotions then he/she may teach it to the students. The knowledge of emotional intelligence may create better atmosphere for teaching and learning. As a result pre-service teachers' self-efficacy may rise in teacher identity construction (e.g. Hassan, Jani, Som,et.al., 2015; Penrose, Barry & Ball, 2007).

This study aims to investigate whether teacher knowledge develops in teacher education period. Most of the studies in the field attempted to explore teacher learning (e.g. Borg, 2003; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Putnam & Borko, 1997) what seems to be lacking is what happens to the received knowledge in teacher education period especially after receiving the teaching practice course.

Self and Identity

The previous section of the study explored the concept of identity and teacher identity and showed that because of the multifaceted nature of identity reaching a consensus on just one definition was nearly impossible.

Self-efficacy is one of the constituents that may have an effect on identity formation. For this reason a clearer definition of self and identity may be helpful. Research studies showed interconnectedness between the two concepts (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Borich, 1999; Freese, 2006; Hamachek, 1999; Lauriala & Kukkonen, 2005).

It is not always possible to delineate self and identity from the other because of the close connection between the two. Identity construction for teachers, firstly, requires an understanding of the self, then a notion of that self within a classroom or a school, through an examination of the self in relation to others. For example; Lauriala and Kukkonen (2005) identify identity and self-concept as the same. They stated that both identity and self-concept are stable and dynamic at the same time and presented a model of self-formation with three dimensions with a dynamic interaction. The first one is the current or the actual self, the second one is ought self or the self-recognized by society as the goal, and the last one is the ideal self or the one that is set by the individual for achievement. The importance of self-knowledge as a step to a teacher's successful practice was proposed by Hamachek (1999). Obviously, this perspective places a focus on the more personal aspects of the individual self.

Other dimension of the self that is mentioned in the literature is the professional dimension which is the professional identity or the teacher identity. Rodgers and Scott (2008) explored the concepts of self and identity. They distinguished between the external aspects and internal aspects of identity formation. Additionally, Lauriala and Kukkonen (2005) give the following definition of self in relation to identity:

Self, then, might be thought of as the meaning maker and identity as the meaning made, even as the self and identity evolve and transform over time. The self in its completeness, however, remains unknowable... (Lauriala & Kukkonen, 2005, p.200)

Rodgers and Scott (2008) summarized that; self includes identity/ identities and will be understood as a developing still coherent being. It is consciously and unconsciously constructed, and is reconstructed, in constant interaction with the cultural contexts, institutions, and people.

Wenger (1998) creates a relation between the personal and professional self of a teacher. According to him, identity is the negotiated experience of self. The self cannot exist on its own it requires a community membership, has a learning route, combines different forms of membership within an identity, and assumes participation in local and global contexts.

Highlighting the meaning of self and identity was important for the study since one of the investigated constituents was self-efficacy. The next section will focus on teacher sense of self-efficacy.

Sense of Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a product of Social Cognitive Theory. Bandura (1986) explained that self-efficacy is a construct that combines social and psychological areas of life. It is about individual's own evaluation of his/her capabilities to organize and complete action. These evaluations are described to be affected by a person's successes and failures in the past. These

are so valuable because they may serve as messages about individual's successes and failures and may become crucial alternatives in people's choices.

This theory suggests that people are capable of human agency, or intentional pursuit of courses of action. Bandura (1977) clarifies that this agency operates in a three dimensional mutual causation process in which our agency results in future behaviour. These include environmental influences, our behaviour, and internal personal factors. Bandura emphasized the interaction between the behaviour, and the factors related to the person and the environment. According to him the three factors has an effect on each other. This theory is supported by Bursal (2008), he underlined the importance of the personal factors when investigating human behaviour. Under the umbrella of Self-efficacy Theory, Bandura (1977) proposed efficacy and outcome expectancies, to explain the motivation in behaviour changes.

Efficacy expectancy relates the individual's own belief about his ability on the effort desired to spend and the choice of activities or settings desired to participate whereas outcome expectancy relates the changes in behaviour as depending on an individual's estimation of effort required by the outcome. Bandura (1977) argued that simply identifying the behaviour required by the desired outcome is not sufficient. One should reach the understanding and confidence of the ability respond to this behaviour.

In conclusion self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief /confidence about his or her capabilities to execute a specific task within a given context. A given context here refers to the profession or the work of the individual.

On the other hand, Satjkovic and Luthans (2002) noted that employees with low self-efficacy are likely to cease their efforts in advance and fail on the task. In other words as Soodak and Poddle (1996) stated, the efficacy/confidence one has that behaviour will lead to outcomes, together with the confidence one has in one's ability to perform the behaviour, determines one's actions. Within the context of teaching; when the process is applied the

workplace refers to teachers and teaching. The next section will mention about the teacher sense of self-efficacy.

Teacher Sense of Self-efficacy

Teacher sense of self-efficacy is a multifaceted concept with two different dimensions; as personal and professional ones. Personal dimension of efficacy has been corner stoned by Tschannen-Moran et al., (1998) who said that teacher sense of self-efficacy involves the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context. Dembo and Gibson (1985) supported the professional dimension of efficacy underlining that teacher efficacy refers to the extent to which teachers believe they can affect student learning.

As stated earlier in the chapter, one's behaviour is influenced by the individual's beliefs by outcome expectations and efficacy expectations. Coladarci (1992) exemplifies the outcome expectations as illustrated by the teacher who believes that skilful instruction can balance the effects of a disadvantaged environment.

In contrast, an efficacy expectation would be reflected by the teacher's confidence that he or she personally is capable of such instruction, that the individual possesses personal agency with respect to the task of pedagogy.

Ashton and Webb (1986) revealed that teacher efficacy beliefs have been shown to affect teacher activity, effort, level of ambition, and the goals they set and productivity. High teacher efficacy appears to be associated with other desirable characteristics.

A group of researchers like Cousins and Walker (2000), Guskey (1988), and Stein and Wang (1988) expressed that teachers with higher efficacy judgments tend to be more open to new ideas, more willing to experiment with new methods to better meet the needs of their students. Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1982) stated that teachers with high efficacy have confidence in themselves and their teaching skills they don't give up easily if they face

student failure conversely since they have positive expectations for student behaviour and achievement; they put their responsibility in practice for student learning and apply suitable strategies for achieving objectives. Another research carried out by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) was in line with the findings of Ashton, Webb, and Doda (1982).

These studies show that beliefs are crucial in taking responsibility, in determining the way teachers understand and organize instruction, bringing about the desired outcomes of student engagement and learning. Efficacy is likely such a belief. Once the teachers gain personal and professional confidence the positive results become visible in teaching practices. Bandura (1993; 1997) highlighted that perceived efficacy creates a suitable learning environment and also helps the choice of different tasks to facilitate student learning.

Efficacy beliefs influence teachers' determination when things deviate in the classroom and also it is related to the adaptability of teachers when they confront setbacks (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). A greater sense of efficacy enables teachers to be less critical of students who make errors (Ashton & Webb, 1986), to work longer with a student who is struggling (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), and to be less inclined to refer a difficult student to special education (Meijer & Foster, 1988; Soodak & Podell, 1993).

As stated in social cognitive theory, teachers with lower success expectations with a group of students would spend less effort with students and give up as the difficulty appears without practicing strategies. Self-efficacy may serve as confirming beliefs either of capability or of incapacity. Social cognitive theory provides guidance about possible sources of teachers' sense of efficacy and proposes four sources which are mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal, and points the mastery experiences as the most powerful source in fostering efficacy.

Mastery experiences or performance accomplishment, proposes that success tends to strengthen beliefs in one's efficacy whereas failures tend to weaken them.

Vicarious learning experiences, which may be named as modelling as well, underlines the influence of observation in one's evaluation of his/her own abilities performing the same task.

The third type of source is verbal persuasion. When people receive realistic appraisals from their significant others, which Bandura (1997) exemplifies as evaluative feedback, in the form of verbal persuasion, regarding their accomplishments, individuals seem to strengthen their beliefs on the capabilities they have to achieve what they want.

The last source of efficacy is the physiological arousal which can be found in the form of mood, stress, and subjective threats and affects people performance.

Teacher self-efficacy attracted many researchers attention and they attempted to construct different instruments to measure teacher efficacy. The next section will introduce different instruments used to evaluate teacher efficacy in detail.

Teacher Efficacy Measurement Instruments

The research to measure teacher efficacy has attracted so many researchers' attention. Researchers have tried both long, detailed measures and short, general ones to assess sense of self-efficacy. As a result in the field there are various measurement instruments.

Major efficacy measurement instruments are The Rand measure, responsibility for student achievement (RSA) measure, teacher locus of control (TLC), the Webb scale, Ashton vignates, Gibson and Dembo's teacher efficacy scale (TES), brief eclectic measures, Bandura's teacher efficacy scale, the Ohio State teacher efficacy scale (OSTES) and the Turkish version of sense of self-efficacy scale. The various measurement instruments attempted to evaluate teacher self-efficacy. Unfortunately, because of the multifaceted nature of efficacy belief some of them were too narrow or specific. Two of the instruments were widely accepted and used by the researchers which are Bandura's teacher self-efficacy scale and the Ohio State teacher efficacy scale (OSTES).

Bandura (1997) aimed to contribute to teachers' efficacy beliefs without becoming too general or specific. He constructed a 30-item instrument with seven sub-scales including; efficacy on decision making, school resources, instructional efficacy, disciplinary efficacy, parental involvement, community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate. Each item is measured on a 9-point scale.

As has been mentioned before, efficacy as a concept is very complex. Developing an appropriate measure for teacher efficacy has proved to be challenging. The problem with the instruments was lack of balance between precision and generalization. Participants in a seminar on self-efficacy in teaching and learning in the College of Education at The Ohio State University attempted to design a new measure. The group examined the suitable formats, in the end, the group decided on a measure based on Bandura's scale. They created the scale with an expanded list of teacher capabilities. They had over 100 items which were overlapping and similar to each other. All the items were pooled and the group reached a consensus on frequently repeated areas of teaching. After the evaluation of the items 52 items were generated to assess the full range of teaching tasks and capabilities. A 9-point scale was used for each item, with anchors at 1-nothing, 3-very little, 5-some influence, 7- quite a bit, and 9- a great deal. The OSTES, was examined in three separate studies by Tschannen-Moran and her colleagues. In the first study, the original item number was reduced to 32 from 52 and finally, the scale was reduced to 18 items with three subscales. In the third study, 18 additional items were developed and tested. The resulting instrument had two forms, a long form with 24 items and a short form with 12 items. Finally, the factor structure, reliability, and validity of the new measure was examined, as well as the appropriateness of the new scale for both pre-service and in-service teacher populations. Both long and short versions of the efficacy scales could be accepted as a reliable and valid instrument for assessing teacher

efficacy. Both versions supported the three factor model with high sub-scale reliabilities (ranging from 0.87 to 0.91 for longer version and 0.81 to 0.86 for shorter version).

Turkish Version of Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy. All these attempts to measure teacher sense of self-efficacy took place around the world. For the Turkish context an instrument designed to assess efficacy beliefs of teachers has not been available in Turkey. Bearing this in mind, Çapa, Çakıroğlu and Sarıkaya (2005) attempted to adapt OSTES to Turkey setting. If the statistical findings could result in demonstration of validity and reliability of scores obtained by using a Turkish version of TSES, the use of TSES with Turkish pre-service teachers would be encouraged.

Their aims were; describing the development of a parallel Turkish version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). The scale was translated into Turkish and piloted with 97 pre-service teachers. The scale included 24 items and three sub-divisions. Each sub-division composed of 8 items. The first sub-division was efficacy; for instructional strategies, the second was for classroom management and the third was student engagement.

A cronbach alpha value of. 82 indicated high reliability for the whole scale constituting of 24 items. The Cronbach alpha value of Turkish pre-service teachers for instructional strategies was. 86, whereas it was. 84 for classroom management and. 82 for student engagement (Çapa, Çakıroğlu & Sarıkaya, 2005). Detailed information about TTSES can be found in the Methodology chapter.

Research on Teacher self-efficacy

In the field of education teacher self-efficacy perceptions have attracted a lot of interest of many researchers. Researchers like Goddard, Hoy and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) have found links between student achievement and three kinds of efficacy, the self-efficacy of students, Pajares (1996), Ross (1992), Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) , the sense of efficacy of teachers, Dembo and Gibson (1985), Ashton and Webb (1986) and Tschannen-Moran and

Woolfolk Hoy (2001) the collective efficacy of schools. Additionally, Midgley, Feldlaufer, and Eccles (1989) studied student motivation related to sense of self-efficacy and Anderson, Greene, and Loewen (1988) students' own sense of efficacy.

A growing body of research shows that teachers' sense of efficacy is connected to different variables such as commitment to teaching, attitudes towards instructional strategies, student academic achievement. Following are some examples of related research studies. Coladarci (1992) studied teachers' commitment to teaching, Swars (2005), Eslami and Fatahi (2008) investigated attitudes towards using innovative instructional strategies, Ashton and Webb (1986), Caprara, Barbranelli, Steca and Malone (2006) and Tella (2008) explored students' academic achievement, and Guskey and Passaro (1994) inspected motivation. Shechtman (2002) and Topkaya and Yavuz (2011) examined the effects democratic values and beliefs of teachers on teacher effectiveness.

Several investigations in different fields of work, many of which focused on pre-service teachers, have been implemented in Turkey. In these studies self-efficacy has been scrutinized with respect to sexual category, academic success, and problem solving skills (e.g. Altunçekiç et al., 2005; Çapri & Çelikkaleli, 2008; Morgil, & Seçken 2004; Umay, 2001; Üredi & Üredi, 2006;).

In the field of English language teaching, still, studies on self-efficacy beliefs are not rich enough. On the subject, there are three unpublished doctoral dissertations (Shim, 2001; Chacón, 2002; Lee, 2009; Yough, 2011), a master's thesis (Ortaçtepe, 2006) and a few journal articles (Chacón, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008; Lee, 2009; Yavuz, 2007;).

Ortaçtepe (2006) carried out an investigation with professional English teachers and informed high correlations between the dimensions of self-efficacy and overall self-efficacy. Furthermore, the study revealed that in-service training programme boosted the efficacy beliefs of the English teachers.

In his study, Chacón (2005) and Eslami and Fatahi (2008) found that teachers with high levels of English proficiency had higher levels of self-efficacy. On the contrary Shim (2001) found no significant relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and their language skills. These contradictory findings point to a need for more research in this field.

Most of the studies focused on the relationship between sense of self-efficacy and English language proficiency skills of pre-service teachers. There is a lack of studies on pre-service English teachers' efficacy perceptions. More studies should be implemented to gain insights on the efficacy perceptions of teacher candidates.

Çakır (2005) conducted a study on 1st and 3rd grade pre-service English language teachers in a distance-education programme. The study investigated the relationship between participants' gender and sense of self-efficacy. The findings of the study revealed no significant difference between the two variables. Göker (2006) inspected teacher candidates' instructional skills and efficacy beliefs in a peer coaching training programme. The study concluded that such a programme may have an effect and can be used to expand self-efficacy.

As could be seen in this literature review, self-efficacy perceptions of pre- and in-service teachers of different subject areas have been investigated. Self-efficacy as a concept is rich in nature and may be studied with regard to different variables.

Summary of Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy

This chapter explores the constituents of teacher identity in detail. The first constituent is the concept of teacher sense of self-efficacy. Firstly; the concepts of self and identity have been introduced. These concepts have been described to be interconnected to each other and it is not always possible to delineate one from the other. There two possible dimensions to describe self and the identity. Personal aspects of the individual self refers to the personal dimension of the self, whereas the professional dimension refers to the professional identity or the teacher identity.

Secondly; the concept of sense of self-efficacy has been described. Self-efficacy is described in the framework of the Social Cognitive Theory. It has been introduced to be composed of efficacy expectancy and outcome expectancy.

Thirdly; teacher sense of self-efficacy and the sources of efficacy have been presented. Following this, the chapter explored teacher efficacy measurement instruments in a historical timeline.

Finally, the chapter briefly mentioned about the research on teacher self-efficacy. The next chapter explores another constituent of teacher identity; emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence

Introduction

This section will focus on emotional intelligence. In most of the cases teaching involves personal interactions in crowded classes with pupils who are frequently energetic, spontaneous, immature and pre-occupied with their own interests. As a teacher one may find it difficult to cope with such students and needs to be careful about the differences in student behaviour and keep them engaged in the lesson as much as possible. Nias (1996) pointed to the importance of emotions of human interaction in teaching and its emotional dimension.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotion is the least investigated aspect of research in teaching. Zembylas (2005) draws attention to this and states that emotion is the most often mentioned concept as being important and deserving more attention. Emotional intelligence is the ability of individuals for understanding the present feelings of themselves and feelings of others. This ability may enable people to understand the feelings and thoughts of people they communicate.

Emotions are the keys for the interpersonal relationships therefore have an important part in human life. In a classroom setting teacher and student relationship is of great importance to facilitate learning. Researchers like Certel, Çattıkkaş and Yalçınkaya (2011)

stated that individuals with an awareness of emotions may better control them, and can understand others' emotions and may be happier and more successful. This attitude to emotions boosted the significance of emotional intelligence as a concept.

Bay and McKeage (2006) summarized that emotional intelligence is primarily the ability to help understand and control the emotions of oneself and others in order to foster intellectual and emotional development. Doğan and Demiral (2007) study supported Bay and McKeage (2006) and they pointed that emotional intelligence entails showing empathy, being aware of nuances, recognizing and evaluating own and others' motives, and being able to control emotions, timely and properly in different conditions. Cooper and Sawaf (2010) highlighted that emotional intelligence provides a system for values and meanings during the development and termination process of our lives as well as our careers. It is clear that emotional intelligence is a relatively recent behavioural model and gained importance with Daniel Goleman's 1995 Book called 'Emotional Intelligence'. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions. They further explained that the scope of emotional intelligence includes the verbal and non-verbal appraisal and expression of emotion, the regulation of emotion in the self and others, and the utilization of emotional content in problem solving.

Recent years saw an accumulating body of evidence from research on emotions indicating affective phenomena constitute a unique source of information for individuals. Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, and Mayer (2000) highlighted this information is helpful about their surrounding environment, and provides knowledge about their thoughts, actions, and subsequent feelings (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, & Mayer, 2000).

Earlier; emotions could not receive the appropriate attention of researchers for being considered by philosophers and scientists as inferior to reason. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) stated that this was primarily because emotion was considered to be working against reason to bias accurate judgement and decision making. Emotions are internal events that manage psychological subsystems such as physiological responses, cognitions, and conscious awareness. Emotions naturally arise in changing relationships. Bower (1981) exemplified this as follows, a person who has happy childhood memory may find that the world brighter and feel happier.

Schwarz and Clore (1983) stated that emotions carry meaning about relationships. In the frame of relationships emotional intelligence refers to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and to reason and solving problems. Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Salovey and Mayer (1990) commented that emotional intelligence is related to the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them.

On the other hand Zembylas (2003) claimed that reason and emotion are co-dependent because our reasoning depends on emotional choices.

To Hargreaves (1998) the situation is not different in teaching and learning practices that are deeply surrounded by emotional experiences. Discussing professional identity requires an understanding of how emotions guide our professional practices and decisions.

As can be seen from the various attempts to define emotional intelligence, it has a complex nature; therefore, cannot be defined easily and there is no single definition. The concept of emotional intelligence attracted many researchers attention. The next section will give a brief history of emotional intelligence.

History of Emotional Intelligence. Emotional intelligence stems from Thorndike's (1920) social intelligence. The theory underlined the importance of the ability to understand and manage people and to act sensibly in human relations.

Rozell, Pettijohn, and Parker (2006) declared that, Thorndike's highlighted emotions were a different type of intelligence. Although, Thorndike (1920) pointed to the place and importance of emotions, unfortunately, the idea of social intelligence, its definition, and complete investigations were neglected for many decades.

Decades later, Abraham Maslow (1950) reconsidered emotions and reported how people could enhance their emotional, physical, spiritual, and mental strengths. Gardner (1983) used it as the roots for multiple intelligences which have become more evident in the concepts of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. According to Gardner (1983) every individual acquires knowledge and skill in different ways, through different modes. His theory of multiple-intelligence includes seven areas which are, linguistic, musical, spatial, logical-mathematical, bodily-kinaesthetic, inter and intra personal intelligences. He emphasizes that inter and intra personal relationships form the basis for the construct of emotional intelligence (Gardner, 1998).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first researchers who attempted to propose the first model and definition of emotional intelligence. Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey (1990) also carried out the first relevant empirical studies. After the publication of Goleman's (1995) influential book, *Emotional Intelligence*, the construct became popular and strongly influenced most subsequent scientific theory of emotional intelligence. Thus, following the model proposed by Salovey and Mayer, and especially after Goleman's best-selling book, many models of emotional intelligence emerged. The next section will introduce models of emotional intelligence.

Models of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence focuses attention on capabilities of people in relationships in daily life. Earlier psychologists like Thorndike (1921), and Guilford (1956) explored it within the field of social intelligence and offered the idea as a single concept. More recent psychologists like Bar-On (1992, 1997), Salovey and Mayer (1990), Goleman (1998), valued its complexity and portrayed in terms of multiple capabilities. Since it encompasses multiple capabilities different researchers investigated different dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Gardner (1983) studied emotional intelligence with respect to intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. Salovey and Mayers (1990) argued that emotional intelligence joins a set of conceptually related psychological processes; such as, the appraisal and expression of emotions, involving the processing of affective information assimilation of emotions in thoughts, understanding emotion, and the regulation and management of emotions (Mayer and Geher, 1996; Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Mayer, 1990, 1994). A review of the literature focusing on the models of emotional intelligence allows different classifications of the construct. Table 1 below gives a comparison of the three mostly used.

Table 1

The Scales of the Three Most Popularly Used Measures of Emotional Intelligence (Adapted from Bharwaney, Bar-On, & MacKinlay, 2007-2011, p.3).

EQ-I™	ECI	MSCEIT
INTRAPERSONAL	SELF-AWARENESS	PERCEIVING EMOTIONS
Self-regard	Emotional self-awareness	Faces
Emotional self-awareness	Transparency	Pictures
Assertiveness	Adaptability	
Independence	Achievement orientation	
Self-actualization	Initiative	
	Optimism	
INTERPERSONAL	SOCIAL AWARENESS	FACILITATING EMOTIONS
Empathy	Empathy	Facilitation
Social responsibility	Organizational awareness	Sensations
Interpersonal relationship	Service orientation	
STRESS MANAGEMENT	RELATIONSHIP	UNDERSTANDING
Stress tolerance	MANAGEMENT	EMOTIONS
Impulse control	Developing others	Changes
	Inspirational leadership	Blends
ADAPTABILITY	Change catalyst	MANAGING EMOTIONS
Flexibility	Influence	Emotion management
Reality testing	Conflict management	Emotional relationships
Problem solving	Teamwork collaboration	
GENERAL MOOD		
Optimism		
Happiness		

The next section will introduce the current models of emotional intelligence with scientific models which propose a theoretical explanation of their components. Major models of emotional intelligence Mayer and Salovey's emotional intelligence ability-based model (MSCEIT), Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, the emotional competence inventory (ECI) model and Bar-On's emotional-social intelligence model.

Mayer and Salovey's emotional intelligence ability-based model (MSCEIT). As stated by Matthews, Zeidner and Roberts (2002), and Geher (2004), Mayer and Salovey's emotional intelligence ability based model is the theoretical approach that has produced the largest number of researches. The reason why it was widely accepted was that the model had solid and justified theoretical base. Matthews et al. (2002) declared that the critics of the concept contemplate Mayer and Salovey's model a genuine approach to the study of intelligence could add interesting contributions to the emotional intelligence in the field.

Emotional intelligence ability based model involves four abilities that are perception, assimilation, understanding, and regulation of emotions

These four abilities operate together and are hierarchically organized. At the basic level perceiving emotions work, at the highest level managing emotions which is the most complex one take place. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) state that the ability to regulate one's and other's emotions is built on the basis of the competencies of the three other branches.

Goleman's model of EI. Goleman (1995) made use of the term of Emotional Intelligence in his first book for the first time. He pointed to five elements of emotional intelligence which are labelled as knowing one's emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others and handling relationships. This model was created and adapted to assess the effectiveness and personal outcomes in the workplace.

Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000), and Goleman (2001) explained that the model presents four essential dimensions, which are subdivided into 20 competencies. Four dimensions are self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and relationship management. Goleman (2001) underlined that an emotional competence is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in exceptional performance at work. Goleman's proposal is based on the idea of the learned competence.

The difference between Mayer and Salovey and Goleman's proposals may be summarized as; Mayer and Salovey's emotional intelligence model represents one's potential to dominate specific emotional abilities whereas Goleman's model of emotional intelligence represents the level in which a person dominates specific abilities/skills based on his/her emotional intelligence level.

The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) Model. The emotional competence inventory model consists of 110 items. The model comprises two ways of evaluation. The first is self-reported measure in which people are asked to estimate their performance in each one of the competencies. The second evaluation is done by an external rater, such as work mates or superiors.

Bar-On's Emotional-social Intelligence Model. In 1997 another approach, a wider and more comprehensible approach to emotional intelligence than Mayer and Salovey (1997) was developed by Bar-On. Bar-On (1997) emphasized the importance of cognitive factors and emotional and social competencies and skills that determine effective understanding and expressing ourselves and others. Bar-On's emotional and social intelligence encompasses five composite scales divided in 15 sub-scales. Five scales are intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management and general mood.

Intrapersonal skills refer to one’s ability of being aware and understand his/her emotions and feelings. It is divided into the 5 sub-factors as, self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization.

Interpersonal skills refer to the ability of being aware and understanding others emotions. It is subdivided into the 3 such as empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship.

Adaptability refers to the ability of being open to change and includes the 3 subscales as reality-testing, flexibility, and problem-solving.

Stress management refers to the ability to cope with stress and control emotions and it is composed by the subscales as stress tolerance and impulse control.

Finally; general mood refers to the ability of feeling and expressing positive emotions, and being optimistic, and comprises the subscales optimism and happiness. (For an extensive review, see Bar-On, 2006). Researchers like Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) considered Bar-On’s proposals as a mixed model of EI, since it combines social, emotional, cognitive, and personality dimensions. More detailed information about inventory can be found in methodology chapter. Table below will give the description of scales and subscales and what they assess.

Table 2

The BarOn EQ-i™ Scales and Subscales and What They Assess (Adapted from Bharwaney, Bar-On, & MacKinlay, 2007-2011, p. 5)

EQ-I™ Scales	The EI Competencies and Skills Assessed by Each Scale
INTRAPERSONAL	Self-awareness and self-expression:
Self-regard	To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself.
Emotional awareness	To be aware of and understand one’s emotions.
Assertiveness	To effectively and constructively express one’s feelings and

Independence	oneself.
Self-actualization	To be self-reliant and free emotional dependency on others. To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one's potential.
INTERPERSONAL	Social awareness and interpersonal relationships:
Empathy	To be aware of and understand how others feel.
Social responsibility	To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others.
Interpersonal relationship	To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others.
STRESS MANAGEMENT	Emotional management and control: To effectively and constructively manage emotions.
Stress tolerance	To effectively and constructively control emotions.
Impulse control	
ADAPTABILITY	Change management:
Reality testing	To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality.
Flexibility	
Problem-solving	To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations. To effectively solve problems of a personal interpersonal nature.
GENERAL MOOD	Self-motivation:
Optimism	To be positive and look at the brighter side of life.
Happiness	To feel content with oneself , others, and life in general.

The next section will give information about research on emotional intelligence.

Research on Emotional Intelligence

In previous decades emotions were ignored in educational research. Teaching and learning is not concerned only with knowledge, cognition and skill. Hargreaves (1998) claims that they are also emotional practices. To Calderhead (1996) research on teacher cognition has developed since 1970's as a result of the rapid growth of research in cognitive psychology. As stated by Lewis and Haviland (1993) the expanding of psychological research on emotions began in the early 1980s.

The real appearance of the emotions on the stage dates back to late 1990s with the special edition of the Cambridge Journal of Education edited by Nias (1996) and several articles by Hargreaves (1998a, 1998b, 2000; see also Lasky, 2000). Recently; there is a growing body of empirical research on emotions in the field of teaching. These research studies have focused on different dimensions of emotions to understand the relationships among teacher's emotion, professional identity, and academic achievement.

Research on emotions pointed to the importance of knowledge of teacher emotions in understanding teachers and teaching. Mayer et al. (2000) stated that psychologists spot emotions along with motivation and cognition to be one of three vital classes of mental operations. They stated that students in the classes are influenced by teachers' emotions. For example, teachers' negative emotions such as anger may result in lower student motivation on the other hand positive teacher emotions such as caring seem to have positive effects on students by raising the level of student motivation and engagement.

A group of researchers such as Hargreaves, (2000) and Erb (2002) studied joy the teachers experience in their relationships with children, especially when the children are responsive. The researchers concluded that the teachers enjoy spending time with children in school and in extracurricular activities. Some other researchers such as Lasky, (2000); and Sutton, (2000a) explored sources of pleasure and pride. They noted that teachers feel happy

and satisfied when their former students come back to talk to them (Hargreaves, 1998b; Sutton, 2000a) and with students who cooperate and cause no major disruptions (Emmer, 1994a; Sutton, 2000a).

A different group of researchers including Hatch (1993), Erb (2002) and Lasky (2000), confirmed that teacher may have positive emotions when they get everything done, when colleagues support them, or when parents are responsible, support teachers' efforts, and respect teachers' judgment.

Other researchers carried out studies on negative emotions such as; anger and frustration which arise from sources related to goal diverts Erb, (2002); Hargreaves, (2000); and Sutton, (2000a) stated that these may arise because of students' misbehaviour and violation of rules. Other sources of anger and frustration are described to be by Erb (2002) as uncooperative colleagues and by Lasky (2000) parents who do take the responsibility to follow institutional norms of appropriate parental behaviour. Reyna and Weiner (2001) stated that teachers are also likely to have negative emotions when they believe that students' poor academic work such as laziness or inattention is due to controllable factors. For the beginning teachers a common source for negative emotion is anxiety as suggested by Bullough, Knowles and Crow (1991); Erb, (2002); Tickle, (1991). The reason for anxiety may be the complexity of learning to teach and the uncertainty of achieving goals. Erb (2002) highlighted that beginning teachers are also anxious when they interact with parents. Sutton and Wheatley (2003) stated that emotions may influence teacher cognition and teacher motivation. They claim that teachers' negative emotions are "a central component of management and discipline because they focus attention so powerfully" (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003, p. 336). These emotions may have an effect in shaping of teacher identity.

As mentioned earlier teacher identity is a complex phenomenon and has received considerable attention from scholars like Cross and Hong (2009); Day (2002); van Veen and

Lasky (2005); Zembylas (2003a, b) over recent years. Researchers implemented studies on teacher identity and investigated the role of emotions in teaching and teacher identity development. Researchers like Day and Leitch, (2001) and Hargreaves and Goodson (1996) studied the role of emotions and teachers' professional lives; Hargreaves (1998, 2000) mixed emotions and emotional practice; Kelchtermans (2005) studied teachers' emotions in educational reforms, Mok (2002) studied teacher growth, O'Connor (2008) explored teacher emotions and professional identity, Sutton and Wheatley, 2003 investigated teacher emotions and teaching and Zembylas (2003-2005) studied teacher identity and teaching with emotion.

Mok (2002) argued that the pursuit of personal values can play an important role in personal and professional growth and he further states that "personally defined values are related to physical and psychological feelings of well-being, reactions to roles, and conceptions of self" (p. 116). This area of educational research is growing and is viewed as a separate research field.

Research on emotional intelligence concentrated on the interconnectedness between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of the students. Both positive and negative findings were reported by researchers. Vela (2003), Walker (2006), Evenson (2007), Colston (2008), Olson (2008), Erdođdu and Kenarlı (2008) executed studies on university students to examine the interrelation between emotional intelligence skills and academic achievement. The researchers concluded that there was a positive relationship between emotional intelligence skills and academic achievement.

Nwadinigwe and Azuka-Obieke (2012) aimed to carry out a study on senior secondary school students to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. They acknowledged that there was a positive relationship between emotional intelligence skills and academic achievement. They emphasized that developing emotional

intelligence skills of a student would lead to the enhancement of his/her academic achievement.

Jones (2008) wanted to find out whether improving students' emotional intelligence could feed the graduate qualities. He concluded that students with higher emotional intelligence levels may be more successful in their future careers; consequently providing students with emotional intelligence training in their university education period may influence their future performance. Jaeger's (2003) study (as cited in Romanelli, Cain and Smith, 2006) reveals that levels of emotional intelligence among 150 students of a general management graduate-level course were associated with academic performance. Among these 150 students, greater relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance was found among students who were offered emotional intelligence curriculum as compared to their counterparts who did not undergo the curriculum.

Depended on the findings of this research, researchers terminated that emotional intelligence is both teachable and learnable by teachers and students. In another study involving more than 3,500 first-year students of a public university, Jaeger and Eagan (2007) found that interpersonal, stress management and adaptability to be noteworthy predictors of students' academic achievement. They claimed that ability to deal with stressful situations allow learners to manage the anxiety of tests, deadlines, competing priorities, and personal crises. Other than that, adaptability among college students identify individuals who are generally flexible, realistic, effective in understanding problematic and emotional situations, and competent at arriving at adequate solutions.

Jaeger and Eagen further concluded that in achieving college success, a student needs to have these abilities to be calm, flexible, and realistic when dealing with pressures. Likewise, Jaeger, Bresciani, and Ward (2003) also found that interpersonal skills and students' general mood were significantly correlated to high school GPA. Similarly,

Aminuddin, Tajularipin, and Rohaizan's (2009) study examining emotional intelligence level among 223 Form One and Form Four students in rural areas reveal findings that also support the influence of emotional intelligence on academic achievement. They found that the emotional intelligence is closely related to the students' academic achievement. Bar-On (2005), recognized the influence of this non-cognitive ability in the success of a student's life.

Low, Lomax, Jackson and Nelson (2004) assert the importance of emotional knowledge, skills, and intelligence in education and add that it may be beneficial in helping students, teachers, faculty, and student development professionals attain higher degrees of achievement, career success, leadership, and personal well-being.

Richardson and Evans (1997) have conducted study on emotional and social aspects of teaching and found the students who were connected with other students proved to have sound emotions and personal achievement. Abi Samra (2000), conduct a study on the relationship of emotional intelligence and academic achievement, it uncovered that the students with high grade point average were emotionally more intelligent as compared to those who have lowest grade point average.

On the other hand some other researchers like Yılmaz (2007) and Diken (2007), and Olatoye and Ademola (2010) reported that that there is statistically no significant relationship between academic achievement and emotional intelligence level of students and total scores of emotional intelligence.

Summary of Emotional Intelligence

This chapter explored the concept of emotional intelligence. Firstly; the concepts of emotion and emotional intelligence have been introduced. The studies in the field described emotions and emotional intelligence as complex and multifaceted in nature. Secondly, the history of emotional intelligence has been described. Thirdly the chapter, concentrated on the models of emotional intelligence. Because of the multifaceted nature of EQ different researchers

Figure 2 above introduces that, at one end of the continuum experiences that allow the learner to develop knowledge as a result of teaching take place. Schon (1983) refers to these experiences as knowledge-in-action. At the other end, the sources of knowledge that generally consist of lectures and readings take place. In between these two ends is a variety of activities that allow the learner to develop knowledge closer to one end or the other take place. In teacher education acquiring knowledge is, initially, labelled as received knowledge, and experiential knowledge later reflective model of knowledge base added when reflection gained researchers attention.

In received knowledge model, the pre-service teacher becomes familiar with the subject and the related concepts, research findings, theories and skills related to a particular profession. The theoretical side of the department courses would enable trainees to speak the target language fluently which would enable them to implement activities in the class, and to be familiar with grammatical terms, methodology approaches and so on.

In experiential knowledge model or practical experience model, the trainee will develop knowledge-in-action through practice such as (discussion, role-play, observation and micro-teaching) and have the opportunity to reflect on it. Received knowledge may operate as input in experiential knowledge. The effectiveness of received knowledge depends on how well the trainee reflects and practises them and incorporates new techniques in the following practice and re-evaluates them in the light of that practice. In this way the process of reflective practice takes place. This process is illustrated by Wallace (1991) as follows.

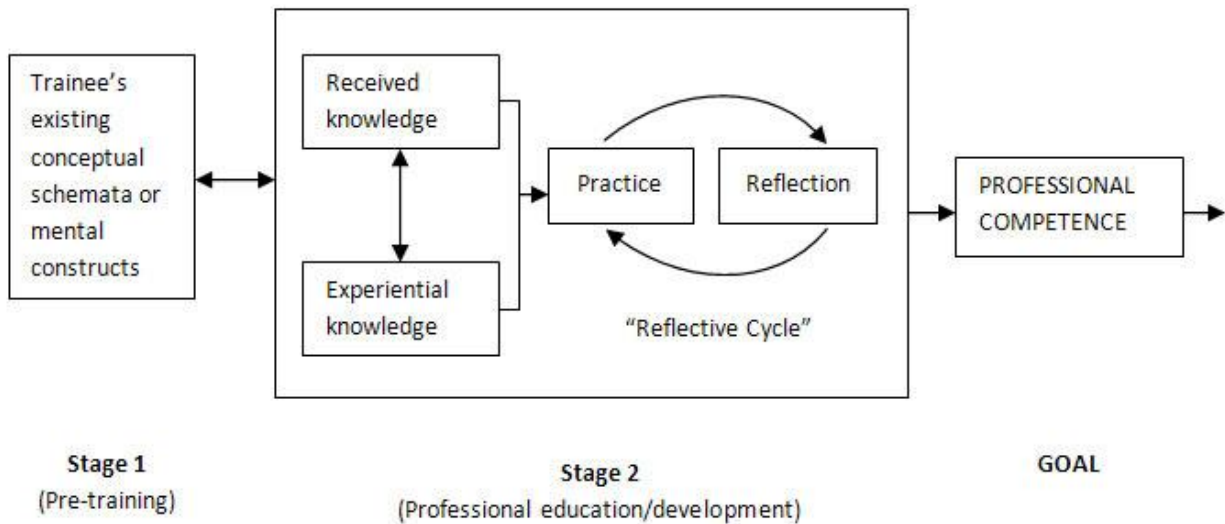


Figure 3: Reflective practice model for professional development.

After examining teacher practical knowledge the chapter will focus on teacher knowledge base.

Teacher Knowledge Base. Teacher knowledge consists of four types as content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge and support knowledge (Day & Conklin, 1992).

Content knowledge refers to knowledge of the subject matter and includes what the language teachers teach such as syntax, semantics, phonology and pragmatics, and literature and culture of the English language.

Pedagogic knowledge relates to how to teach. It provides knowledge of teaching strategies, beliefs and practices. How to teach part involves application of classroom management strategies, learner motivation and decision making, which is vital while making changes in the course in the unexpected situations.

Pedagogic content knowledge is the expert knowledge of how to introduce content knowledge to the students. On its own, knowledge of how to present knowledge in different ways, may not be enough so pedagogic content knowledge also includes individual

differences in learning and how different students comprehend the subject matter. It also includes the knowledge of difficulties learners may face in target language learning with some suggestions to overcome them.

Finally; support knowledge deals with the knowledge of the various disciplines that feeds the teaching and learning of English; such as psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, and research methods.

Models of foreign language teacher education

Pre-service programmes may deliver knowledge to their learners in different ways. Different researchers such as Day (1992) and Wallace (1991) defined them in similar ways. Day (1992) classifies them as; the apprentice-expert model, the rationalist model, the case studies model and the integrative model. Wallace (1991) categorizes them as; the craft model; the applied science model and the reflective model. The names may be different but generally they are similar to each other. This study will make use of classification made by Day (1992).

The apprentice- expert model/ craft model. This is the oldest model of teacher education model but still in use. Briefly it comprises the pre-service teacher working with an expert teacher. The knowledge is acquired through observation, instruction and practice.

In current teacher education it is used to convey knowledge within a program. It is carried out in practicum courses in which students work with classroom teachers, often called mentor teachers. It is still in use but is not appropriate for today's dynamic and technological world. Wallace (1991) criticizes the model for being static since they consider teaching as a dynamic profession.

On the other hand; Day (1992) supports model for offering a great deal to the pre-service teachers if they work an expert teacher. The definition of an ideal mentor gains importance. Day (1992) depicts the ideal cooperating teacher as an expert in all senses of the

term as one who, in addition to being experienced, is effective, skilled and up-to-date. The opportunity for students to work with such teachers can be a unique experience.

The apprentice-expert model/ craft model's advantages are two-fold. Firstly, the pre-service teachers have the opportunities to improve and practice theoretically learned pedagogic, content, and pedagogic content knowledge. Secondly, by practicing different types of received knowledge teacher candidates may transform it into experiential knowledge.

The lacking side may be whether support knowledge can be dealt with adequately through the apprentice-expert model.

The rationalist / applied science model. In contrast to the apprentice-expert model, the rationalist model helps the pre-service teacher in gaining received knowledge through various lectures, readings, discussions, and so on. In this model pre-service teachers are equipped with the theoretical knowledge which they are expected to use in teaching. Ur (1992) names this approach as the rationalist learn-the-theory-and then-apply-it model.

As Wallace notes,

The rationalist model, in his terms the applied science model is the traditional and probably still the most predominant model underlying most training or education programs for the professions... (Wallace, 1991, p.8)

This model considered teaching as a science which can be examined realistically and objectively. The results of examinations and research are transmitted to the students by specialists. Learners are considered to be taught a subject when they have been informed with the scientific knowledge. The model may seem to be a good one since it equips pre-service teachers with the findings, latest in the field but it has weaknesses as well.

The most serious problem is not providing any guidance by an expert when the students are applying the scientific knowledge they have learned in the real classrooms.

Lasley (1989) criticizes the model on not attending and providing feedback to pre-service teachers about their application of scientific content into pedagogical practice.

Similarly, Ur (1992) claims that trainees who take courses based on this model think that such courses do not help them develop professionally and the theoretical studies are of no help. To conclude it can be stated that, among four types of knowledge, the rationalist approach is the strongest source of content and support knowledge.

Unfortunately, it has limited chances for the improvement of pedagogic and pedagogic content knowledge. Day (1992) comments saying;

The students must be given opportunities to use their understanding in the ESL/EFL classroom so as to integrate theory and practice. Without such opportunities, students are denied an important aspect of their education and this approach has nothing to offer the learner in terms of classroom experience. (Day, 1992, p.7)

The case studies model. The case studies model involves the discussion and analysis of actual case histories in the classroom. The model has been widely used in disciplines like law and medicine and is not so helpful in teacher education. The objectives of this model include the generalization of particular behaviours into broader understandings of the discipline.

With case studies approach students are introduced content knowledge unfortunately, the approach provides incomplete opportunity for other types of knowledge such as; pedagogic, pedagogic content and support knowledge. The case studies model only facilitates pre-service teachers to improve their pedagogic and pedagogic content knowledge. The model does not provide chances to practice of acquired knowledge.

The integrative / reflective model. Day (1992) suggested this fourth model to polish the weaknesses of three models that have been mentioned above. He recommended this to integrate the strengths of all three models.

This model ensures that the learners acquire pedagogic, content, pedagogic content, and support knowledge. To do this critical examination, reflective practice should be included in the program.

As Schon (1991) put forward it in his work,

What we have is a "reflective turn", in which practitioners are allowed to give voice to the reasons that lie behind what they do. What this means, essentially, is that those of us in universities and other educational agencies have to grapple with a changed role for ourselves - namely, how to work with practitioners in assisting them to observe and describe what it is they do and with what effect. (Schon, 1991, p.5)

Our role, therefore, becomes one of helping pre-service teachers to make sense of experience, rather than describing them the ideal EFL teaching classroom. Being exposed to such experiences and activities does not necessarily mean that teacher candidates would become experts in language teaching at once and develop their teaching knowledge. To do this the trainees need to reflect-in-action.

Schon (1983) describes reflection-in-action as a process in which the teacher first acts, then reflects on the action, develops hypotheses which are tried out in more action. An important element in reflection has been highlighted by Zalipour (2015). He stated that reflective practice creates teachers chances to confront inconsistencies between their thinking and their practice, and make changes in their views about teaching. Ghaye (2010) lists the questions that may be helpful in reflection as follows.

Table 3

Ten Reflective Questions Ten reflective questions (Adapted from Ghaye, 2010, p.3)

TEN REFLECTIVE QUESTIONS	
Values	How should I act?
Expectations	What ought I to do?
Context	What is actually possible here?
Decisions	Is my action justifiable?
Options	Could I have done anything better or differently?
Judgement	How far was this successful?
Strength	What is worth expanding next time?
Learning	Who has learned what?
Voice	Whose voice has been heard and whose has not?
Knowledge	Whose knowledge is worth knowing and why?

Reflective practice helps teachers to reflect on their self-knowledge, professional development, student learning experience and assessment. The kind of knowledge-base that is being developed through reflective approaches is much more comprehensive. Reflective practice contributes to the self-esteem and the general mood of the participants since they are listened to more conscientiously.

The use of reflective practice may be helpful for the trainees yet at the same time it may have some disadvantages. Some of the drawbacks are labelled by Wallace (1991) as being private, lack of focus in discussion and lack of structure in the mode of speaking of reflection. Wallace (1991) comments that reflective discussion is very difficult and based on an insecure foundation.

A second problem is the lack of focus in discussion. Without primary data available to all those take part in the discussion some questions may not be answered and may be seen as an attack on the teacher's authority.

Lastly; lack of structure in the mode of articulating reflection may be problematic. Researchers like Knights (1985) and Walker (1985) drew attention on the importance of disciplined listening and writing. In one-to-one situations where the participants take it in turn to think aloud without interruption disciplined listening gains importance as stated by Knights (1985).

To overcome this problem, Knights (1985) suggested the use of a portfolio in reflection which would provide objectivity in reflection.

This section focused on models of foreign language teacher education. Next section will introduce information about the research on teacher knowledge.

Research on teacher knowledge

Research on teacher knowledge previously concentrated on process-product studies in which the mental lives of teachers were completely ignored. In these studies, the aim was to understand how teachers' actions affected student learning.

The goal of the research was to ascertain teaching behaviours that prompted higher learner achievement and, afterwards, to train teachers in these desirable behaviours. This line of research had strong criticisms since it yielded scarce generalizable results. Doyle (1990) criticized research findings for leading to a mechanical view of teaching which ignores the complexity of the teaching. Verloop and Wubbels (2000) commented that the teacher's role and functioning were ignored. These criticisms contributed to a shift in research on teaching, following the cognitive shift in research on pupil learning.

Research on teaching altered from studying teacher behaviour into studying teacher cognitions and beliefs underlying that behaviour. Freeman (2002) names this as period of

change. The new line of research (1980-1990) focused on teachers' work and their mental lives in the study of teaching. In the 1980s, there had been increasing interest in teacher learning in the field of English language teaching (ELT). These changes brought concerns in second language teacher education and in teacher development.

As a result two important professional associations, International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL) and Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), to examine second language teacher learning and development were established. Freeman (2002) stated the lack of knowledge base in teaching. Schulman (1988) explained that the knowledge-base is largely drawn from other disciplines, and not from the work of teaching itself. Researchers in the field attempted to explore the issue. The nature of teacher knowledge is rich in content thus, the researchers carried out their studies on different dimensions of the subject such as; characteristics of teacher knowledge and curriculum subject knowledge, personal practical knowledge, professional growth and global education/issues.

Grossman and Richert (1988) focused on identifying the characteristics of the knowledge involved in teaching. The researchers claimed that,

The prospective teachers' won mastery of a subject blinded them to potential student difficulties. Actual contact with students forced them to re-examine their subject matter content from a new perspective. They learned to evaluate their subject matter from the perspective of students (Grossman & Richert, 1988, p. 59).

This new perspective of subject matter knowledge for teaching has pervasive contributions for teacher education programs.

Likewise; Tamir (1991) concentrated on the subject matter and the knowledge needed for teaching it. Tamir elaborated the concept of teacher knowledge and proposed the distinction between professional and personal knowledge of teachers. Tamir concluded as follows;

The actual behaviour of a person in his or her professional field is a result of interaction between professional and personal knowledge. (Tamir, 1991, p. 265)

Tamir (1991) drew attention to the role of teacher educators as well and announced that teacher educators possess a unique kind of personal -professional knowledge and named it as teacher education pedagogical knowledge, which could be an effective way of communicating and modelling a useful teaching strategy to novice teachers.

Darling-Hammond and Sykes (2000) studied the interconnection between teacher-learning and teacher knowledge. They argued that it is difficult to understand how teachers learn without some notion of what it is they are learning.

Edwards and Ogden (1998) studied curriculum subject knowledge. The researchers concentrated the relationship between subject matter and curricular demands in the field of primary school teaching. The main findings of this study define the teacher subject matter knowledge as dynamic and evolving relative to student tasks and learning.

Another subject that attracted researchers' attention was personal practical knowledge of the teachers. There is not a consensus on the definition of teachers' practical knowledge. Borg (2003) defined teacher's practical knowledge in a general framework of teacher cognition and explained it as what teachers know, believe, and think about teaching. In the same way, Elbaz (1983) argues that teacher's practical knowledge is pre-service teachers' learning styles, interests, needs, strengths and difficulties, and a collection of instructional techniques and classroom management skills they acquired in teacher training period.

VanDriel et al. (2001) indicate that the most important characteristics of personal practical knowledge are that it is: a) action-oriented knowledge; b) person-and context-bound; c) implicit or tacit to a considerable extent; d) integrated knowledge; and e) that teachers' beliefs play a very important role in building practical knowledge (p. 142). Arioğul (2006) examined FL teachers' personal practical knowledge and the background sources shaping

their knowledge and classroom instruction and found that teachers' knowledge is fluid, always developing through personal, professional, and educational experiences. In the process of that development, the teachers adapt and readapt their practical knowledge according to the needs and expectations of their learners as well as their accumulated experience (p. 76). Tsang (2004) found that personal practical knowledge affected much of the FL teachers' interactive decisions while teaching and it informed most of their post-instruction decisions, which, in turn improved future lesson planning and teaching (p. 194). Working with ESL student teachers, Morton and Gray (2010) found that their personal practical knowledge was highly informed by dialogic mediation and discursive problem-solving generated through lesson planning conferences.

It is obvious that personal practical knowledge is of great importance in teacher education and in their professional lives. The studies above attempted to define personal practical knowledge. A different line of research placed the lens on the subject of professional growth (e.g. Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Vescio, Ross & Adams, 2008 Yee Fan Tang, 2003).

Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) investigated teacher change. They found out that teacher change is connected to growth of teacher knowledge. They concluded the influence of four domains in teacher change which are the personal domain, the domain of practice, the domain of consequences, and the external domain. The study suggested a model that links teacher action to teacher knowledge in which changes in teacher action might lead to changes in teacher knowledge and beliefs.

Yee Fan tang (2002) investigated the contribution of field experiences on the teacher knowledge. It focused on pre-service teachers' construction of teaching self in the three phases of practice, the teaching act in the classes, the interpersonal aspects of teaching and the impact of supervisors on shaping knowledge. The findings of this study revealed that

different contexts offer different sorts of challenges and support. Vescio, Ross, and Adams (2007) reviewed studies on professional learning communities. The researchers reviewed studies on the impact of professional learning communities on teaching practices and student learning. They reported that well-developed professional learning communities have positive impact on both teaching practice and student achievement.

Another research study investigated demands upon the knowledge required by teachers in the present time the 21st century. Holden and Hicks (2007) studied the demands brought by the modern times on teacher knowledge and concentrated on global education. They accept the following description of the nature of global education. They concluded that teacher education cannot be limited to the development of teachers' competencies in teaching subject matter domains in addition; it requires a more up-to-date concept of teaching and teacher education.

Summary of the relevant research

As can be seen from the examples given above research on sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge is a new and vast field and gained rapid growth after the emergence of Social Cognitive Theory.

The subject of teacher identity gained a lot of attention of researchers and still needs further investigations since the subject is multidimensional. Researchers carried out their investigations on separate subjects such as sense of self-efficacy, emotions, emotional intelligence or teacher knowledge. Identity has been identified as having a multifaceted nature that portrays a kind of person within a particular context. Identity has a complex nature that may be shaped by one's personal properties such as race, ethnicity, gender, nationality, social class, language, sexuality and religion. Because of the multifaceted nature of identity different researchers studied different dimensions of identity such as, identity formation, emotions and identity, job and life experiences, professional development, what constitutes teacher identity,

and contextual factors on teacher and their practice. Most of the studies described them to be interconnected to each other and it is not always possible to delineate one from the other. There two possible dimensions to describe self and the identity.

Personal aspects of the individual self refers to the personal dimension of the self, whereas the professional dimension refers to the professional identity or the teacher identity. Self-efficacy is described in the framework of the Social Cognitive Theory. It has been introduced to be composed of efficacy expectancy and outcome expectancy.

Emotions and emotional intelligence were other concepts that have been put under the focus which were defined to be as complex and multifaceted in nature. Because of is a nature different researchers proposed different model of emotional intelligence such as, Mayer and Salovey's MSCEIT, Goleman's EI and Bar-On's EQ-I models.

Teaching is a process of learning. This process is also important for teacher identity formation as well. Researchers like Carter (1990), Winitzky and Kauchak (1995), confirmed that teacher learning is a process of knowledge acquisition and knowledge construction.

What is lacking is a combination of the separate research areas to look for the interconnectedness of the constituents that may shape the teacher identity particularly in the fields of applied.

Chapter III: Methodology

Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology of the study on the purpose of explaining the research in detail.

First of all, the reason for choosing a mixed methods design will be clarified and the term ‘explanatory sequential design will be described from different points of view.

Secondly, in setting and participants section, detailed information about the school and the students will be given.

Next, materials and instruments used to collect data will be described in general including the issues of reliability and validity.

Finally, in data collection procedures, the researcher will give information about the research process.

Aims and Research Questions of the Study

This study attempts to examine the identity constructions of pre-service students at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University ELT department. It explores the evolution of the interconnectedness between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and professional knowledge that may have an effect in the development of teacher identity. The study also tries to highlight the level of contribution of teacher sense of self-efficacy, professional knowledge, emotional intelligence and field work courses in teacher identity construction. While doing this the study also focuses on the pre-service teachers’ perceptions on the contributions of field work courses’ and collaboration in teacher identity construction. To do this following research questions will asked.

Research Question 1. Does experience in teaching practice influence self-perceived self-efficacy of teacher candidates?

Research Question 2: Does experience in teaching practice influence emotional intelligence of teacher candidates?

Research Question 3: Does experience in teaching practice influence teacher knowledge (Lesson Planning skills) of teacher candidates?

Research Question 4: Does experience in teaching practice influence teacher knowledge (Classroom Management skills) of teacher candidates?

Research Question 5: Is student teachers' self-efficacy related to their emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge test scores?

Research Question 6: Is student teachers' self-efficacy related to their course marks?

Methodological Framework of the Study. The study aims to highlight different constructs that may have a role in shaping foreign language teacher identity. Since the subject is new in the field, there is a gap in knowledge and the number of relevant research studies related is limited.

The study firstly collected quantitative data followed by the qualitative one for five semesters therefore; explanatory sequential research design was assumed to be suitable for the study. The study was implemented in two distinctive interactive phases; the measurable data collected via the application of self-efficacy scale, emotional intelligence inventory and the teacher knowledge tests and the immeasurable data were collected through semi-structured interview.

The main purpose of the explanatory sequential design is to explain not to describe the research question under investigation. In the present study different constructs shaping the foreign language teacher identity are the focus of attention. The two-phase explanatory design can help develop results out of the first, quantitative method and can help develop or inform the second, qualitative method (Creswell, 2009).

Bradley, Curry and Devers (2009) and Morse (1991) explain that the researchers may need an explanatory design when they have qualitative data to explain quantitatively significant results. Explanatory research can also be used when the researcher wants to form groups based on quantitative results that are followed by succeeding qualitative research. The design may also help researchers to use quantitative results about participant characteristics to guide purposeful sampling for a qualitative phase.

Of course, explanatory design is not a magical design; it has both strengths and weaknesses. Creswell, Plano Clark, et.al. (2003) mentioned about the strengths of the explanatory design as follows; since it often begins with a quantitative orientation it is mostly suitable for quantitative researchers. The two-phase structure of the design makes it easy to carry out and saves the researcher time to form a research team to collect data, because the researcher conducts the two methods in separate phases and collects only one type of data at a time. The design creates chances for the researcher to emergent approaches where the second phase can be designed based on what is learned from the initial quantitative phase.

On the other hand the design has some weaknesses. Creswell, Plano Clark, et.al. (2003) denoted the weaknesses. They stated that the design is time-consuming since it requires a long time for employing the two phases and the qualitative phase takes more time to implement than the quantitative phase. When two phases are compared the qualitative phase seems to be limited to a few participants, but yet acceptable time must be spared for the qualitative phase. The researcher must decide which quantitative results need to be further explained. To dot his researchers should be very well trained about the research design and need to be experienced in implementing the design and sample and participant selection.

After keeping all the previously mentioned issues about the mixed methods it was decided that the most suitable design for the study was the explanatory sequential design. Reasons for adopting mixed methods will be given in the next section.

Research Design

In this study a mixed methods design was used. Since the study aimed to examine different constituents that may shape foreign language teacher identity and their development over the course of data collection a mixed methods research design was suitable for the study. Next section will briefly introduce mixed methods design.

Mixed Methods Design. Research designs are used for collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting data in research studies. They are useful because they guide the researchers and help to make interpretations at the end of their studies. The selection of research design should be driven by the research question(s). Studies seeking causal relationships or correlations between variables will lead the researcher to quantitative data and quantitative analysis (Morgan, 1998; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Studies focusing on description and portrayal will incorporate qualitative data and qualitative analysis. Still, others will employ a mixed methods design that combines qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis procedures.

Dörnyei (2007) identifies mixed methods study is one that involves;

The collection or analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process (Dörnyei, 2007,p: 42).

In mixed method design the researcher uses the qualitative research paradigm at one phase and quantitative paradigm for another phase either concurrently (at the same time) or sequentially (one part first and the other second). For the present study firstly quantitative (explanatory) data was collected through teacher knowledge test, sense of self-efficacy scale and emotional intelligence inventory from volunteering ELT teacher candidates. Then, qualitative (exploratory) data was collected through open ended questions via interviews. To choose the interviewees TKT test scores means were compared and the highest and lowest

marked students were invited to the interview. The interviews were conducted for three times with different participants. Then analyses were carried out and the “integrated” findings from the qualitative and quantitative parts of the study were reported. There are several reasons for employing a mixed methods design for a study. Bryman (2006) supported use of mixed methods since it provides chances to combine quantitative and qualitative research and to triangulate findings in order that they may be mutually corroborated; to balance each other’s strengths and weaknesses, to have a more comprehensive inquiry, to answer different research questions, to explain findings generated by the other, to development instruments in contexts when qualitative research is employed to develop questionnaire and scale items, and to enhance the integrity of findings.

Major Mixed Methods Designs. For a mixed methods design researcher when choosing the right design for the study interaction, priority, timing and mixing are the important decision points to have a manageable study. By doing so the researcher has a framework to implement the research design and ensure that resulting design is precise and credible. There are four basic mixed methods designs including; convergent parallel design, the explanatory sequential design, the exploratory sequential design and the embedded design (Creswell, Plano Clark, et.al. (2007)).

In the convergent parallel design, the scholar employs synchronized timing to implement the quantitative and qualitative components. The methods are arranged equally, and kept them independent for analysis and finally, mixes the results in overall interpretation of the findings (Creswell, Plano Clark, et.al. (2007)). The researcher analyses the survey data quantitatively and the focus group qualitatively and then combines the two sets of results. Figure 4 below gives the description of The Convergent Parallel Design.

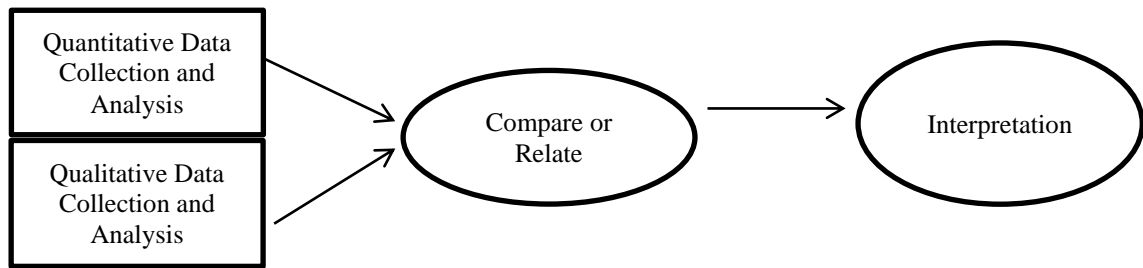


Figure 4: The convergent parallel design (Adapted from, Creswell, Plano Clark, 2007, p.69).

In the explanatory sequential design there are two distinct interactive phases. In this design quantitative data is collected and analysed first which has the urgency for addressing the study’s questions. Following the quantitative data, qualitative data is collected and analysed next. The second step is designed by considering the results of the quantitative phase. Then, the researcher interprets how the qualitative results help to explain the initial quantitative results. Figure 5 gives the description of the Explanatory Sequential Design.

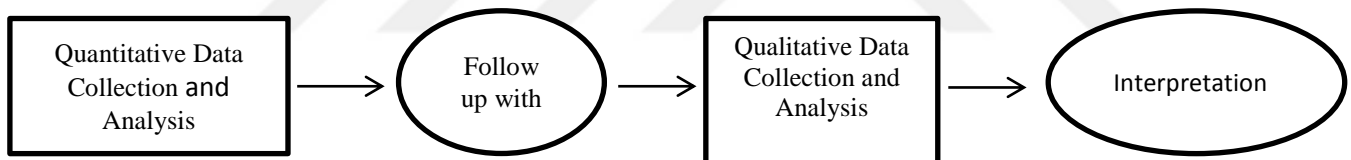


Figure 5: The explanatory sequential design (Adapted from, Creswell, Plano Clark, 2007, p. 69).

The exploratory sequential design uses serial timing like explanatory model does. In exploratory sequential design, qualitative data is prioritized. Qualitative data is collection and analysis takes place first then, depending on the exploratory results, to test or generalize the initial findings, the researcher implements quantitative phase. Then, researcher then interprets how the quantitative results build on the initial qualitative results. Figure 6 gives the description of the Exploratory Sequential Design.

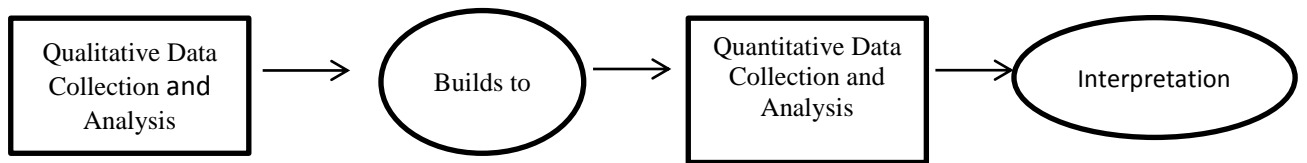


Figure 6: The exploratory sequential design (Adapted from, Creswell, Plano Clark, 2007, p. 69).

In the embedded design, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed and if a need raises the researcher may enlarge the design by adding a complementary strand such as an experiment, or a case study. Figure 7 gives the description of the Embedded Design.

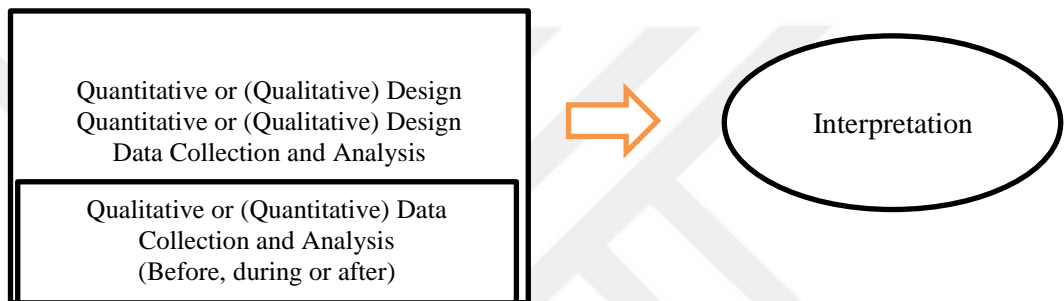


Figure 7: The embedded design (Adapted from, Creswell, Plano Clark, 2007, p, 69).

The Strengths of Mixed Methods. The benefits of the mixed method research design are many. As stated by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2006);

Because of its logical and intuitive appeal, providing a bridge between the qualitative and quantitative paradigms, an increasing number of researchers are utilizing mixed methods research to undertake their studies. (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2006, p, 484)

Mixed methods provide the ability to triangulate the data and assure its validity and level of variance can also be invaluable.

Driscoll (2007) and Migiro (2011) drew attention on the feature of complementing quantitative and qualitative data in clarifying the findings of the study.

Driscoll (2007) claimed that collecting both quantitative and qualitative data and using different processes may lead to unexpected or emergent themes and information that would not have otherwise revealed.

The Challenges of Mixed Methods. Driscoll (2007) claimed that the major challenge of mixed methods stem firstly from the control or reduction of the data, secondly, combining the two types of data and the time and resources required, and lastly sample size, money needed and duration of the study.

Lieber (2009) identified challenges in the generalizability of the data, timing of the sampling, and the difficulty in compiling and analysis of data.

It should not be forgotten that mixed methods is not the answer for every researcher or every research question. To sum up researchers need to consider research skills, time, and resources for extensive data collection and analysis. For the present study when all the issues above considered use of explanatory and repeated measures designs was suitable to reach sound findings. The next section briefly describes explanatory and repeated measures designs.

The Explanatory Sequential Design. This design attempts to explain the research question rather than describe it. Commonly, as stated by Creswell, Plano Clark, et.al, (2007) the explanatory research tests hypotheses and quantitative in nature. The data collected are analysed by statistics. The explanatory sequential design is sometimes used synonymously with experimental research. The most striking feature of the design is that it allows the collection and analysis of quantitative data at first and is by the collection and analysis of qualitative data.

The sequential explanatory strategy is a widespread strategy for researchers with quantitative tendency. Weight naturally is given to the quantitative data, and the mixing of the data occurs after the initial quantitative results obtained. Hence, the two forms of data are separate but connected.

In a sequential explanatory design follow-up data is collected to explain quantitative results. In a sense the design provides crosscheck of the findings. Morse (1991) said that, it can be especially useful when unexpected results arise from a quantitative study. Follow up data is used to examine the surprising results. Creswell, Plano Clark, et.al. (2007) reported that the main strength of the design is its straightforward nature. Straightforward refers to being easy to implement because the steps fall into clear, separate stages. This design makes it easy to describe and to report the study. Since the data is collected in two separate phases, the main weakness of this design is the length of time involved in data collection.

Teacher Education System in Turkey. Education system of Turkey has been one of the most important issues of all governments so far and many regulations have been made to improve teacher education. In 1924 all the schools were brought together under a Ministry of National Education with the Law on Unification of Education.

Deniz and Şahin (2006) reported that pre-school teacher education began in 1915, is the oldest one, even before the Republic of Turkey was established in 1923. Aydın (2007) reminded that with Darülmualimin (Teachers' School) that was opened in Istanbul on 16th March, 1948 teacher education in Turkey officially started. In 1946, the first teacher education institute was established under the title of Gazi Institute of Education. In 1973, higher education has become compulsory for all teachers. In 1981 higher education underwent a reform and in 1982 Higher Education Council (YOK) was established. 1981 higher education reform transformed all 4-year teacher training institutions and 3-year foreign language high schools into 4-year faculties of education.

New changes in Turkish education were followed with the process of integration in to the EU. Turkish education programmes started to become parallel to the trends in the European countries. This regulation has brought standardization of the teacher education curriculum. In 1998, Higher Education Council put the standardized curriculum into practice.

The faculties of education are not the only providers of teachers. After completing pedagogical course requirements (PGCE) in the faculties of education after having obtained a bachelor's degree in their field's students of the faculties of science and letters course requirements (PGCE) are also eligible to apply for a teaching position. The graduate students have to take KPSS, a two phase competitive exam, to be appointed by the Ministry of Education. This is a very short history of teacher education system in Turkey. On the field of foreign language education system the studies are very rare. The next section will give information about the foreign language teacher education in Turkey.

Foreign Language Teacher Education System in Turkey. In the history of foreign language education in Turkey there are three main periods. The history of foreign language education in Turkey starts with recognition of the introduction of English in Turkish education and its spread in the country. In 1997 implementation of a major ELT curriculum reform took place. The period corresponds to 2005 onwards when a number of changes were introduced in ELT as part of a government policy. These changes took place in response to efforts to join the EU, seeking to standardize ELT and adapt it to EU standards.

The first period in the history of foreign language education in Turkey starts with recognition of the introduction of English in Turkish education and its spread in the country. This dates back to the 18th century when the westernization studies were carried out to modify the educational system according to the advancements of the West. Thus, the involvement of the Western languages in Turkish educational programs started (Altundiş, 2006). As a result; since French was the prestigious language of the period, in 1839 Ministry of National Education (MoNE) selected talented young people sent to France to get education in French and teach the language when they came back. Tok, (2006) stated that the program was not fruitful. Then, the government decided to open a school to educate language teachers.

In 1868 Galatasaray Sultanisi was opened, which was a very important event for foreign language teacher education.

The following years saw the increase in the interest in foreign language learning. The need for English Language teachers increased as the number of students grew. Naturally, the need for an established foreign language teacher training program emerged. Güneş (2009) reported that two educational sciences institutes, Gazi Institute in Ankara and Çapa Institute in Istanbul, were founded under the title of foreign language teaching departments. Initially, there was not high demand for language teaching departments so, in 1950's governments attempted to accelerate students to choose language teaching departments.

After 1965, the situation started to change and the demand for more foreign language teaching departments increased. 4-year foreign language programs were opened in universities after 1970's. Demircan (2001) summarized that foreign language teaching departments became popular but this was an unexpected situation, initially this unexpected and unplanned situation did not result in high-quality training for foreign language teacher candidates.

Some significant changes and regulations took place and teacher education institutions were transferred into educational faculties in 1982 after the establishment of The Higher Education Institution. Demirel (1991) and Öztürk (2005) said that, teacher education in Turkey was finally standardized and institutionalized. The situation of foreign language departments changed and they became very popular among the university candidates. After completing, secondary school education, to enrol foreign language departments students take a student selection examination (OSS) and a foreign language examination (YDS). Since the demand for higher education is very high, admission to university has become competitive. In 2014, 2.068.115 applied for OSS exam but, only 922.275 students were successful and had the chance to enroll in undergraduate programs. 92.370 students took the English Foreign

Language Examination and only 3515 were placed for those who wished to register in English Language Teaching Departments (www.osym.gov.tr).

In 1997, The Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE), and the Turkish Higher Education Council made radical changes in the English language policy. The two institutions co-prepared a project that focused on a major curriculum innovation project in ELT was prepared. Atay (2007) summarized that, this project was radical one with significant changes. Along with it eight-year compulsory education system was established in Turkey. Primary school student started to study English in the 4th grade.

Kirkgöz (2005) points to the importance of 1997 curriculum in Turkish history because, for the first time, the concept of the communicative approach into ELT was introduced. The new curriculum focused on the use the target language (L2) for communication in classroom activities.

As a result of EU integration programme, in teacher education the number of credits required to graduate were reorganized and reduced from 186 to 143. The total weekly class hours was decreased to 17.9 from 23.2 which is parallel with the Education Faculties in Europe.

Another difference was in terms of the courses offered to pre-service teachers. Compulsory field courses were reviewed as well. Literature, Grammar, Linguistics, translation were replaced with general teacher education courses such as; classroom management, testing.

The third and the most important difference is about teaching practice. Yıldız (2001) mentioned that after the curriculum change the pre-service teachers are required to go to schools and experience teaching in the real environment in the fourth semester of their education which is called as 'School Experience I'. The course is based on observing the classroom and doing some related tasks. After completing most of the field work courses the

pre-service teachers, in the seventh term of the program, go to schools for School Experience II to see the routines of the school and classroom.

In the eighth semester, pre-service teachers go on going to schools for teaching practice. The aim of this new programme is to help pre-service teachers to practice their theoretical knowledge in real teaching environment.

It is believed that this restructuring resulted in more qualified graduates of Language Teacher Education departments. In 2007 HEI (YOK) revised the program and made minor changes School Experience course was taken to the seventh semester and the following and the last semester remained the same with teaching practice. To graduate the students have to complete a total of 175 credits including 143 theoretic and 32 observation and practice works.

Setting and Participants

Research Setting. The study was conducted at ELT Department of the faculty of Education at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Turkey between 2013 – 2015 academic years. Since the researcher herself is a member of the teaching staff at the department it was thought to be practical and time saving for the data collection. Data was collected five times; started at the end of the spring semester in May 2013 and finished in May 2015. The pre-service teachers agreed to become a part of the study voluntarily.

Teacher education program, which is centralized, prepared by the Higher Education Council (YOK) is in use. The aim of this is to make sure that teacher candidates get the same set of teacher skills and knowledge at education faculties in different universities. In the first two years of their study pre-service teachers receive mostly theoretical content and pedagogical knowledge. Courses like, Academic Reading/Writing, Second Language Acquisition, Linguistics I and II, Research Skills, English Literature I and II, Approaches to English Language Teaching I and II can be given as examples.

In the 3rd year pre-service teachers receive pedagogical content knowledge and though limited they have opportunities to practice of how to teach English. As such courses are Teaching Language Skills I and II, Teaching English to Young Learners I and II, Literature and Language Teaching I and II (see www.yok.gov.tr for English Language Teacher Education Programme). In the third year, the courses stated above provide pre-service teachers opportunities for practicing theoretical knowledge through microteaching with a peer group acting as learners.

The real field experience begins in the 4th year in the 7th semester in the autumn term with the school experience course and continues with teaching practicum in the spring that enable pre-service teachers to work on and polish their skills of teaching.

As a part of the requirements of School Experience course in the seventh semester students start with a 14 week observation course. They are sent to Minister of National Education schools in cooperation with the Faculty of Education as groups of 6-7 students. At MoNE schools mentors are at work to give professional support to teacher candidates. The students' responsibility is to observe pre-determined subjects and prepare weekly reflection reports on them. The subjects are stated in School Experience booklet prepared by ELT department in cooperation with the Faculty of Education. After complementing each observation the groups meet their mentors at the department and share the observation experiences. These observations attempt to help students have an idea about what happens in the classroom from the teacher and student point of view and also understand how school management is carried out.

Teaching practice is the last and the most exciting experience for the teacher candidates. The students attend a 14-week practice at MoNE schools in cooperation with the program. Mentors are assigned again. The first two weeks are the observation weeks, then the practice starts and the students are expected to practice teaching at least three times. To do this, they

firstly prepare draft lesson plans and have a discussion on them and do the necessary changes with the faculty mentor and apply it. The students are responsible for writing their reflections on before, during and after practice.

Participants. A total of 207 students participated in the study. The students came from different high schools. Majority of them were graduated from Anatolian high schools followed by high schools, super high schools, Anatolian teacher high schools, teacher high schools, vocational high school and private college. Distribution of the students according their high school graduation can be seen in the table below.

Table 4

Distribution of the Students According to Their High School Graduation

		Type of High school	N	Gender of students	
				Female	Male
2014 Graduates		High School	11	8	3
		Anatolian High School	55	42	13
		Anatolian Teacher High School	8	4	4
		Super High School	22	12	10
		Private College	1		1
2015 Graduates		High School	35	28	7
		Teacher High School	2		2
		Anatolian High School	53	21	32
		Anatolian Teacher High School	11	7	4
		Super High School	8	5	3
	Private College	1		1	

At the beginning of the data collection 97 of them were third year students who have already completed the 6th semester and were about to take the school experience course. 110 students were 4 semester students who just dived into field courses for 2 semesters. All participants were native Turkish speakers with an advanced proficiency level in English. Since the department is female-dominant, a vast majority of the participants were females. Table 5 below gives the distribution gender in the study.

Table 5

Distribution of the Gender in the Study

	Female	Male	Total
2015 Graduates	74	36	110
2014 Graduates	66	31	97
			207

Materials and Instruments. The study focused on different constructs that may have a role in shaping teacher identity such as sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge. For this reason, efficacy scale, emotional intelligence inventory and Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test Module2 and Module 3 were used.

Teacher sense of efficacy scale. The original Teacher sense of self-efficacy scale was developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy in 2001 and was used to measure pre-service English teachers' sense of efficacy. They defined teacher efficacy as teacher's idea of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy wanted to create an instrument to evaluate teachers' sense of self-efficacy related to teaching activities. To do this, Bandura's scale was taken as a base; and a new scale was developed. The resulting instrument was investigated in different studies by Tschannen- Moran and her colleagues. The scale had both short and long forms. The short version had 12 items and long version had 24 items.

Analyses of both forms indicated that TSES, either long or short version, were reliable and valid for assessing teacher efficacy construct. Both versions supported the three factor model with high subscale reliabilities (ranging from 0.87 to 0.91 for longer version and 0.81 to 0.86 for shorter version).

The scale has been used in a number of studies. Such as, Bikos, Tsigilis and Grammatikopoulos (2011), Oh (2011), Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy, (2001), and Tsigilis, Grammatikopoulos, and Koustelios (2007).

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy, (2001) reported internal consistency of the scale as .94 and Tsigilis et.al. (2007) as .97. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) and Tsigilis et al., (2007) cross-validated the validity of the instrument through various studies using independent samples and Stewart et al. (2010) confirmed the instrument's validity for studies on similar samples.

Gorell and Hwang, (1995), Lin and Gorrell (2001), Lin, Gorrell and Taylor, (2002) emphasized the scarcity of teacher efficacy research in non-Western contexts. Researches claimed that the concept of teacher efficacy may be influenced by the distinctive features of cultures. Based on the same assumption Çakiroglu (2003) compared pre-service elementary teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs in Turkey and USA. In 2005, Çapa, Çakiroğlu and Sarıkaya adapted the Likert-type scale to the Turkish context. The original English version of the TSES was translated into Turkish by qualified individuals who were proficient in English and Turkish and who had been doing research on teacher efficacy for a long time. After this, the instrument was edited and reviewed by the researchers again. Subsequently, this version was field-tested by four high school teachers in Turkey in order to check the clarity of the statements. Based on their comments, minimal modifications were made.

Finally, the instrument was pilot tested with 97 pre-service teachers in Turkey. The reliability for the whole scale was 0.93. The coefficient alpha values for the Turkish pre-

service teachers were 0.86 for instructional strategies, 0.84 for classroom management and 0.82 for student engagement (Çapa, Çakıroğlu & Sarıkaya, 2005). The original and the adapted instrument have a 9-point continuum with anchors from 1=Nothing to 9= A Great Deal. However, for the purposes of this particular study the anchors were reduced to 5 and redefined as 1= Not efficient, 2= Very little efficient, 3= A little efficient, 4= Quite efficient and 5= Very efficient. The reliability analysis which was carried out after the data collection indicated that the scale with these anchors was also reliable (Alpha= 0.92).

The scale's translation validity findings in the study were conducted by Baloğlu and Karadağ (2008) are in line with the original English items. The items' average was found to be 9.05 out of 10. 13 of 24 scale items were found to be matching above a degree of 9.00. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the Turkish translation of the scale matches up with its original English version. The Turkish items' language and meaning validity average was found to be 9.62 out of 10. The items' language and meaning validity averages were not found below 9.00. In conclusion, it can be stated that the Turkish version of the scale has a comprehensible Turkish.

The scale has been used in numerous studies Yeşilyurt (2013) highlighted pre-service teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy, Arastaman (2013) investigated education and arts and sciences faculty students' self-efficacy beliefs and their attitudes toward teaching profession, Bümen and Özaydın (2013) examined the changes on teacher self-efficacy, pre-service teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards profession, and Özder (2011) elaborated on self-efficacy beliefs of novice teachers and their performance in the classroom.

Teacher sense of self-efficacy scale is composed of 24 items with three subscales having 8 items which were related to efficacy for instructional strategies, efficacy for classroom management and efficacy for student engagement. Each of the items in the subscales relates to different aspects of self-efficacy. For instructional strategies the

candidates self-concept about how well they make use of them in the class was investigated as expressed in items 7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 23, 24 (e.g. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?; How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?).

For efficacy on classroom management the candidates were asked to describe themselves how efficient they can handle management issues in items 3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, 21 (e.g. How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?; How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?).

The third subscale scrutinized efficacy for student engagement which was related to candidates self-concept about how well they can motivate and engage the students in learning as stated in items 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14, 22 (e.g. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?; How much can you do to help your students value learning?).

Emotional Intelligence Inventory. There are currently three major Emotional Intelligence (EI) models. They are Bar-On (1997), the Goleman (1998) and the Mayer-Salovey (1997) models. Bar-On (1997) was designed to assess EI by self-report, the Goleman (1998) by multi-rater and Mayer-Salovey (1997) by ability-based evaluation. Since the perceptions of the participants' are important for the study, Bar-On's (1997) Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) which was originally developed as an experimental instrument designed to examine the conceptual model of emotional and social functioning was applied.

The Likert- type scale was adapted in Turkish context by Acar in 2001 to explore the relationship of emotional intelligence skills with leadership of bank managers. Briefly, the emotional intelligence inventory contains 87 items in the form of short sentences and employs a 5- point response scale with a textual response ranging from "very seldom or not true of me" (1) to "very often true of me or true of me" (5). The scale was subjected to validity and reliability analysis by the originator (Acar, 2001) and it was reported that the individual's responses render a total EQ score and scores on the following 5 composite scales that

comprise 15 subscale scores. These are intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood. The internal consistency of this subscale was found to be .92 displaying good internal consistency coefficients. The test-retest reliability was also found to be highly consistent $r = .5$, with large effect size. Cronbach Alpha coefficient for intrapersonal scale was .84, interpersonal scale was .78, adaptability .65, stress management was .73 and for the general mood .76. A list of the inventory's items is found in the Appendix (Bar-On, 1997). The EQ-i is suitable for individuals 17 years of age and older and takes approximately 40 minutes to complete.

The scale has been used in numerous studies and was found to correlate with construct such as emotional-intelligence relationship in management (Aslan, Mazan & Aydın, 2013), the impact of emotional intelligence on achievement (Durgut, Gerekan & Pehlivan, 2013) and the effect of emotional intelligence on managerial involvement (Avcı, Altındağ & Yarbağ, 2014) indicating acceptable construct validity features.

Intrapersonal factor involves Emotional Self-awareness; recognising and understanding one's feelings as expressed in 2, 8, 13, 38, 53, 84 (e.g. Describing my feelings is difficult for me; I know what I feel; etc.) Assertiveness; expressing feelings beliefs and thoughts and defending one's rights in a non-destructive manner is expressed in items 7, 9, 20, 27, 39, 86 (e.g. I can easily tell people when I'm angry with them; I can easily others what I think; etc.) Self-Regard, being aware of understanding, accepting and respecting oneself as expressed in items 10, 14, 26, 44, 55, 69 (e.g. When I consider my good and bad sides I feel good; I'm pleased with my physical appearance; etc.), Self-Actualization ,realizing one's potential capacities as expressed in items 15, 17, 19, 21, 28, 35(e.g. I'm trying to make my life as meaningful as I can; I like doing things that attract my interest; etc.) and Independence being self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions and being free of

emotional dependency is expressed in items 22, 24, 47, 64, 73 (e.g. I'm a follower more than a leader; I can make my decisions on my own; etc.)

Interpersonal factor involves Empathy; being aware of understanding and appreciating the feelings of others as expressed in items 25, 30, 49, 77, 81 (I take care of not hurting others feelings; I can easily realize others emotional needs; etc.) Social Responsibility demonstrating oneself as a cooperative, contributing and constructive character as expressed in items 34, 43, 45, 48, 59, 79 (e.g. I like helping people; I have respect for the others; etc.) Interpersonal Relationship; establishing and maintaining mutually satisfying relationships that are characterized by emotional closeness and by giving receiving affection as expressed in items 16, 32, 42, 46, 57, 62, 67 (e.g. I can't reveal my love; I can establish good relationships with others; etc.).

Stress management factor involves Stress Tolerance withstanding adverse events and stressful situations without falling apart by actively and positively coping with stress as expressed in items 3, 6, 60, 63, 75, 80 (e.g. facing upsetting events is difficult for me; I know how to keep calm in difficult times; etc.) Impulse Control resisting or delaying an impulse or temptation to act as expressed in items 11, 29, 36, 41, 66, 70 (e.g. I am an impatient person; It is difficult for me to control my anger; etc.).

Adaptability factor involves Reality-Testing assessing the correspondence between what is subjectively experienced and what objectively exists as expressed in items 4, 12, 52, 56, 82 (e.g. I don't realize what goes on around; I try to see things as they are without fantasizing or dreaming; etc.). Flexibility; adjusting one's emotions, thoughts and behaviour to changing situations and conditions as expressed in items 18, 50, 58, 61, 71 (e.g. I can change my habits; It is difficult for me to start new things; etc.). Problem- Solving; identifying and defining problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions as in items 1, 23, 33, 51, 87 (e.g. My coping with difficulties strategy is moving step by step;

When I face a difficult situation I want to collect as much information as possible about the issue; etc.)

General Mood factor involves Optimism; looking at brighter side of life and maintaining a positive attitude even in the face of adversity as in items 5, 31, 76, 78, 85 (e.g. I believe I can overcome very difficult situations; Generally, I hope for the best; etc.). Happiness, feeling satisfied with one' life, enjoying oneself and others and having fun as stated in items 37, 40, 54, 65, 72, 74, 83 (e.g. I don't enjoy life; Being with me is fun; etc.) Following table introduces the sub-scales of emotional intelligence inventory and related items.

Table 6

Emotional Intelligence Inventory Sub-scales and Related Items

Sub-scales	Items
Intrapersonal	Emotional self-awareness (e.g. Describing my feelings is difficult for me; I know what I feel; etc.) 2, 8, 13, 38, 53, 84
	Assertiveness (e.g. I can easily tell people when I'm angry with them; I can easily others what I think; etc.) 7, 9, 20, 27, 39, 86
	Self-regard (e.g. When I consider my good and bad sides I feel good; I'm pleased with my physical appearance; etc.) 10, 14, 26, 44, 55, 69
	Self-actualization (e.g. I'm trying to make my life as meaningful as I can; I like doing things that attract my interest; etc.) 15, 17, 19, 21, 28, 35
	Independence (e.g. I'm a follower more than a leader; I can make my decisions on my own; etc.) 22, 24, 47, 64, 73
Interpersonal	Empathy (e.g. I take care of not hurting others feelings; I can easily realize others emotional 25, 30, 49, 77, 81

	needs; etc.)	
	Social responsibility (e.g. I like helping people; I have respect for the others; etc.)	34, 43, 45, 48, 59, 79
	Interpersonal Relationship (e.g. I can't reveal my love; I can establish good relationships with others; etc.)	16, 32, 42, 46, 57, 62, 67
Stress management	Stress tolerance (e.g. Facing upsetting events is difficult for me; I know how to keep calm in difficult times; etc.)	3, 6, 60, 63, 75, 80
	Impulse control (e.g. I am an impatient person; It is difficult for me to control my anger; etc.)	11, 29, 36, 41, 66, 70
Adaptability	Reality-testing (e.g. I don't realize what goes on around; I try to see things as they are without fantasizing or dreaming; etc.)	4, 12, 52, 56, 82
	Flexibility (e.g. I can change my habits; It is difficult for me to start new things; etc.)	18, 50, 58, 61, 71
	Problem-solving (e.g. My coping with difficulties strategy is moving step by step etc.)	1, 23, 33, 51, 87
General Mood	Optimism (e.g. I believe I can overcome very difficult situations; etc.)	5, 31, 76, 78, 85
	Happiness (e.g. I don't enjoy life; Being with me is fun; etc.)	37, 40, 54, 65, 72, 74, 83

Teacher Knowledge Test. Teaching Knowledge Test is developed by Cambridge ESOL, a department in the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES). The test was prepared on demand from government ministries and schools around the world. Teaching knowledge test was introduced in 2005, for teachers of English who would like to gain an international qualification and enter the English teaching profession.

During 2004, 1500 English language teachers in Europe, Latin America and Asia took part in TKT trial tests. The sample was representative of the target groups for TKT, involving both in-service and pre-service teachers, those working with different age groups and with a range of teaching experience. Positive feedback was received in terms of the coverage of TKT content, its appropriateness for different groups, interest for teachers and relevance to local contexts. An exploratory standard-setting activity was conducted to inform the reporting of results and the grading stage of TKT. Ten judges with expertise in teacher training, rater training, setting performance criteria, and language testing were assembled to give their input. Judges were asked to go through each module, answer each item and provide a rating on a four-point difficulty scale with 1 being the easiest and 4 being the most difficult. Differences between the ratings given were discussed and a rationale to explain those differences was provided. For each module, candidates are required to read and then answer questions by selecting the correct letter.

Since the participants are the ELT students and their proficiency level was appropriate to read and answer Modules 2 and 3 the researcher decided not to use Module 1 in the study. The information about the participants' proficiency level was given in the previous section. Since the issue of teacher knowledge is a new subject the number of studies is in an increasing number.

Candidates taking teaching knowledge test will normally have some experience of teaching English to speakers of other languages. The test can also be taken by, pre-service teachers, teachers who wish to refresh their teaching knowledge and teachers who are moving to teaching English after teaching another subject. Van Ek, J.A. and Trim, (1998) declared that to take the teacher knowledge test teachers need a level of English of at least Level B1 of the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. This level is specified in the Council of Europe's *Threshold* document.

Tsui and Nicholson (1999) and Tsui (2003) summarized the knowledge measured by teaching knowledge test in four parts. The first part includes, subject matter knowledge, the second part is general pedagogic knowledge, the third part comprises pedagogic content knowledge and the fourth part consists of knowledge of context. As a result TKT has become an invaluable source for the researchers (Emiko, 2014; Young, Freeman, Hauck, Gomez & Papageorgiou, 2014; Zakeri & Alavi; 2011).

The test embodies three modules. The first module consists of three parts addresses language and background to learning and teaching such as, knowledge of terms common in ELT, knowledge of factors basic to the learning of English by speakers of other languages and knowledge of the range, function and suitability of the pedagogic choices available to the teacher to account for learner differences and the differences between L1 and L2 learning.

Module 2 which consists of two parts is related to planning lessons and using resources for language teaching. The test assesses testee's knowledge of resources, materials and aids in their lesson planning, how to implement teaching aims into lessons or series of lessons, how to sequence activities within lessons in a manner appropriate to particular groups of students, and how to select appropriate assessment activities. Part 1 is related to planning and preparing a lesson or sequence of lessons.

Lesson planning elaborated on; identifying and selecting aims appropriate to learners, stage of learning and lesson types as scrutinized in question 1-6 (e.g. For questions 1-6, match the textbook rubrics with the lesson aims listed A, B, OR C. etc.). Next is an example question.

Table 7

An Example Question on Lesson Planning (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 2)

Lesson aims	Textbook rubrics
A developing pronunciation skills	1 Choose the best summary of each
B developing reading skills	paragraph
C developing vocabulary	

Identifying different components of a lesson plan as highlighted in questions 7-15 (e.g. for questions 7-15, match the information from a lesson plan with lesson plan headings listed A-E. etc.) What follows is an example question.

Table 8

Identifying Different Components of a Lesson Plan (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p.3)

Lesson plan headings	Information from a lesson plan
A Lesson aim(s)	7 Stronger students may dominate in pair work.
B Anticipated problem(s)	8 Remember to use gestures to encourage self-
C Procedure and interaction	correction whenever possible.

Planning an individual lesson (or a sequence of lessons) as mentioned in questions 16-22 (e.g. For questions 16-22, look at the stages of an integrated skills lesson, each of which has three possible main aims listed A, B, or C. Two of the aims for each stage are appropriate. One of the aims is **NOT** appropriate. Example question can be seen in the box below.

Table 9

Planning an Individual Lesson (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, pp.4-5)

Stages	Main Aims
Lead-in	To help students
The teacher shows the students some photographs of a famous singer and elicits what they want to know about him.	A have a purpose for reading B learn new grammar items

Choosing and sequencing activities appropriate to learners and aims as elaborated in questions 23-29 (e.g. For questions 23-29, put the stages of a writing skills plan in order. etc.) Example is given in table 13.

Table 10

Choosing and sequencing Activities Appropriate to Learners and Aims (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p.6)

23 ...B Students choose the six best reasons and the teacher writes these on the board

24...C Groups check each other's letters for grammar and spelling errors and correct these.

Choosing assessment activities appropriate to learners as expresses in questions 30-35 (e.g. For questions 30-35, match the example assessment items with their grammatical focus listed A-G. Mark the correct letter (A-G) on your answer sheet etc.). Example question is given below.

Table 11

Choosing Assessment Activities Appropriate to Learners (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p.7)

Grammatical focus	Example assessment items
A superlatives	30 Complete the sentences with the correct
B past simple	word(s).
C present continuous	I there for six years before moving to Budapest.

Aims and stages of learning as in questions 36-40 (e.g. for questions 36-40, look at the syllabus areas which a teacher wants to test and three possible teaching methods. Two of the methods are suitable for testing the syllabus areas. One of the testing method is **NOT** suitable etc.). What follows is an example of the question.

Table 12

Aims and Stages of Learning (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p.8)

36 spelling of everyday words connected with food and cooking

A Teacher dictates 25 words from a recipe.

B Students, in pairs, discuss differences between two pictures of kitchens.

C Students find mistakes in a restaurant's menu.

Part I included 6 tasks with 40 questions. These tasks had one-to-one matching, option matching, option multiple choice odd one out and sequencing type of questions.

Part 2 highlighted selection and use of resources and materials. Questions are related to selection and use of course book materials as in questions (e.g. for questions 41-47, choose

which book listed A-H could help a teacher who is interested in the topics below. etc.). Table 18 below presents an example question.

Table 13

Selection and Use of Course-book Materials (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 9)

Title	Author	Publisher
A Poem into Poem	Maley, A and Moulding, S	CUP
C Learning to Learn English	Ellis, R and Sinclair, B	CUP
Teacher's interests		
41 developing fluency skills		
42 exploiting a class library		

Supplementary materials and activities and teaching aids that are appropriate to learners and aims as expressed in questions 68-73 (e.g. For questions 68-73, match the student activities with the learning aids listed A-G etc.). An example of the question can be seen below.

Table 14

Supplementary Materials and Activities and Teaching Aids (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 13)

Learning aids	Student activities
A overhead transparencies	69 The whole class does a task to develop the skill of listening for detail.
B workbooks	
C authentic printed materials	70 Students act out conversations as doctors and patients

Module 3 consists of two parts related to managing the teaching and learning process and focuses on what happens in the classroom in terms of the language used, and the teacher's ability to manage and make the most out of classroom language and interaction.

Module 3 elaborated on teachers' and learners' language and respondents' understanding of the functions of classroom language. Areas of teaching knowledge included using language appropriately for a range of classroom functions, e.g. instructing as in questions 1-8 (e.g. For questions 1-8, match the examples of teacher's classroom instructions with their purposes listed A-I etc.)

Table 15

Classroom Instructions with their Purposes (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 2)

Purposes	Teachers' classroom language
A giving feedback	1 It's a person who checks your ticket on the train. Does anyone know the name of this job?
B eliciting language	2 Listen and repeat after me: <i>I always eat eggs for breakfast.</i>
C organising a mingling activity	

Prompting learners as elaborated in questions 9-16 (e.g. For questions 9-16, match the teacher's instructions to an elementary class with the teacher trainer's comments listed A-I etc.).

Table 16

Prompting Learners (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p.3)

Teacher's instructions	Teacher trainer's comments
<p>9 Compare your answers with what the others have written down. Oh, first you should get into groups.</p>	<p>A I don't think you've allowed them enough time – check that they don't have any other homework to do.</p>
<p>10 Today, we're going to learn some functional exponents – they're on the syllabus.</p>	<p>B You need to think before you speak, and decide on the order you want the class to do things in.</p> <p>C Don't be in such a hurry to start new work – it's more important for students to understand what they've done so far.</p>

Eliciting as in questions 17-23 (e.g. for questions 17-23, read the transcript in which the teacher asks a student to talk about a picture and choose the correct option etc.).

Table 17

Eliciting (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 4-5)

Question	Choices
<p>17 Why does Anna say 'as you said' in line 4?</p>	<p>A to remind the teacher of a previous topic</p> <p>B to show that it isn't her own idea</p> <p>C to give a reason for her next statement</p>

Conveying meaning of new language, identifying the functions of learners' language as expressed in questions 24-30 (e.g. for questions 24-30, match the teacher's instructions with the activities that the class is doing listed A-H etc.)

Table 18

Learner Language (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 6)

Teacher's instructions	Activities
24 Right, now everybody, please pass your paper to the person on your left. Then read and reply to the message.	A- The teacher is doing a fluency activity with an advanced class.
25 The man gives lots of reasons why he is late. Write down three of them.	B - The teacher is giving a written homework task to an advanced class.
26 OK, now you Paola. Tell us about your family – your parents and brothers and sisters.	C- The teacher is doing a jigsaw-reading task with an intermediate class.

Categorising learners' mistakes as in questions 31-40 (e.g. For questions 31-40, match the circled mistakes in student composition with the types of mistake listed A, B, C, or etc.)

Table 19

Learner Mistakes (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 7)

Student Composition	Types of Mistakes
31 People like to live in spaceil places. They prefer to design	A articles B spelling
32 there own house, not live in an old house. I always think...	C punctuation D verb forms

The part had 6 tasks consisting of 40 questions. Tasks include one to-one matching; option matching; option multiple choice; odd one out and sequencing. Part 2 scrutinized classroom management. Classroom management was evaluated with respect to managing learners and their classroom in order to promote learning, teacher roles, grouping students as in questions 41-46 (e.g. For questions 41-46, match the classroom management problems a teacher is experiencing while doing group project work with the solutions listed A-G etc.).

Table 20

Classroom Management Problems (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 8)

Classroom management problems	Classroom management solutions
41 Weaker students are relying on stronger students and not participating.	A Make sure that all students have a clear role within the group.
42 Students are copying directly from the internet and books.	B Remind students that marks will be given for paragraphing and layout.
43 Some groups are not working quickly enough.	C Tell students that they are responsible for the process of checking and editing language.

Correcting learners as in questions 65-70 (e.g. For question 65-70, look at the situations in which a teacher needs to correct students and at the possible correction strategies. Choose the NOT appropriate one etc.)

Table 21

Correcting Learners (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 11)

Question	Choices
<p>65 When you are conducting an individual drill of a new structure, one student finds the pronunciation very difficult.</p>	<p>A Without saying it again yourself, ask the student to keep repeating it.</p> <p>B Model it for the student and suggest he practises at home.</p> <p>C Ask another student to say it and then ask the first student to try again.</p>

Giving feedback that are appropriate to learners and aims as stated in questions 71-80 (e.g. For questions 71-80, match the learner comments on feedback with the types of feedback on oral work listed A-E etc.).

Table 22

Giving Feedback (Adapted from Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test, 2007, p. 13)

Question	Choices
<p>71 At first it seemed strange when the teacher repeated my mistake. But now I think it's a great way to help me put it right myself.</p>	<p>A peer feedback</p> <p>B giving a grade</p>

There were 6 tasks consisting of approximately 40 questions. Tasks include one to-one matching; 3-4-5-option matching; 3-option multiple choice and odd one out. Table 28 below presents the outline of TKT.

Table 23

Description and Content of Teacher Knowledge Test (Adapted from Teaching Knowledge Test, Handbook for Teachers, 2007, p. 4)

Module	Description	Content	Timing
1	Language and background to language learning and teaching	Describing language and language skills Background to language learning Background to language teaching	80 minutes
2	Lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching	Planning and preparing a lesson or sequence of lessons Selection and use of resources and materials	80 minutes
3	Managing the teaching and learning process	Teachers' and learners' language in the classroom Classroom management	80 minutes

As it is evident in the sample questions above teaching knowledge test is a reliable instrument to assess teacher knowledge. Thus, this study made use of Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test (TKT 2007) to evaluate the professional knowledge of the pre-service students.

Procedures for Data Collection

The data were collected over 5 academic semesters. The first data set was collected at the end of the spring semester in May 2013 when the 2014 graduate group finished the sixth semester and 2015 graduates finished the fourth semester.

The first data was quantitative. The 2014 group was given the self- efficacy scale, the emotional intelligence inventory and the teacher knowledge test, whereas the 2015 group was given the self-efficacy scale and the emotional intelligence inventory.

The second data were collected in January 2014 when the 2014 group completed the 7th semester including the teaching practice course and the 2015 group completed the fifth semester which concentrated mostly on field courses. In this instance, both groups were given the self-efficacy scale, the emotional intelligence inventory and the teacher knowledge tests. The collected data were entered into the SPSS programme and after the analysis of the teacher knowledge tests, the 10 highest scoring and the 10 lowest scoring students were invited to an interview.

The third data set was collected in May 2014 when the 2014 group finished the 8th semester taking the teaching practice course and was about to graduate. The same instruments were used on both groups and students from both groups were interviewed.

The fourth and fifth data sets were collected from the 2015 group and the same procedure as above was used. The interviews were carried out in Turkish and were later translated verbatim and used to confirm the statistical data. Table 24 below gives the timing of all the data collection.

Table 24

Timing of Data Collection

	2014	TKT /SES/ EQ-I	INTERVIEW	2015	TKT /SES/ EQ-i	INTERVIEW
Time 1	6 th semester	√	√	4 th semester	Only SES and EQ-i	
Time 2	7 th semester	√	√	5 th semester	√	√
Time 3	8 th semester	√	√	6 th semester	√	√
Time 4				7 th semester	√	√
Time 5				8 th semester	√	√

Time 1 refers to the data collected in May 2013, namely when the 2014 graduate group was in their 6th semester and the 2015 group was in the 4th semester. Time 2 refers to January 2014, the 7th semester for the 2014 group and the 5th semester for the 2015 group. The third set of data was collected in May 2014, the 8th and 6th semesters for the two groups respectively. The two final sets of data, collected at time 4 and 5, in January and May 2015, were gathered from the 2015 group when they were in the 7th and 8th semesters respectively.

Of the three sets of data collected from the 2014 group, the first two sets were treated as pilot data for the study, to ascertain the conditions and time required for reliable data collection. As a result, the data gathered from this group for the first two times was not

included in the analysis of the study. Only the data gathered at time three from this group was compared with data collected from the 2015 graduates.

Procedures for Data Analysis

The study made use of IBM SPSS Statistics 21 program to analyse data. The study focused on interconnectedness between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, professional knowledge, and course marks of teacher candidates. This part attempts to describe Statistical procedures used for research questions. In the study there were two different groups as participants.

The first group was 2014 graduates who were completing their sixth semester (3rd year) as ELT students whereas 2015 graduates were completing their fourth semester (2nd year). The first research question sought to explore the influence of experience in teaching practice on self-perceived self-efficacy. To test whether school experience and teaching practice influence self-efficacy, two contrasting groups of student teachers were compared through an independent samples t-test analysis. To complement such a comparison, self-efficacy scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test. Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures. However, it needs to be noted here that such analysis is cross-sectional in nature and may be biased due to time effect. Therefore, a one group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted to confirm the effects of teaching experience on self-efficacy. As mentioned before sense of self-efficacy scale constitutes three subscales; as efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies and efficacy in classroom management. The same procedures were applied these subscales too.

Second research question focused on the influence of experience in teaching on teacher candidates' emotional intelligence. To see whether there was a difference between the

two groups independent sample t-test was run. To assure the comparison, emotional intelligence scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test. A MANOVA test was used to confirm findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures. To test the time effect on the group a one group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. The same procedures were run on the five subscales which were intrapersonal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, adaptability, stress management and general mood.

The third research question highlighted the influence of experience of teaching practice on teacher knowledge (lesson planning skills) of teacher candidates. To see the differences between the groups independent-samples t-test was run and the findings of t-test was confirmed with the use of MANOVA analysis. For time effect a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted to answer this question. For the four subscales; knowledge of materials and resources, planning, language teaching and assessment skills of teacher candidates the same procedures were applied.

The fourth question was also related with the teacher knowledge but focused on classroom management skills of teacher candidates. To see the differences between the groups independent-samples t-test was run and the findings of t-test were by using MANOVA analysis. For time effect a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted to answer this question. For the subscales; the use of teacher language, handling with the learner language, handling with general issues of classroom management and interacting with students in the classroom the same analysis were run.

The fifth research question sought to explore whether self-efficacy related to teacher candidates' emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge test scores. To test whether emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge test scores are related to each other in foreign language teacher identity construction bivariate correlation was used.

The sixth research question investigated whether student teachers' self-efficacy was related to their course marks. To explore this question firstly student course marks were entered into SPSS as letter marks. Later these were given numerical values and transformed into numbers. Non-attendance was given the value "1" to reach valid results. If DS (non-attendance) was given "0" value the SPSS program would consider it as missing value and the findings would be misguided. To search whether there was a relationship between self-efficacy and course marks bivariate correlation was used.

Summary of Methodology

The study was conducted in the ELT Department of the Faculty of Education at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University in Turkey between the 2013 and 2015 academic years. Data were collected five times, starting at the end of the spring semester in May 2013 and finishing in May 2015. The pre-service teachers agreed to become a part of the study voluntarily. A total of 207 students participated in the study. The data were collected over 5 academic semesters. The first data set was collected at the end of the spring semester in May 2013 when the 2014 graduate group finished the sixth semester and the 2015 graduates finished the fourth semester.

The first data collected were quantitative. The 2014 group was given a self-efficacy scale, emotional intelligence inventory and the teacher knowledge test whereas the 2015 group was given the self-efficacy scale and emotional intelligence inventory. The second data set was collected in January 2014 when the 2014 group completed the 7th semester, including the school experience course, and the 2015 group completed the fifth semester, which concentrated mostly on field courses. Both groups were given the self-efficacy scale, emotional intelligence inventory and the teacher knowledge tests. To collect data on the sense of self-efficacy, the sense of self-efficacy scale which was originally developed by

Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy (2001) and adapted to the Turkish context by apa, akırođlu and Sarıkaya (2005) was used.

The emotional intelligence data sets were collected by using an emotional intelligence inventory (EQ-i) originally developed by Bar-On (1997) and adapted to the Turkish context by Acar (2001).

To see whether a change had taken place in the teacher knowledge of the teacher candidates, the 2007 version of Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) developed by Cambridge ESOL was used. The collected data was entered into the SPSS program and after the analysis of the teacher knowledge tests the 10 highest scoring and 10 lowest scoring students were invited for an interview. The third data set was collected in May 2014 when the 2014 group finished the 8th semester in which they took the teaching practice course and was about to graduate. The same instruments were used on both groups and students from both groups were interviewed. The fourth and the fifth data sets were collected from the 2015 graduate group and the same procedure was used.

Chapter IV: Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data. Findings will be presented in the order of number of research questions under scrutiny. Following a sequential explanatory model of mixed methods research design, this chapter will initially present findings from the quantitative analyses for each research question. Qualitative relevant explanatory evidence will then be sought to better interpret the quantitative findings.

Research Question 1: Does experience in teaching practice influence self-perceived teacher self-efficacy?

To answer this question, multi-level comparisons between different groups (independent-samples t-test and MANOVA) and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. Findings from these are represented below.

To test whether school experience and teaching practice influence self-efficacy, two contrasting groups of student teachers were compared through an independent samples t-test analysis. As explained before in chapter III, setting and participants section 2014 graduates had completed their fourth year and received school experience and teaching practice courses from the department while Year 2 students had just finished their 4th semester. To answer the research question 2015 graduates' first data (after completing the 4th semester); those without official teaching experience and 2014 graduates' final data (after completing the 8th semester), those with teaching experience were compared. To do this, an independent samples t-test was conducted. Table 25 presents the findings with regards to differences between the two groups.

Table 25

The Effects of School Experience and Teaching Practice on student Teachers' Self-efficacy

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	4.00	.45			
2 (2015 Graduates)	87	3.64	.41	-5.404	168	.000

An examination of Table 29 above indicates that 2014 graduates, having experienced teaching, manifested a much higher levels of teacher self-efficacy ($Mean = 4.00$; $SD = .45$) than those students who had just finished their 4th semester in the department ($Mean = 3.64$; $SD = .41$). The difference was statistically significant at $p < .01$ ($t = -5,404$). Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to exert an impact on student teachers perceived self-efficacy in that self-efficacy is likely to improve as student teachers become more experienced.

To further elaborate such an observed difference, qualitative data that emerged from interviews were visited. An examination of the interview data confirmed and statistical difference between the two groups. This was explicitly verbalized by student 3 (2014 female student) who argued "... teaching practice taught so much. I overcame my excitement.... By means of micro teaching and teaching practice I became aware of y teaching skills, I gained self-efficacy. It showed me that I had to keep away from conventional methods and be creative in the classroom due to teaching in the real environment." Supporting arguments were also given by student 5 (2014 female) who said "...my self-efficacy, level of proficiency and teacher knowledge improved.... I find myself efficient in teaching. I'm different from my friends because I had the privilege to work at a language course which contributed to my teaching practice unbelievably. I believe the real experience is gained through teaching practice... "and by student 7 (2014 female) who claims to be gain better self-efficacy after

she met and learned characteristics of the students in her class.” Another interviewee, student 11 (2014 male) drew attention to the importance of number of practice done and stated that “...self-efficacy developed with the number of teaching practice...” From the interview data the impact of teaching practice on student teachers professional development is clearly visible.

To complement such a comparison, self-efficacy scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test. Table 30 illustrates the findings from this comparison.

Table 26

Comparison of Self-efficacy of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	4.00	.45			
2015 Graduate	97	4.08	.39	1.262	178	.209

From the above findings, it can be inferred that self-efficacy scores of 2015 graduates approximated to that of 2014 graduates, displaying a developmental nature of the construct and revealing a time effect on the scores. Table 31 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while Figure 8 illustrates how 2015 graduates improved in their sense of teaching self-efficacy over the course of data collection for this study.

To further elaborate such a development qualitative data that emerged from interviews were gone through. An examination of the interview data confirmed the developmental nature of self-efficacy in 2015group. This was explicitly verbalized by student 13 (2015female student) who argued “... teaching practice taught so much. After the practices I evaluated what to do and not to do next time... I overcame my excitement. By means of micro teaching

and teaching practice applications I had a chance to compare myself to other teacher candidates and I gained self-efficacy. I gained self-efficacy because my teacher knowledge became more concrete and clear due to teaching in the real environment. As a result I observed re-structuring in my knowledge.” Supporting arguments were also given by student 14 (2015 female) who said “...my self-efficacy, level of proficiency and teacher knowledge improved.... I find myself efficient in lesson planning...” and by student 15 (female 2015) who claims to be ready and equipped for teaching.” Similar comment was done by student 19 (female 2015) who drew attention to the importance of number of practice done and stated that “...self-efficacy developed with the number of teaching practice...” From the interview data the impact of teaching practice on student teachers professional development is clearly visible.

Using Wilks’ Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($A = .733$; $F = 28.375$; $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .267; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 27.092$; $p = .001$; partial eta squared = .147) while the difference between the two cohorts appeared to have been reduced to such an extent that it was insignificant when both groups earned the status of ‘graduates’ ($F = 1.128$; $p = .290$; partial eta squared = .007). Table 32 Mean values for both 2014-2015 graduates of student teachers

Table 27

Mean Values for Self-efficacy of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Self-efficacy	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	4.00	.45	76	3.64	.42
Time 5*	83	4.00	.45	76	4.08	.41

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, self -efficacy mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores. Figure 8 illustrates the varying levels of self-efficacy of two groups across different times of measurement.

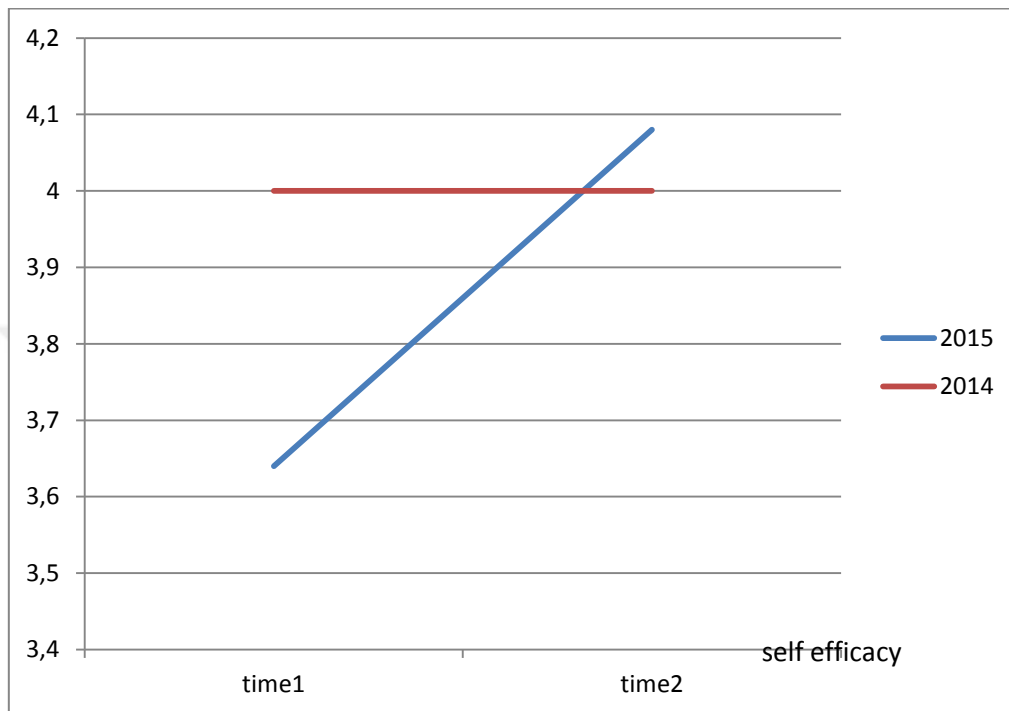


Figure 8: Self-efficacy scores pre- and post-teaching experience.

Such findings indicate that school experience and teaching practice are likely to contribute to the development of self-efficacy. However, it needs to be noted here that such analysis is cross-sectional in nature and may be biased due to a time effect. Therefore, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted to confirm the effects of teaching experience on self-efficacy. Table 33 presents descriptive statistics on the self-efficacy of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 2 years.

Table 28

Descriptive Statistics on Self-efficacy of 2015 Graduates Measured over the Course of 2 years

Self-efficacy score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	43	3,66	.45
Time 2 (5 th semester)	43	3,89	.41
Time 3 (6 th semester)	43	3,92	.49
Time 4 (7 th semester)	43	3,93	.42
Time 5 (8th semester after teaching practice)	43	4,08	.45

Using Wilk's Lambda statistics, a repeated measures ANOVA test revealed a strong time effect on self-efficacy ($\lambda = .602$; $F = 6.436$; $p < .01$ partial eta squared = .398). A further post-hoc Tukey test indicated that there were important differences between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.224; $p = .004$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.258; $p = .001$); Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.264; $p = .000$); and Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.441; $p = .000$). Time 2 was not much different from Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.006; $p = .802$) and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.040; $p = .571$); however, there was a difference from Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.217; $p = .008$). Time 3 did not differ much from Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.006; $p = 0.939$) but was significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.183; $p = .026$). Time 4 was also significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.77; $p = .006$). The developmental nature of self-efficacy over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 9 below.

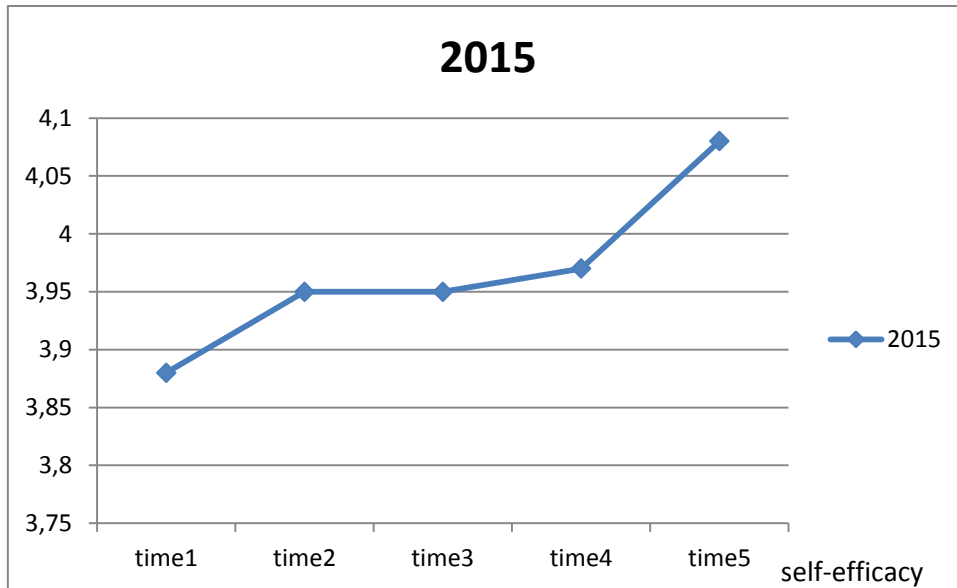


Figure 9: Development of self-efficacy of 2015 graduates.

As mentioned before, the sense of self-efficacy scale constitutes three subscales; as efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies and efficacy in classroom management. The next three research questions will focus on the three sub-scales individually.

1a: Does experience in teaching practice influence sense of self-efficacy on student engagement?

The present question focuses on the influence of teaching practice on self-efficacy in student engagement. To investigate this, an independent-samples t-test and MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The groups' sense of self-efficacy in student engagement scores can be seen in Table 34.

Table 29

Sense of Self-efficacy on Student Engagement Scores

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	84	3.97	.45	-2.981	169	.003
2 (2015 Graduates)	87	3.76	.47			

According to Table 34, 2014 graduates seem to have a higher level of self-efficacy in student engagement (*Mean* = 3.97; *SD* = .45) than the 4th semester students (*Mean* = 3.76; *SD* = .47). The difference was statistically significant at $p < .01$ ($t = -2,981$). Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to have an impact on student teachers sense of self-efficacy on student engagement.

When qualitative data observed, details supporting the quantitative data were found. This was explicitly verbalized by student 10 (2014 female student) who declared "... I became more efficient in student engagement as I learned more about the students in the practice class. Similar assertion was given by student 9 (2014 female) who said "...I felt anxious at the beginning as I could get the students in the class I overcame my anxiety and started to feel that I can teach them everything....", student 8 (2014 female) added that "...as I get the students engaged in the class I gained more self-efficacy and started to believe that I can teach..." and student 7 (2014 female) briefly stated that" ... as I saw activities I prepared were helpful and kept the students engaged in the lesson I felt myself quite efficient..." From the interview data the influence of teaching practice on student engagement is clearly visible.

To confirm the findings, scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) for the sense of self-efficacy on student engagement were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 30

The Comparison of Scores for Sense of Self-efficacy on Student Engagement 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of the Study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	84	3,97	.62			
2015 Graduate	97	4,14	.47	1.998	179	.047

The above findings reveal that 2015 graduates had developed with regards to student engagement in the course of data collection and reached a higher level than the 2014 graduates.

To further elaborate such an observed growth in 2015 graduate group, qualitative data that emerged from interviews were consulted. An examination of the interview data confirmed the development in the 2015 graduate group. This was explicitly verbalized by student 13 (2015 female student) who argued "... Teaching practice taught so much. After the practices I evaluated what to do and not to do next time... I overcame my excitement. By means of micro teaching and teaching practice applications I had a chance to compare myself to other teacher candidates and I gained self-efficacy. I gained self-efficacy because my teacher knowledge became more concrete and clear due to teaching in the real environment. As a result I observed re-structuring in my knowledge." Supporting arguments were also given by student 14 (2015 female) who said "...Self-efficacy, proficiency and teacher knowledge improved..." and by student 15 (female 2015) who claims to be ready and equipped for teaching." From the interview data the impact of teaching practice on student teachers development in student engagement is clearly visible.

Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .882$; $F = 10,476$; $p = .001$) with a small effect size (partial eta squared = .118; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was found to be statistically significant ($F = 3,739$; $p = .055$; partial eta squared = .023) while the difference between the two groups appeared to be insignificant when both groups gained the status of 'graduates' ($F = 8,162$; $p = .005$; partial eta squared = .049). 2015 graduates' student engagement level developed as they completed the school experience and teaching practice courses. Table 34 below

represents mean values for both 2014 and 2015 graduate student teachers at different times of measurement.

Table 31

Mean Values for Student Engagement of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Student Engagement	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	84	3.97	.62	87	3.76	.47
Time 5*	80	3.97	.62	97	4.14	.47

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, student engagement mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores. Figure 10 illustrates the varying levels of student engagement of two groups across different times of measurement.

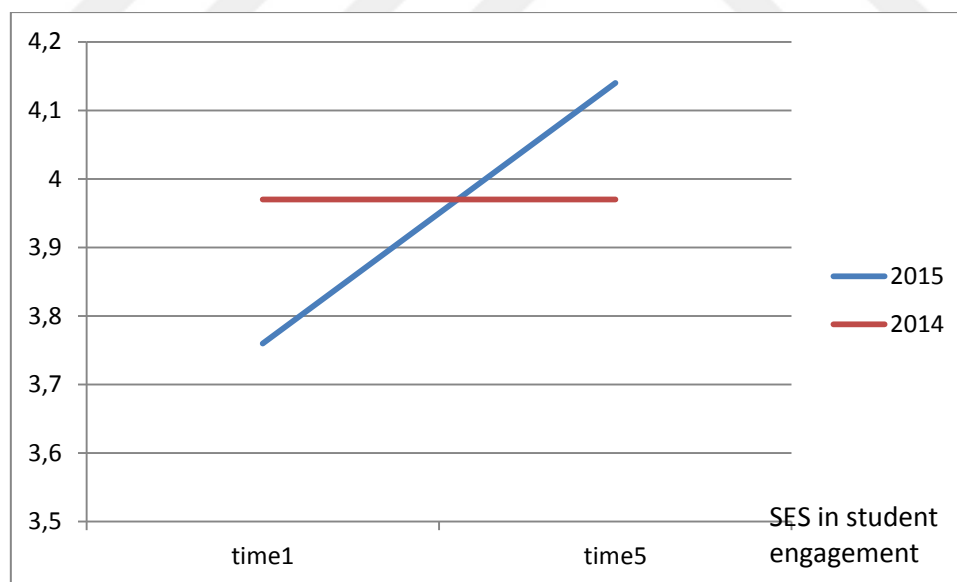


Figure 10: Student engagement score pre- and post-teaching experience.

School experience and teaching practice are likely to contribute to the development of self-efficacy in student engagement. Because of the cross-sectional nature of the analysis there may be the bias of time effect. Therefore, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test

was also conducted to confirm the effects of teaching experience on self-efficacy on student engagement. Table 35 presents descriptive statistics for student engagement of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 2 years.

Table 32

Mean Values of Student engagement for 2015 Graduates at Different Times

Student Engagement Score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	53	3,79	.47
Time 2 (5 th semester)	53	3,92	.45
Time 3(6 th semester)	53	3,91	.41
Time 4(7 th semester)	53	3,95	.44
Time 5 (8th semester after teaching practice)	53	4,14	.76

Using Wilk's Lambda statistics, a repeated measures ANOVA test revealed a strong time effect on self-efficacy in student engagement ($\Lambda = .892$; $F = 3.979$; $p = .004$ partial eta squared=.108). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* =- .068; $p = .023$); for Time 3 (*Mean difference* =-.063; $p = .027$); and Time 4 the difference seemed to be more significant (*Mean difference* =- .084; $p = .006$); and also at Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.198; $p = .000$). Time 2 was not much different from Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.006; $p = .802$) and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.015; $p = .531$); however, it was different from Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.130; $p = .004$). Time 2 did not differ much from Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.006; $p = .802$) but was significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.198; $p = .000$). Time 4 was significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.198; $p = .000$). Time 4 was significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.015; $p = .531$). The developmental nature of self-efficacy over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 11 below.

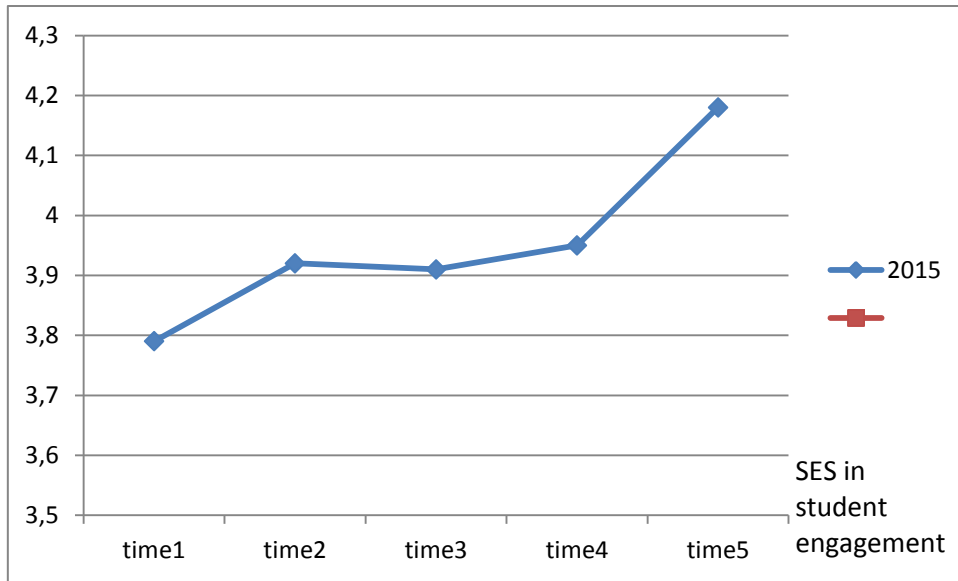


Figure 11: Development of self-efficacy on student engagement.

1b: Does experience in teaching practice influence sense of self-efficacy on instructional strategies?

To find out whether there was any difference in the sense of self-efficacy in instructional strategies during the data collection, an independent-samples t-test and MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The groups' instructional strategies scores can be seen in Table 36.

Table 33

Scores for Sense of Self-efficacy in Instructional Strategies of 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	84	4.01	.52	-5.744	169	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	87	3.57	.49			

After undertaking school experience and teaching practice, 2014 graduates seem to exhibit an advantage over the 2015 group (*Mean* = 4.01; *SD* = .52). The difference was statistically significant at $p < .01$ ($t = -5,744$). The 2014 group gained more positive

perception in instructional strategies. Experience in teaching courses is likely to have an impact on student sense of self-efficacy in instructional strategies.

To further elaborate such an observed difference, qualitative data gathered from interviews were reviewed. An examination of the interview data corroborated the statistical difference between the two groups. This was verbalized by student 10 (2014 female student) who argued "...theory on instructional strategies got internalized during the teaching practice and my efficacy developed." Student 8 (2014 female) made a similar statement "... I find myself efficient in instructional strategies, I started to compare the methods I use to my high school teachers methods and am able to see the differences... I became aware of the importance of instructional strategies." These data prove that teaching practice has an effect on student teachers efficacy on instructional strategies is clearly visible.

Scores for sense of self-efficacy in instructional strategies of 2014 and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 34

Comparison of Scores for Sense of Self-efficacy in Instructional Strategies of 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	84	4.01	.48			
2015 Graduate	97	4.10	.49	1.282	179	.202

Table 37 shows that 2015 graduates have developed their sense of self-efficacy in instructional strategies in the course of data collection and reached a higher level than the 2014 graduates.

To further elaborate such an observed difference, qualitative data gathered from interviews were reviewed. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was verbalized by student 15 (2015 female student) who argued "...theoretic courses at ELT department contributed so much on instructional strategies but it was the teaching experience where we applied them in the real world and felt improvement sense of self-efficacy on instructional strategies.... Microteachings did not help so much because they were not real..." Student 13 (2015 female) also drew attention to the similar point and reminded that "... I learned to use instructional strategies in micro teachings and was able to evaluate which ones to continue to use after the teaching practice..." Student 21 (2015 male) added that his efficacy in instructional strategies developed and it will become automatic when he starts his teaching career..." From the interview data the effect of teaching practice on student teachers efficacy on instructional strategies is clearly visible. Table 39 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while Figure 12 illustrates how 2015 graduates improved in their sense of teaching self-efficacy on instructional strategies over the course of data collection for this study.

Table 35

Mean Values for Sense of Self-efficacy in Instructional Strategies for 2014 and 2015 graduates

Instructional strategies	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	84	4.01	.48	87	3.57	.52
Time 5*	84	4.01	.48	97	4.10	.49

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, instructional strategies mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($A = .726$; $F = 29,659$; $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .274; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was found to be statistically significant ($F = 31,787$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .167) while the difference between the two groups appeared to be insignificant when both groups gained the status of 'graduates' ($F = 606$; $p = .005$; partial eta squared = .004). 2015 graduates' emotional intelligence level developed as they completed the school experience and teaching practice courses. Table 36 below represents mean values for both 2014-2015 graduates of student teachers at different times of measurement. Figure 12 below illustrates the varying levels of instructional strategies of two groups across different times of measurement.

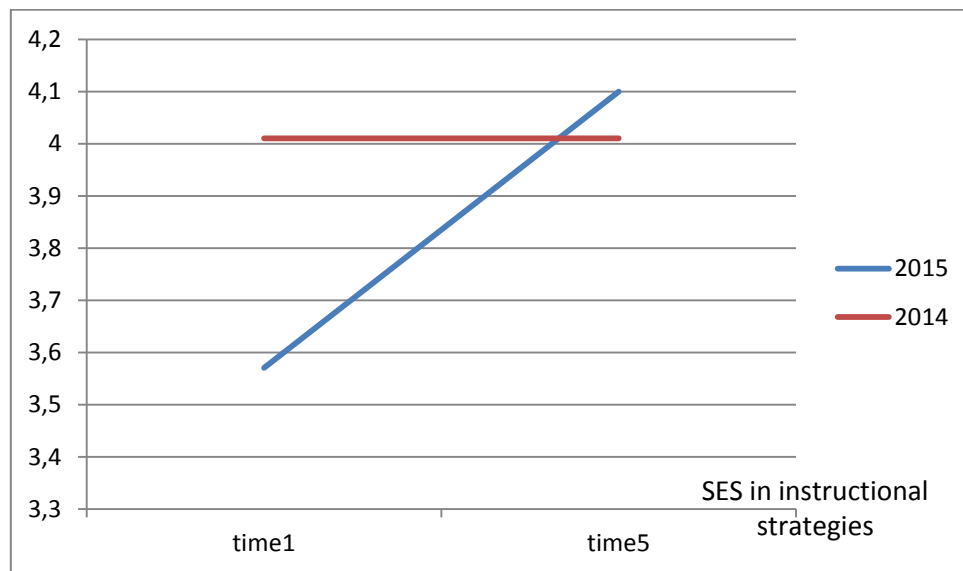


Figure 12: Instructional strategies score pre- and post-teaching experience

The next step was to test the bias of time effect. Therefore, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted to confirm the effects of teaching experience on

self-efficacy on student engagement. Table 36 presents descriptive statistics on self-efficacy in instructional strategies of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 2 years.

Table 36

Mean Values for Self-efficacy in Instructional Strategies for 2015 graduates

Instructional Strategies Score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	52	3.81	.044
Time 2 (5 th semester)	52	3.94	.046
Time 3(6 th semester)	52	3.99	.058
Time 4(7 th semester)	52	3.98	.043
Time 5 (8th semester after teaching practice)	52	4.10	.043

Using Wilk's Lambda statistics, a repeated measures ANOVA test revealed a strong time effect on self-efficacy on instructional strategies ($\Lambda = .712$; $F = 13,229$; $p = .000$ partial eta squared= .288). A further post-hoc Tukey test indicated that there were important differences between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = $-.129$; $p = .000$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = $-.179$; $p = .000$); Time 4 (*Mean difference* = $-.172$; $p = .000$); and Time 5 (*Mean difference* = $-.233$; $p = .000$). Time 3 was not much different from Time 4 (*Mean difference* = $-.050$; $p = .275$) and Time 4 (mean difference = $-.046$; $p = .143$); but from Time 5 (mean difference = $-.105$; $p = .001$). Time 3 was significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference* = $-.043$; $p = .143$). Time 4 was significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference* = $-.105$; $p = .001$). The developmental nature of instructional strategies over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 13 below.

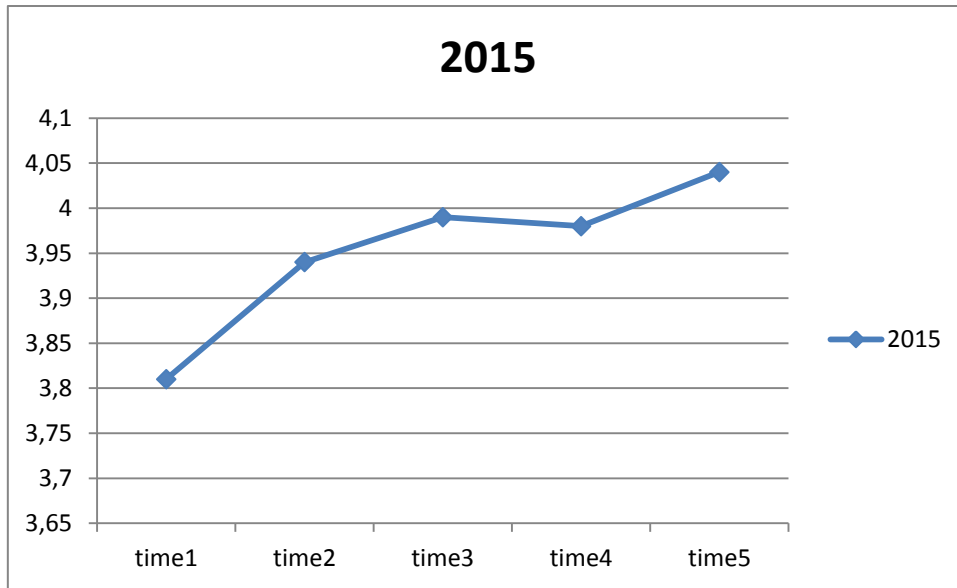


Figure 13: Development of self-efficacy on instructional strategies

1c: Does experience in teaching practice influence sense of self-efficacy in classroom management?

To find out whether there was any difference in sense of self-efficacy in classroom management during the data collection an independent-samples t-test and MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The scores for both groups' perceptions of self-efficacy in classroom management can be seen in Table 41.

Table 37

Classroom Management Scores of 2014 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	84	4.03	.52	-5,495	169	,000
2 (2015 Graduates)	87	3.60	.50			

An examination of Table 40 above indicates that 2014 graduates obtained higher levels of teacher sense of self efficacy in classroom management (*Mean* = 4.03; *SD* = . 54) than those students who had just finished their 4th semester in the department (*Mean* = 3.60; *SD* = . 50). The difference was statistically significant at $p < .01$ ($t = -5,495$). Such a finding

implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to have an impact on student teachers' sense of self-efficacy in classroom management.

To elaborate such a difference, qualitative data gathered from interviews were gone through once again. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was spoken out by student 5 (2014 female)"... since I was the teacher in the class and there was no university lecturer marking my performance I felt relaxed and faced no problem in classroom management..."

Student 3 (2014 female) looked at classroom management from a different point of view and claimed that "... in the beginning I found classroom management problematic since I did not know the students and their interests' but in time as I leaner about them classroom management started to become better..." Similar comment was done by student 6 (2014 female) "...in the beginning classroom management was difficult to cope with because the students were well equipped with general knowledge of the world. This made me become aware of the fact that a teacher should regularly update herself later, as we know each other I became better at classroom management and gained sense of self-efficacy on it..." a similar comment was made by student 7 (2014 female) "...in the beginning of the term I was anxious about the classroom management but as I gained information about the students there was a relaxed and warm atmosphere which provided sense of self-efficacy to me in classroom management..." From the interview data the effect of teaching practice on student teachers efficacy on instructional strategies is clearly visible.

To confirm the comparison, the scores for sense of self-efficacy in classroom management of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test. Table below presents the comparison of sense of self efficacy in classroom management scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates.

Table 38

Comparison of Sense of self-efficacy in Classroom Management Scores of 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of the study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	84	4.03	.52			
2015 Graduate	97	4.01	.41	-265	179	.791

An examination of Table 41 above shows that 2015 graduates, having experienced teaching practice and school experience, approximated very closely to the 2014 group (*Mean* = 4.03; *SD* = .52) and seemed to have developed their sense of self-efficacy in classroom management (*Mean* = 4.01; *SD* = .32).

To make a more detailed confirmation of this development qualitative data gathered from interviews were viewed. This was depicted by student13 (2015 female) "...classroom management needs to be reinforced with practice... when I had the theoretical part of classroom management I was sure that I could easily manage a class but in the real classroom setting at first I was quite anxious then as I was able to apply the strategies and saw them working I gained efficacy...". A similar statement was given by student 11 (2015 male) who mentioned that"... when I faced a problem in classroom management I lost my motivation and concentrated on the problem to solve it... but I feel more confident and don't stop teaching instead I'm using strategies to overcome the problem..." Student 19 (2015 female) suggested an idea "... I'm trying to create a character as a teacher in the class and gain the students' respect and love and am able to manage the class... this was I overcame my anxiety and am very happy and have sense of self-efficacy..." All these quotations make the effect of teaching practice on classroom management clear.

Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($A = .516$; $F = 72,267$; $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .484; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was found to be statistically significant ($F = 60,798$; $p = .001$; partial eta squared = .282) while the difference between the two groups appeared to be insignificant when both groups gained the status of 'graduates' ($F = 2,524$; $p = .114$; partial eta squared = .016). The level of 2015 graduates' sense of self-efficacy in classroom management developed as they completed the school experience and teaching practice courses. Table 42 below represents mean values for both 2014-2015 graduates of student teachers at different times of measurement.

Table 39

Mean Values for Self-efficacy in Classroom Management for 2014 and 2015

Classroom Management	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	84	4.03	.52	87	3.60	.50
Time 5*	84	4.03	.52	97	4.01	.41

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, classroom management strategies mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Figure 14 illustrates the varying levels of sense of self efficacy in classroom management of the two groups across different times of measurement.

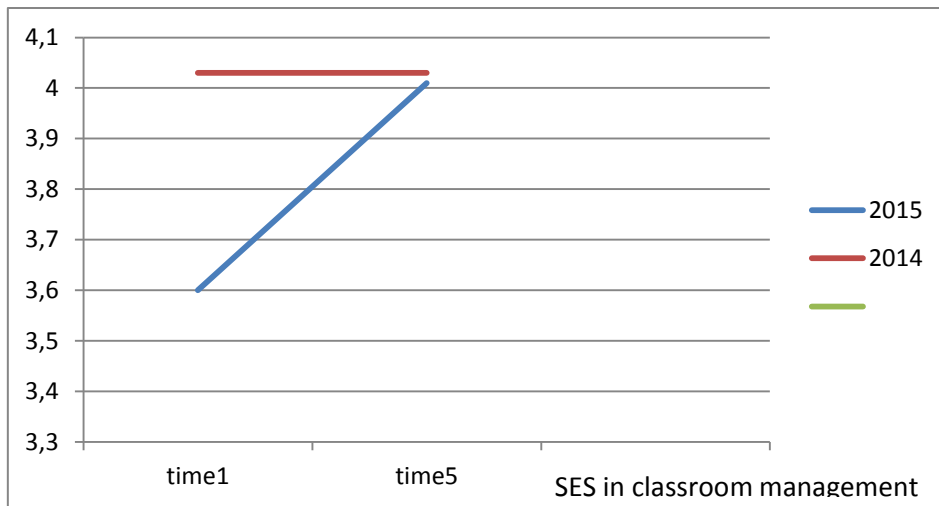


Figure 14: Self-efficacy score on classroom management pre- and post-teaching experience.

To confirm the above findings and the effects of teaching experience on self-efficacy in classroom management, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 40 presents descriptive statistics on instructional strategies of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 2 years.

Table 40

Mean Values for Classroom Management of 2015 Graduates

Classroom Management Scores	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	49	3.83	.50
Time 2 (5 th semester)	49	3.96	.37
Time 3(6 th semester)	49	3.93	.42
Time 4(7 th semester)	49	4.04	.41
Time 5 (8th semester after teaching practice)	49	3.96	.37

Using Wilk's Lambda statistics, a repeated measures ANOVA test revealed a strong time effect on self-efficacy in classroom management ($\Lambda = .695$; $F = 14,041$; $p = .000000$ partial eta squared= .305). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that important differences were apparent between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.125; $p = .000$); Time 3 (*Mean*

difference = -.102; p = .000); Time 4 (*Mean difference = -.204; p = .000*); and Time 5 (*Mean difference = -.133; p = .000*). Time 3 (*Mean difference = -.034; p = .659*) was not much different from Time 4 (*Mean difference = -.023; p = .413*); but different from Time 5 (*Mean difference = -.008; p = .757*). Time 3 did not differ much from Time 4 (*Mean difference = -.079; p = .002*) but was significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference = -.008; p = .757*). Time 4 was significantly lower than Time 5 (*Mean difference = -.079; p = .002*). The developmental nature of classroom management scores over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 15 below.

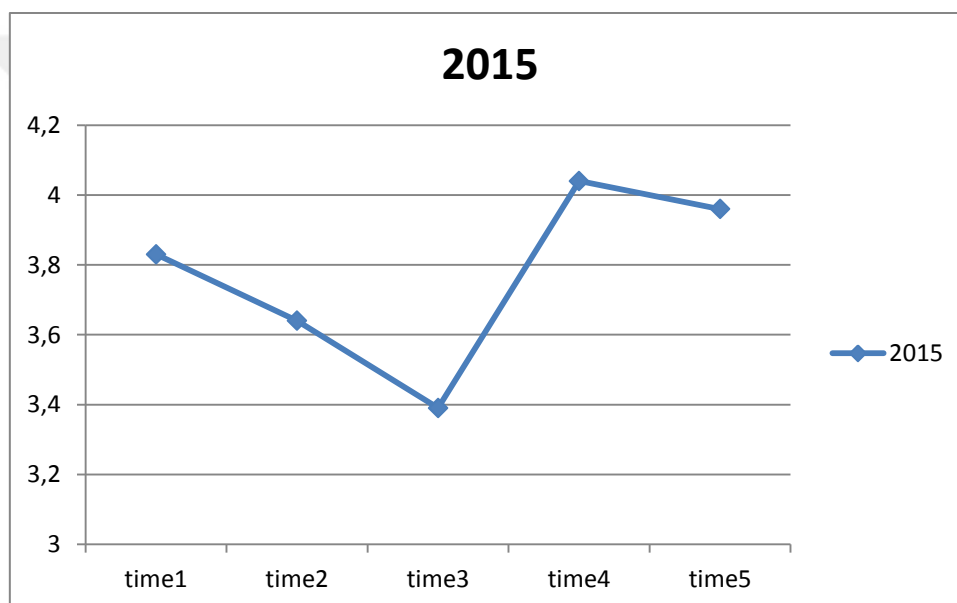


Figure 15: Development of self-efficacy on classroom management.

Summary of the findings related to the development of self-efficacy

This section generally concentrated on the influence of school experience and teaching practice on self-perceived self-efficacy. The results showed that school experience and teaching practice courses contributed positively to the development of teacher candidates' self-efficacy over the time of data collection. When the first data was collected there was a significant difference between the 2014 and 2015 graduates. Over the period of data collection this difference disappeared and the 2015 graduates reached higher levels of

perceived self-efficacy. This may mean that the group developed themselves and learned how to engage students, to use instructional strategies and classroom management better.

Another construct that was thought to have a role in teacher identity construction was emotional intelligence. The second research question focused on the influence of teaching practice on teacher candidates' emotional intelligence.

Research Question 2: Does experience in teaching practice influence the emotional intelligence of teacher candidates?

To answer this question, independent-samples t-test and MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The groups' emotional intelligence scores can be seen in Table 41.

Table 41

Emotional Intelligence Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	80	3.80	.42	-8,521	169	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	90	3.37	.20			

An examination of Table 41 above indicates that 2014 graduates, having undertaken teaching experience, manifested higher levels of teacher emotional intelligence (*Mean* = 3.80; *SD* = .42) than those students who had just finished their 4th semester in the department (*Mean* = 3.37; *SD* = .20). The difference was statistically significant at $p < .01$ ($t = -8,521$). Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to have an effect on student teachers emotional intelligence.

To sift such a difference, qualitative data gathered from interviews were examined. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was spoken out by student 10 (2014 female) "... as I shared my teaching practice

experiences with my practicum group I started to develop empathy with them and realized that I was doing something right and learned out of my mistakes....”, student 9 (2014 female) said that “...as I learned about the students in my classes I was more able to see their point of views, interests and hobbies... these were important to create a colourful learning environment....” A similar argument was given by student 8 (2014 female) “... I started to think what kind of activities’ I would like have in English classes if I was a student...” From the interview data the impact of teaching practice on emotional intelligence is clearly visible.

To affirm the comparison, emotional intelligence scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 42

Comparison of Emotional Intelligence Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	80	3.80	.43			
2015 Graduate	97	3.91	.35	1.889	177	.060

An examination of Table 42 above shows that 2015 graduates, once they had completed the teaching practice and school experience courses, seem to have developed higher levels of emotional intelligence (*Mean* = 3.91; *SD* = .35) than the 2014 graduates (*Mean* = 3.80; *SD* = .43).

To have a more detailed confirmation of this development qualitative data gathered from interviews were looked over. Student 21 (2015 male) voiced his concern about teaching “... as I started teaching practice my prejudice against teaching weakened, now I love teaching so much...” A similar view was shared by student 14 (2015 female) “...teaching

experience taught me imagining yourself in your students' shoes is very helpful in building the bridge between yourself and the students...and to my mind teaching means making sacrifices from your time and prepare a rich and colourful lesson for your students..." From the interview data the effect of teaching practice on student teachers emotional intelligence is evidently visible. Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .513$; $F = 74,171$; $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .487; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was found to be statistically significant ($F = 62,512$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .285) while the difference between two groups appeared to have been insignificant when both groups gained the status of 'graduates' ($F = 2,524$; $p = .114$; partial eta squared = .016). 2015 graduates' emotional intelligence level developed as they completed the school experience and teaching practice courses. Table 43 below represents mean values for both 2014-2015 graduates of student teachers at different times of measurement.

Table 43

Mean values for Emotional Intelligence of both 2014 and 2015 graduates

Emotional Intelligence	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	80	3.80	.42	77	3.38	.21
Time 5*	80	3.80	.42	77	3.90	.35

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, emotional intelligence mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Figure 16 illustrates the varying levels of emotional intelligence of two groups across different times of measurement.

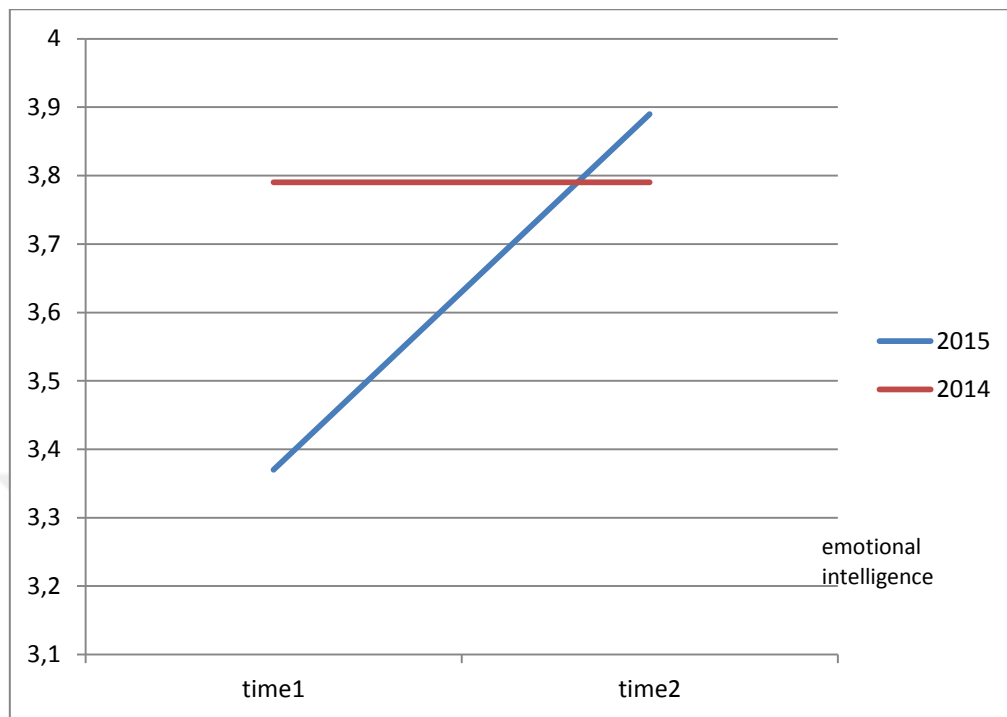


Figure 16: Emotional intelligence score pre- and post-teaching experience.

Findings indicate that school experience and teaching practice are likely to contribute to the development of emotional intelligence. Since such analysis is cross-sectional in nature it may be biased due to the time effect. Therefore, to confirm the effects of teaching experience on emotional intelligence a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 46 presents descriptive statistics on self-efficacy of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 5 semesters.

Table 44

Emotional Intelligence Scores of 2015 Graduates

Emotional Intelligence Score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	43	3.37	.20
Time 2 (5th semester)	43	3.79	.34
Time 3(6th semester)	43	3.86	.35
Time 4(7th semester)	43	3.84	.34
Time 5 (8th semester after teaching practice)	43	3,91	.35

Wilk's Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test revealed a strong time effect on self-efficacy for classroom management ($\Lambda = .449$ $F = 11;980$ $p = .000$ partial eta squared= .551). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that important differences existed between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.423; $p = .000$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.450; $p = .000$); Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.452; $p = .000$); and Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.458; $p = .000$). The developmental nature of instructional strategies over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 17 below.

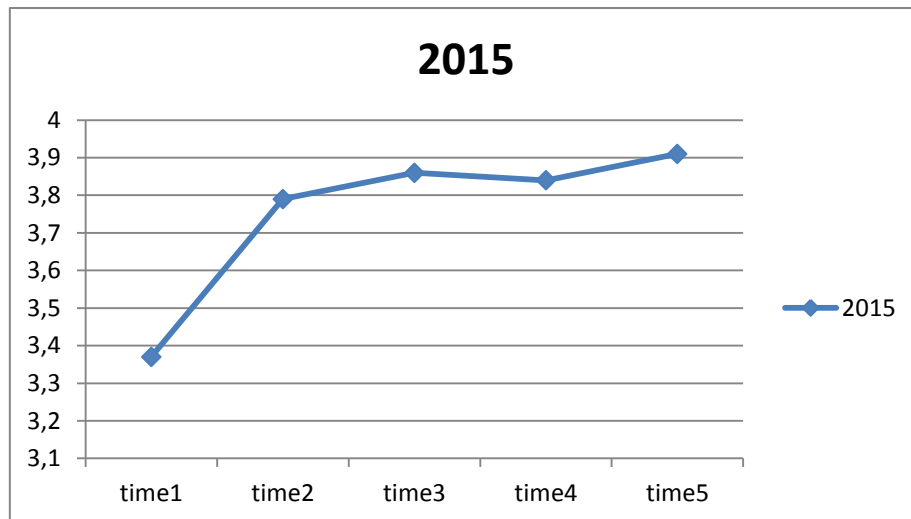


Figure 17: Development of Emotional Intelligence of 2015 graduates.

As mentioned before the emotional intelligence inventory is composed of 5 composite scales which are intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptation, stress management and general mood. These scales will be examined one by one in the following sections.

2a: Does experience in teaching practice influence intrapersonal intelligence?

An independent-samples t-test and MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted to answer this question. Though the 2015 group had not yet received school experience and teaching practice courses their score ($Mean= 3.32$; $SD=.19$) is slightly higher than ($Mean= 3.28$; $SD= .27$) than that of the 2014 group. Since the 2014 group has been taking field courses such as methodology, teaching language skills and teaching practice courses for several semesters, seem to be scoring higher in intrapersonal skills than 2015 group who took field courses only one semester. Microteachings and the teaching experiences undertaken have provided pre-service teachers with higher self-regard, self-actualization, assertiveness and independence.

To examine such a difference, qualitative data gathered from interviews were gone through. An examination of the interview data supported the statistical difference between the two groups. This was spoken out by student 3 (2014 female) "...I believe that the teaching practice made me conscious about teaching and teaching knowledge, personally I felt the

development in problem solving, classroom management and so on...” Student 6 (2014 female) also made a similar comment and stated that”...now personally I can evaluate and have a critical point of view of my own teaching...” Student 7 (2104 female) pointed the importance of internalization of teaching knowledge “... I became more conscious and I feel that my teaching knowledge is internalized after the teaching practice...” These remarks by students make it clear that the teaching experience had an effect on student intrapersonal emotional intelligence.

Table 45

Intrapersonal Intelligence Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	77	3.28	.19	.996	166	.321
2 (2015 Graduates)	91	3.32	.27			

To have a strong comparison of the results, intrapersonal intelligence scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 46

Comparison of Intrapersonal Intelligence Scores of 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	77	3.28	.19	14.461	172	.000
2015 Graduate	97	4.05	.43			

The t -test results revealed a statistically significant difference in favour of 2015 graduates. When the 2015 group gained the status of “graduates” they had higher scores (*Mean*= 4.05; *SD*= .43) of intrapersonal intelligence than the 2014 group (*Mean*= 3.28; *SD*= .19).

To better confirm the development qualitative data gathered from interviews were viewed. This was verbalized by student 13 (2015female student) who argued “...I personally learned so much out of teaching practice, saw my mistakes and now am able to criticize my teaching about what to do next and what not to do...” Student 16 (2015 female) reported that “... she gained confidence and felt emotional growth in herself as she received positive feedback from her mentor...” These statements support that teaching experience had an impulse on students’ intrapersonal emotional intelligence.

To confirm the findings of individual independent samples t-test procedures Wilks’ Lambda and MANOVA test was used. The result was ($\Lambda = .437$; $F = 98.373$ $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .563; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was not statistically significant ($F = 1.007$; $p = .317$; partial eta squared = .006) while the difference between two groups appeared to be statistically significant when both groups gained the status of ‘graduates’ ($F = 2198.017$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .563). The 2015 graduates’ intrapersonal intelligence level developed to a greater extent as they completed school experience and teaching practice courses. Table 47 below represents mean values for both 2014 and 2015 graduates at different times of measurement.

Table 47

Mean Values for Intrapersonal Intelligence for both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Intrapersonal Intelligence	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	77	3.28	.19	79	3.32	.27
Time 5*	77	3.28	.19	79	4.03	.43

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, intrapersonal intelligence mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores. Figure 18 illustrates the varying levels of emotional intelligence of two groups across different times of measurement.

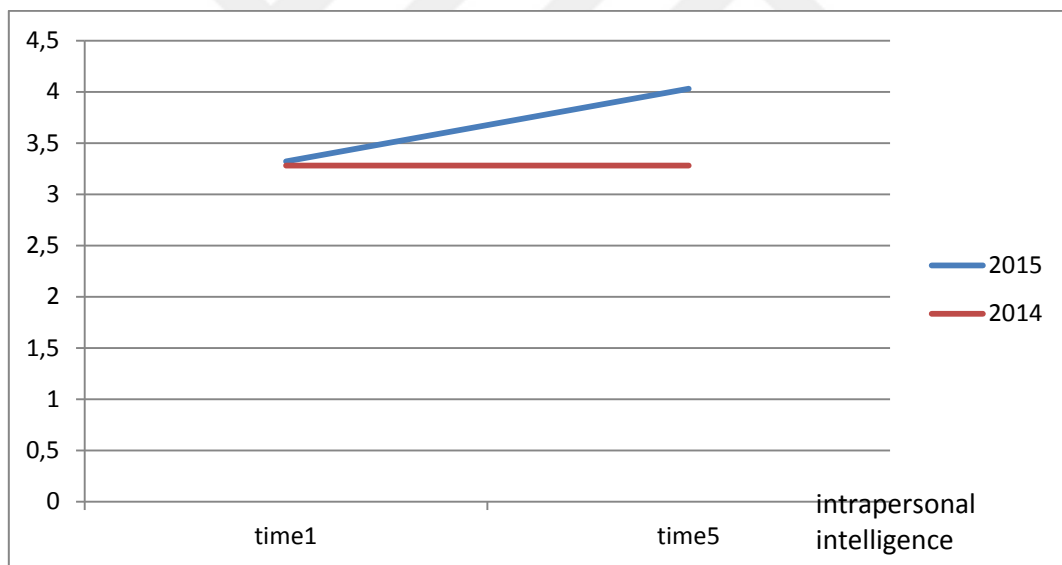


Figure 18: Intrapersonal intelligence score pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that school experience and teaching practice are likely to contribute to the development of intrapersonal intelligence. To see whether time has an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on intrapersonal intelligence a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted.

Table 48 presents descriptive statistics on intrapersonal intelligence of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 5 semesters.

Table 48

Intrapersonal Intelligence Scores of 2015 Graduates

Intrapersonal Intelligence Score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	49	3.36	.045
Time 2 (5 th semester)	49	3.93	.054
Time 3(6 th semester)	49	3.94	.055
Time 4(7 th semester)	49	3.95	.061
Time 5 (8th semester after teaching practice)	49	3.99	.058

Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test revealed the time effect on intrapersonal intelligence ($\Lambda = .400$ $F = 16,871$ $p = .000$ partial eta squared= .600). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that important differences were apparent between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.577; $p = .000$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.580; $p = .000$); Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.596; $p = .000$); and Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.636; $p = .000$).

When the second, third, fourth and the fifth data sets were compared to the first one there was no significant difference between them. The mean scores were close to each other as can be seen in the table above. It seems that, when the students finished the second year and became third year students and started to receive field courses more intensely they went through a maturation process and in the last year faced future anxiety. At the same time, the school experience and teaching practice courses apparently contributed to their personal self-development (*Mean difference* = -.636; $p = .000$).

The developmental nature of intrapersonal intelligence over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 19 below.

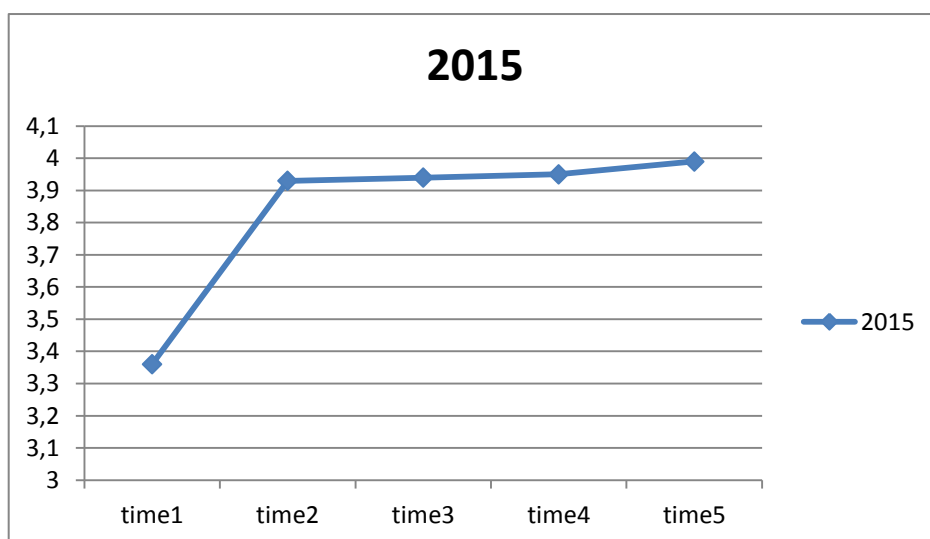


Figure 19: Development of intrapersonal intelligence of 2015 graduates.

2b: Does experience in teaching practice influence interpersonal intelligence?

This research question deals with the interpersonal intelligence of the students. To see whether there is a difference between the groups independent samples t-tests were carried out. Then to test the strength of the results a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The 2014 graduates seem to have had a higher level of interpersonal intelligence ($Mean= 3.98$; $SD=.50$) than 2015 group ($Mean= 3.57$; $SD=.27$). At the beginning of the data collection, 2014 graduates seem to be more mature than the 2015 group in terms of interpersonal intelligence. Two groups' interpersonal intelligence scores can be seen in table below.

Table 49

Interpersonal Intelligence Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of Study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	82	3.98	.50	-6.842	171	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	91	3.57	.27			

To further examine such a difference, qualitative data gathered from interviews were visited. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was spoken out by student 11 (2014 male) "... at the beginning things were difficult because students did not accept us as their real teachers, but in time we gained their respect and interpersonal relationships developed..." Similarly, student 9 (2014 female) emphasized that "...interpersonal intelligence has an important role in providing the students a feeling of achievement..." Likewise, student 7 (2014 female) said that "... teaching became easier after I established interpersonal relationships with the students..." These data makes the influence of teaching practice on interpersonal emotional intelligence clear.

To have a strong comparison of the results, intrapersonal intelligence scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 50

Comparison of Interpersonal Intelligence Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of the study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	77	3.98	.50			
2015 Graduates	97	4.13	.37	2.250	177	.026

The t-test results revealed a statistically significant difference in favour of 2015 graduates. When the 2015 group gained the status of "graduates" they had higher scores (*Mean*= 4.13; *SD*= .37) of interpersonal intelligence than the 2014 group (*Mean*= 3.98; *SD*= .50). The statistical findings emphasized development in 2015 group's interpersonal emotional intelligence. To confirm the development qualitative data gathered from interviews were gone through. This was verbalized by student 16 (2015female student) who argued "...

establishing good interpersonal relationship with my mentor increased my self-efficacy and emotional side of teaching was strengthened... on the other hand establishing good interpersonal relationships with the students enabled me to choose the right activities for them, since the students sincerely answered my questions on their interests and hobbies... ” This data supports the effect of teaching practice on interpersonal intelligence.

To confirm these findings Wilks’ Lambda and a MANOVA test were used. The result was ($\Lambda = .430$; $F = 104,519$ $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .570; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was statistically significant ($F = 40.477$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .203). When both groups gained the status of ‘graduates’ the difference was still significant but this time in favour of the 2015 group ($F = 4.668$; $p = .032$; partial eta squared = .029). 2015 graduates’ interpersonal intelligence level developed to a greater extent as they completed the school experience and teaching practice courses. Table 54 below represents mean values for both 2014 and 2015 graduates at different times of measurement.

Table 51

Mean Values for Interpersonal Intelligence of both 2014 and 2015 graduates

Interpersonal Intelligence	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	77	3.98	.50	91	3.57	.27
Time 5*	77	3.98	.50	97	4.13	.37

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, interpersonal intelligence mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Figure 20 illustrates the varying levels of interpersonal intelligence of two groups across different times of measurement.

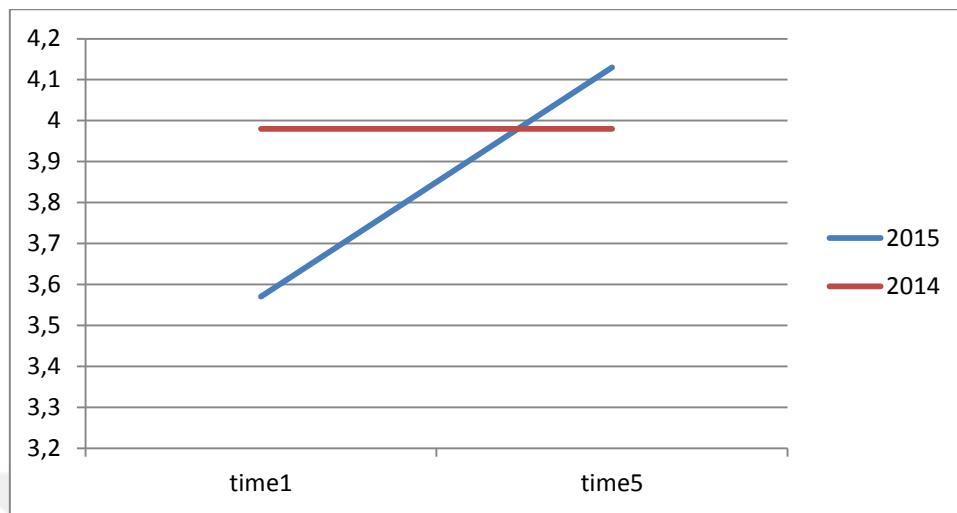


Figure20: Interpersonal intelligence score pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that students developed their interpersonal intelligence after completing the school experience and teaching practice courses. To see whether time has an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on intrapersonal intelligence a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 52 presents descriptive statistics on interpersonal intelligence of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 5 semesters.

Table 52

Interpersonal Intelligence Scores of 2015 Graduates

Interpersonal Intelligence Score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	52	3.59	.031
Time 2 (5 th semester)	52	4.01	.038
Time 3(6 th semester)	52	4.00	.044
Time 4(7 th semester)	52	4.00	.039
Time 5 (8th semester after teaching practice)	52	4.07	.033

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a strong time effect on interpersonal intelligence ($\Lambda = .314$ $F = 26.2381$ $p = .000$ partial eta squared= .686). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that important differences were found between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.417; $p = .000$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.411; $p = .000$); Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.413; $p = .000$); and Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.480; $p = .000$).

An examination of the Time 2, 3, 4 and 5 revealed closer results to each other and no significant difference was observed between them. This may be; again, a result of maturation in the students since they started to take field courses and completed the school experience and teaching practice courses.

The developmental nature of interpersonal intelligence over the course of data collection is illustrated in Figure 21 below.

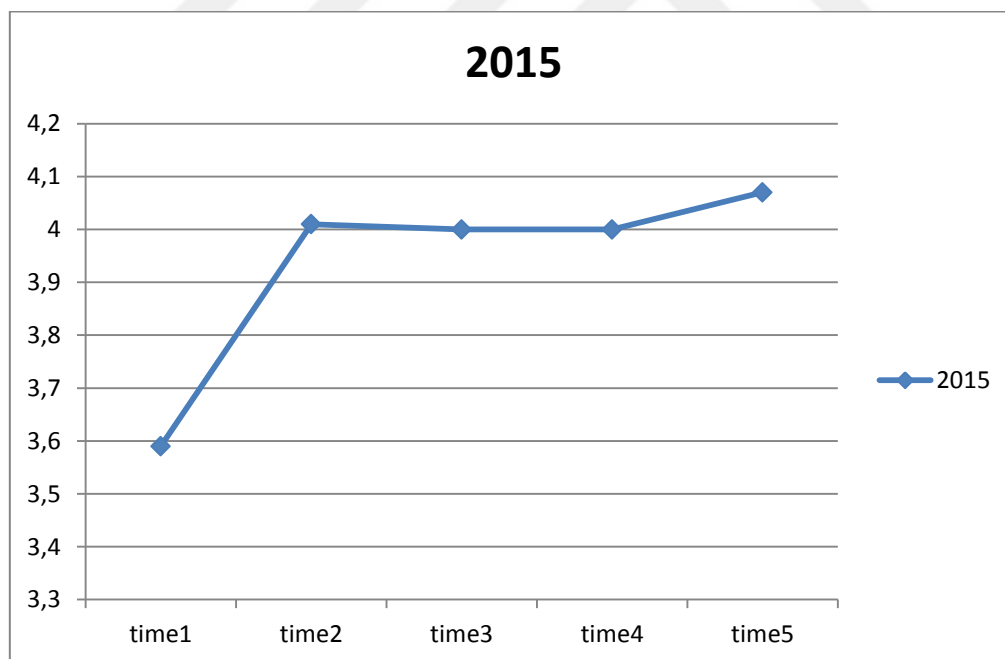


Figure 21: Development of interpersonal intelligence of 2015 graduates

2c: Does experience in teaching practice influence adaptability?

This research question deals with the adaptability of the students as a part of emotional intelligence. To see whether teaching practice influences adaptability of the students, first of

all independent samples t-test was run. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The two groups' adaptability scores can be seen in Table 53.

In the first data set, 2014 graduates seem to have higher adaptability scores and seemed to be more adaptable in problem solving, reality testing and flexibility than 2015 (*Mean*= 3.60; *SD*=.54) than the 2015 group did as second year students (*Mean*= 3.31; *SD*=.28).

To explain such a difference qualitative data were examined. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was spoken out by student 10 (2014 female) "... teaching practice taught me to be adaptable in activity choice and supporting the students' weaker skills... I understood teaching requires flexibility as well, everything does not smoothly work as told in the theoretical courses..." Likewise, student 7 (2014 female) expanded that "... initially adapting the book and materials to the class a bit problematic but in the course of the teaching practice I learned how to overcome such difficulty..." These statements support that the teaching practice had an influence on adaptability.

Table 53

Adaptability Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	3.60	.54	-4.469	171	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	78	3.31	.28			

The adaptability scores of the 2014 and 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 54

Comparison of Adaptability Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	3.60	.54			
2015 Graduate	78	3.71	.44	1.477	178	.141

The t -test results did not reveal a statistically significant difference between the groups. However, the 2015 graduates improved their adaptability scores (*Mean*= 3.71; *SD*= .44) and which were closer to those of the 2014 graduates (*Mean*= 3.60; *SD*= .54).

The 2015 group developed themselves in adaptability after taking the teaching practice course. What follows are examples of student teachers comments that supports the effect of teaching practice on adaptability. This was uttered by student 16 (2015 female) "... after performing micro-teaching and completing teaching practice courses now I'm more conscious and feel that I can solve problems easily and became flexible in teaching..." Similarly, student 17 (2015 male) verbalized that "... he learned what being adaptable means and need for adaptability after he met the students in the real classes, therefore teaching practice is so valuable for teacher candidates..." These qualitative data reveal the effect of teaching practice on adaptability.

Wilks' Lambda and MANOVA test were used to confirm these findings. The result was ($\Lambda = .765$; $F = 24.231$ $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .235; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was statistically significant ($F = 18.237$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .103). When both groups graduated the difference between the groups was insignificant ($F = 2.140$; $p = .146$; partial eta squared = .013). The 2015 graduates' adaptability scores became higher

as they completed the school experience and teaching practice courses. Table 57 below represents mean values for both 2014 and 2015 graduates at different times of measurement.

Table 55

Mean values for Adaptability of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Adaptability	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	3.60	.54	78	3.31	.28
Time 5*	83	3.60	.54	78	3.71	.44

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, adaptability mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Figure 22 illustrates the varying levels of adaptability of two groups across different times of measurement.

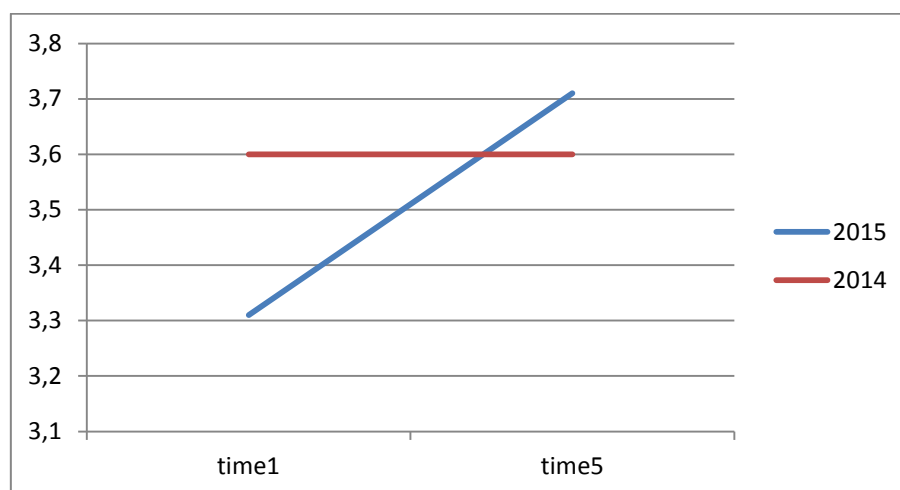


Figure 22: Adaptability scores pre- and post-teaching experiences.

Findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of 2015 students, with respect to adaptability as a part of emotional intelligence.

To see whether time has an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on adaptability, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted.

Table 56 presents descriptive statistics on adaptability of 2015 graduates measured over the course of data collection.

Table 56

Adaptability Scores of 2015 Graduates

Adaptability Score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4 th semester)	50	3.31	.29
Time 2 (5 th semester)	50	3.56	.41
Time 3(6 th semester)	50	3.61	.39
Time 4(7 th semester)	50	3.62	.46
Time 5 (8 th semester)	50	3.70	.44

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a strong time effect on adaptability ($\Lambda = .668$ $F = 5.724$ $p = .000$ partial eta squared= .332). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that important differences were apparent between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.255; $p = .001$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.313; $p = .000$); Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.315; $p = .000$); and Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.393; $p = .000$).

An examination of the Time 2-3-4 and 5 revealed similar results to each other and no significant difference was observed between them. The 2015 students started to increase their scores after commencing the field courses and reached their peak level when completing school experience and teaching practice.

The developmental nature of adaptability over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 23 below.

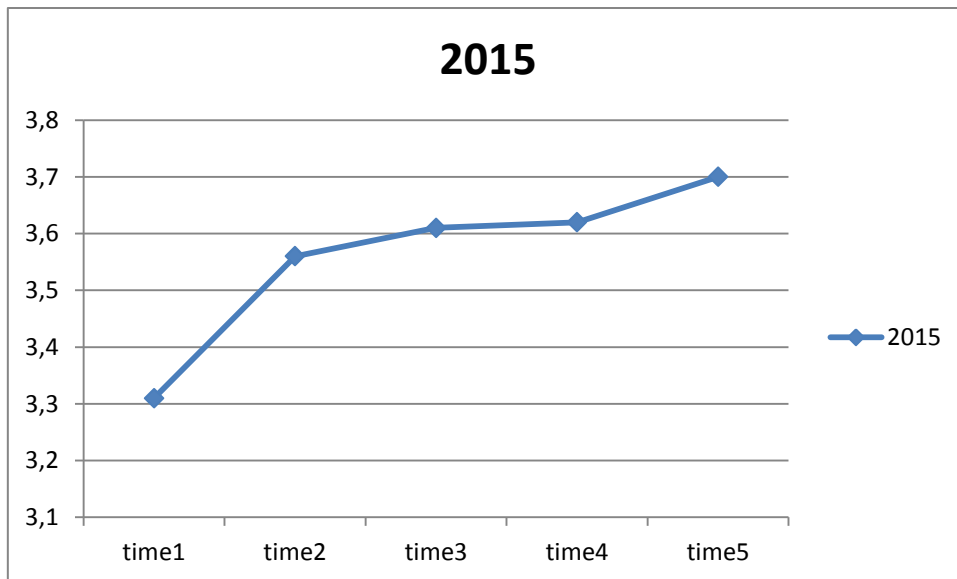


Figure 23: Development of adaptability of 2015 graduates.

2d: Does experience in teaching practice influence stress management?

This research question deals with the stress management of the students. To see whether there is a difference between the groups' scores an independent samples t-test was run. Then to test the strength of the results, a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted.

The 2014 group seem to have a slightly higher score for stress management ($Mean= 3.16$; $SD=.65$) than the 2015 group ($Mean= 3.14$; $SD=.35$). This difference may be due to completing the school experience and teaching practice courses and facing a real teaching environment.

To elaborate such a difference qualitative data were viewed. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was said by student 11 (2014 male) "... in my first teaching practice attempts I believed I had theory in my mind but when it came to practice I forgot everything I knew and did totally different things because of stress.... Later as the number of practice increased things settled down and I was better able to manage my stress..." Student 5 (2014 female) made a supporting statement "... I became better at withstanding adverse events and stressful situations without falling

apart by actively and positively coping with stress... I learned to manage my anger..." These make the effect of teaching practice on stress management clear.

Table 57

Stress Management Scores of 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	82	3.16	.65	-.265	171	.791
2 (2015 Graduates)	91	3.14	.35			

Furthermore, the stress management scores of the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 58

Comparison of Stress Management scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	82	3.16	.65	1.368	177	.168
2015 Graduate	97	3.28	.55			

T-test results did not reveal a statistically significant difference. Both groups' mean scores were close to each other. The 2014 graduates' scores were (*Mean*= 3.16; *SD*= .65) and 2015 graduates' scores were (*Mean*= 3.28; *SD*= .55). The school experience and teaching practice courses seem to contribute to both groups' stress management positively.

The 2015 group developed themselves in stress management after completing the teaching practice course. What follows are examples of student teachers comments that supports the effect of teaching practice on stress management. This was uttered by student 17

(2015 female) said that “... teaching practice helped me overcome my stress before every performance, I was able manage and monitor my teaching better...when unexpected things interrupted teaching I could remain calm and cope with stressful situations. These statements make clear the influence of teaching practice on stress management.

To have healthier results Wilks’ Lambda and a MANOVA test were used. The result was ($\Lambda = .991$; $F = 691$ $p = .503$) with a small effect size (partial eta squared = .009; Cohen 1988). The difference between the 2014 and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was not statistically significant ($F = 000$; $p = .989$; partial eta squared = .000). When both groups gained the status of ‘graduates’ the difference was still insignificant ($F = 1.029$; $p = .312$; partial eta squared = .006).

Table 59 below represents mean values for both 2014-2015 graduates of student teachers at different times of measurement.

Table 59

Mean Values for Stress Management of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Stress Management	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	82	3.16	.65	91	3.14	.35
Time 5*	82	3.16	.65	97	3.28	.55

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, stress management mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Figure 24 illustrates the varying levels of emotional intelligence of two groups across different times of measurement.

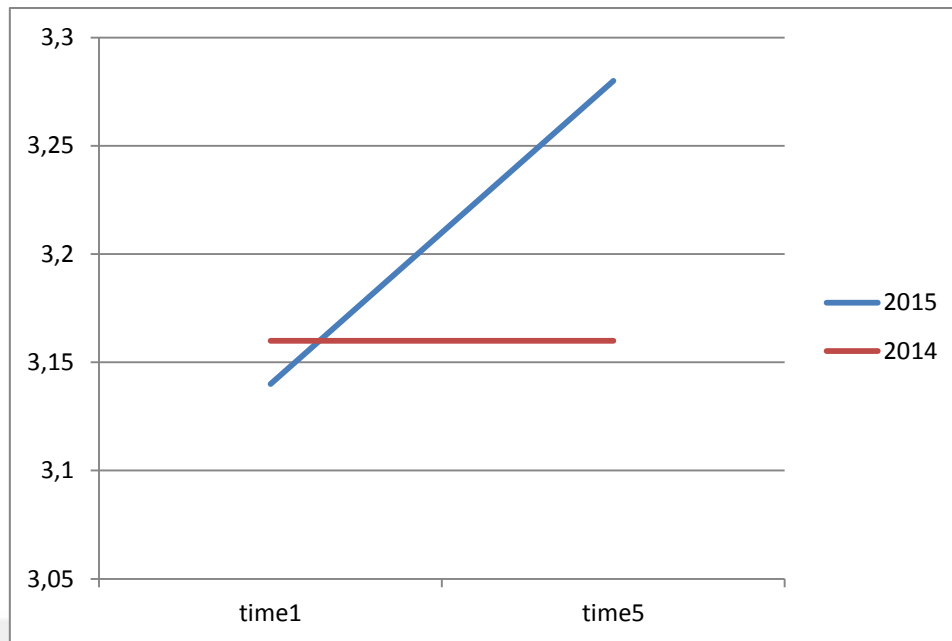


Figure24: Stress-management score pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that students developed their stress-management after completing the school experience and teaching practice courses. The students seem to have profited from these courses and better learned how to cope with stress. To see whether time has an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on stress management a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 62 presents descriptive statistics on the stress-management of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 5 semesters.

Table 60

Stress-management Scores of 2015 Graduates

Stress Management Scores	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	52	3.17	.39
Time 2 (5 th semester)	52	3.22	.53
Time 3(6 th semester)	52	3.24	.54
Time 4(7 th semester)	52	3.27	.65
Time 5 (8th semester)	52	3.29	.59

To test the time effect on the data, Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a small time effect on stress management ($\Lambda = .961$ $F = 492$ $p = .741$ partial eta squared= 039). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that there were not important differences between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.050; $p = .638$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.075; $p = .522$); Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.101; $p = .397$); and Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.123; $p = .296$).

This may be because of self-development and maturation as they students completed the school experience and teaching practice courses.

The development of stress management over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 25 below.

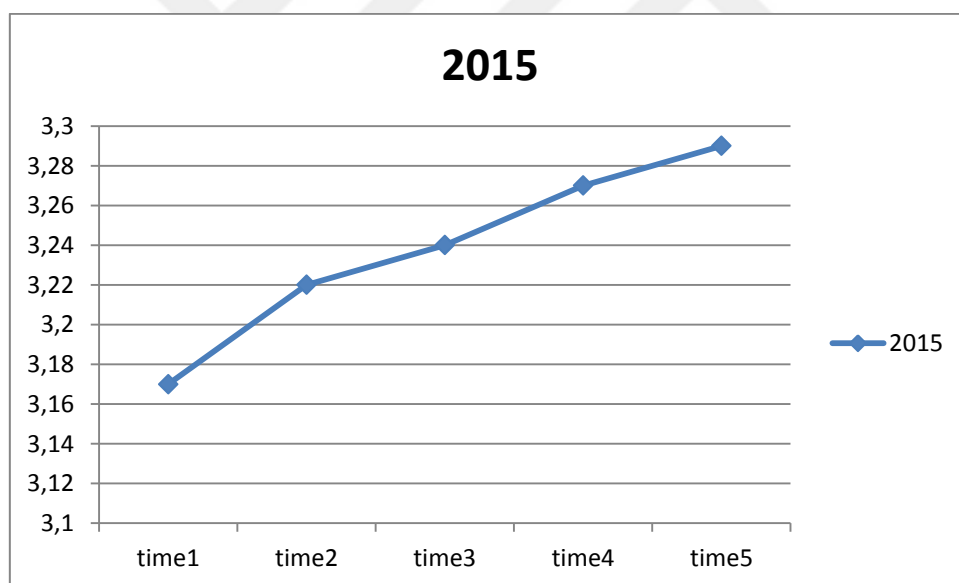


Figure 25: Development of stress management of 2015 graduates.

2e: Does experience in teaching practice influence general mood?

To explore this, multi-level comparisons of different groups (independent-samples t-test and MANOVA) and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The findings from these can be found below.

To test whether school experience and teaching practice influence general mood, the two groups of student teachers were compared through an independent samples t-test analysis. To answer the research question, 2015 graduates' first data, those without official teaching experience and 2014 graduates' final data, those with teaching experience were compared. Table 63 presents the findings with regards to differences between the two groups.

Table 61

Effects of School Experience and Teaching Practice on Student Teachers' General Mood

Year of the study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	85	4.03	.58	-7.406	173	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	90	3.49	.35			

An examination of Table 63 above indicates that the 2014 graduates, having experienced teaching practice scored higher for general mood (*Mean* =4.03; *SD* = .58) than those students who have just finished their 4th semester in the department (*Mean* = 3.49; *SD* = .35). The difference was statistically significant at $p < .01$ ($t = -7.406$). Such a finding implies that teaching practice affected students positively with regard to happiness and optimism.

To examine such a difference in detail, qualitative data gathered from interviews were visited. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was spoken out by student 11 (2014 male) "... when I first started teaching practice I was lacking experience and awareness of what real teaching situation and setting were and I had too much courage... in time things changed and got reshaped in me..... now I have a better mood because I'm more cautious and attentive in teaching..." Student 9 (2014 female) voiced similar comment "... after completing the teaching practice she felt pleased, overcame her anxiety, and started have a positive mood about teaching..." Similarly student 7 (2014 female) verbalized that "... after some time a warm and friendly atmosphere was

created in the class... I started to see brighter sides of teaching and enjoyed teaching despite some problems...” These statements support the impact of teaching practice on general mood of the teacher candidates’.

To complement such a comparison, the general mood scores of the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

2015 group developed themselves in general mood after completing the teaching practice course. What follows are examples of student teachers comments that supports the effect of teaching practice on stress management. This was specified by student 12 (2015 male) “... teaching practice helped me a lot in monitoring my teaching skills and feeling satisfied and happy with my performance...” Student 9 (2015 female) made a similar comment “...practicing theory placed everything in the right place and previously acquired teacher knowledge became concrete and I was able to see the positive sides of teaching.... teaching became fun for me...” The statements verbalized by interviewees make the effect of teaching practice on general mood of the teacher candidates visible. Table 64 illustrates the findings from this comparison

Table 62

Comparison of General Mood Scores of 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	85	4.03	.58			
2015 Graduate	97	4.10	.60	.742	178	.459

From the above findings, it can be inferred that the general mood scores of 2015 graduates was a little bit higher than those of the 2014 graduates, displaying a developmental nature of

the construct and revealing a time effect on the scores. Table 65 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while Figure 27 illustrates how 2015 graduates improved in their general mood over the course of data collection for this study.

By means of Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($A = .544$; $F = 66.302$; $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .456; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 52.500$; $p = .001$; partial eta squared = .248), while the difference between the two cohorts appeared to have been reduced to insignificance when both groups earned the status of 'graduates' ($F = 503$; $p = .479$; partial eta squared = .003).

Table 63

Mean Values for General Mood of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

General Mood	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	85	4.03	.58	90	3.49	.35
Time 5*	85	4.03	.58	97	4.10	.60

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, general mood mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Figure 26 illustrates the varying levels of general mood of two groups across different times of measurement.

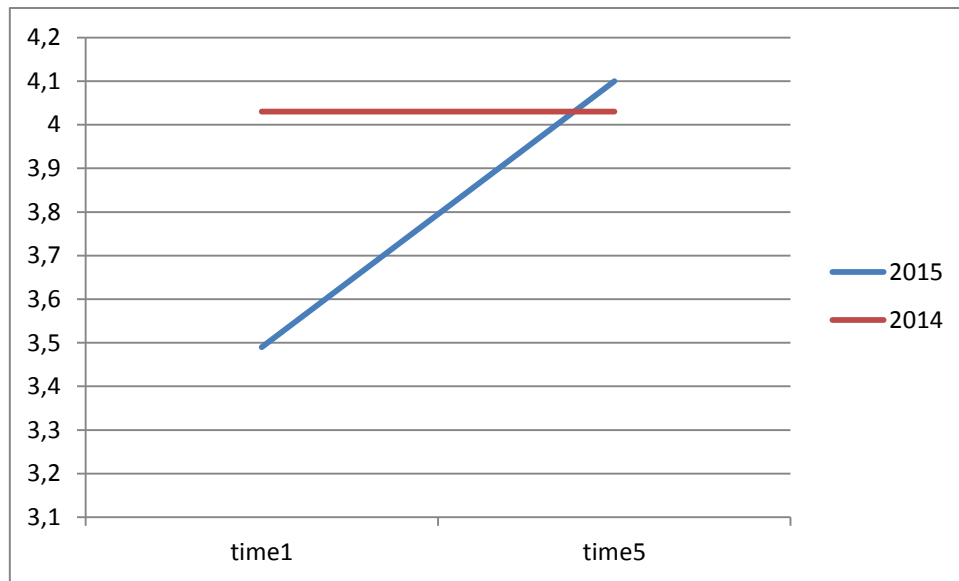


Figure 26: General mood score pre- and post-teaching experience.

Such findings indicate that school experience and teaching practice are likely to contribute to the positive development of general mood. However, it needs to be noted here that such analysis is cross-sectional in nature and may be biased due to a time effect. Therefore, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted to confirm the effects of teaching experience on general mood. Table 66 presents descriptive statistics on the general mood of 2015 graduates measured over the course of 2 years.

Table 64

Descriptive Statistics for the General Mood of 2015 Graduates

General Mood Score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (4th semester)	51	3.50	.38
Time 2 (5 th semester)	51	4.09	.49
Time 3(6 th semester)	51	4.06	.53
Time 4(7 th semester)	51	4.10	.54
Time 5 (8th semester)	51	4.14	.48

Wilk's Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test revealed a strong time effect on general mood ($\Lambda = .397$; $F = 17.846$; $p = <.01$ partial eta squared =.603). A further post-hoc Tukey test indicated that important differences were found between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.598; $p = .000$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.559; $p = .000$.); Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.605; $p = .000$); and Time 5 (*Mean difference* = -.636; $p = .000$). The 2015 graduates' development of general mood over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 27 below.

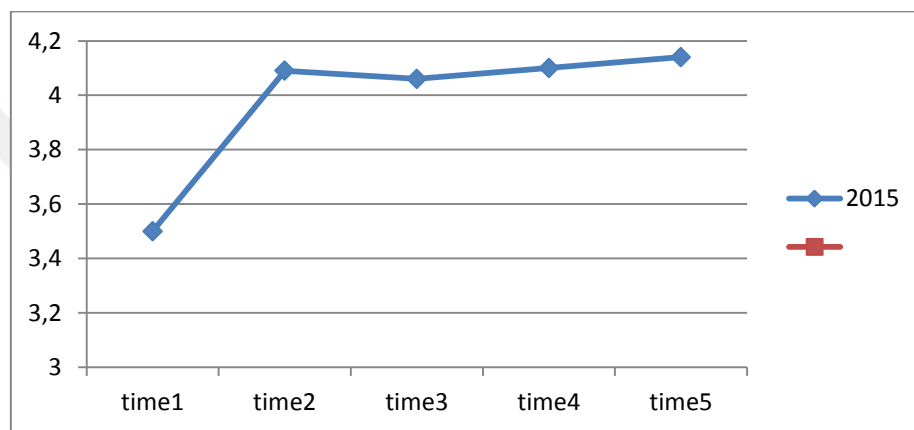


Figure 27: Development of general mood of the 2015 graduates.

Summary of the findings related to the development of emotional intelligence

This section generally focused on the influence of school experience and teaching practice on emotional intelligence. The results indicated that school experience and teaching practice courses contributed positively to the development of teacher candidates' emotional intelligence over the time of data collection. When the first data was collected, there was a significant difference between the 2014 and 2015 graduates. Over the time of data collection this difference grew smaller and disappeared and the 2015 graduates reached higher levels of emotional intelligence. This may justify the notion that the group developed themselves and learned how to handle intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptation, stress management and general mood issues more successfully as they had direct interaction with their own students in real teaching settings.

Another construct this study investigated having a role in teacher identity construction was teacher knowledge. Teacher knowledge will be studied in two different research questions since the study made use of two different modules for the data collection. The next research question deals with the influence of teaching practice on lesson planning.

Research Question 3: Does experience in teaching practice influence the teacher knowledge in lesson panning of teacher candidates?

Teacher knowledge was tested through 2 separate modules. The first module tested lesson planning and the second classroom management skills of the candidates. The third research question relates to the influence of teaching practice on lesson planning

An independent-samples t-test, a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted to answer this question.

The groups' teacher knowledge test /lesson planning scores can be seen in Table 67. Since the 2014 group had been taking field courses such as methodology, teaching language skills and teaching practice courses for several semesters, they seemed to be scoring higher than the 2015 group who had taken field courses for only one semester.

Table 65

Teacher knowledge (lesson planning) Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of Study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	85	59.97	8.76	-4.859	181	,000
2 (2015 Graduates)	98	53.40	9.42			

Table 67 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having undertaken teaching practice and school experience seem to have acquired higher levels of teacher knowledge in lesson planning (*Mean* = 59.97; *SD* = . 8.76) than the 2015 graduates (*Mean* = 53.40; *SD* = . 9.42). Such h finding indicates that the field courses they had taken previously gave them an idea of

how to prepare lesson plans and the experience acquired from school experience and teaching practice enabled them to gain higher scores.

To examine such a difference in lesson planning in general in detail, qualitative data gathered from interviews were reviewed. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was articulated by student 11 (2014 male) “... I knew all the steps in lesson planning very well and could prepare lesson plans efficiently, but the first time I put my plan into practice when unexpected situations happened I could not know what to do... then I realized what anticipated problems refer to in real life... this was a real gain out of teaching experience...” Student 1 (2014 male) specified that “... I became better at lesson planning as I attended teaching practice course... I had chance to observe real students in real classes and the items we wrote in lesson plans became more comprehensible to me...”

To confirm the comparison, teacher knowledge scores of the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 66

Comparison of Teacher Knowledge Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of Study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	85	59.97	8.76			
2015 Graduate	97	56.07	9.79	-2.359	179	.019

Analysis of the final data revealed that teacher knowledge/lesson planning scores of the 2015 graduates are lower than those of the 2014 graduates, but is still displaying a developmental nature of the construct and revealing a time effect on the scores.

To observe the development in lesson planning the qualitative data were checked. What follows are examples of student teachers comments that support the effect of teaching practice on lesson planning. This was specified by student 15 (2015 female) "... I find myself quite efficient in lesson planning... I believe I prepared enough number of plans and after the teaching practice things became clearer in lesson planning..." This comment underlines the impact of teaching practice on lesson planning. Table 69 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers. The study collected data from the 2015 group, on sense of self-efficacy and the emotional intelligence for five times whereas the data on teacher knowledge was collected for four times. The tables related to the teacher knowledge which present comparison of mean values of both the 2014 and the 2015 groups will label the data as Time 1 and Time 4.

Table 67

Mean Values for Lesson Planning for both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Lesson Planning	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	85	59.97	8.76	98	53.40	9.42
Time 4*	85	59.97	8.76	97	56.67	10.23

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, lesson planning mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 4 as constant scores.

Wilks' Lambda and a MANOVA test justified the findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .853$; $F = 14.334$; $p = .001$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .147; Cohen 1988). The difference between the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant

($F = 25.579$; $p = .001$; partial eta squared = .132) while the difference between the two cohorts appeared to have been reduced to be insignificant when both groups became ‘graduates’ ($F = 5.716$; $p = .018$; partial eta squared = .033). Figure 28 illustrates the varying levels of teacher knowledge of two groups across different times of measurement.

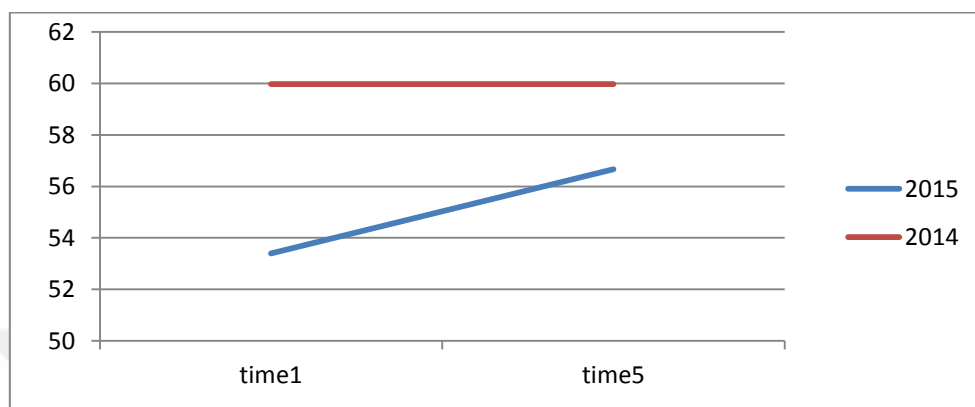


Figure 28: Teacher knowledge/lesson planning scores pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of the 2015 students’ teacher knowledge and lesson planning skills. To see whether time had an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on lesson planning, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 68 presents descriptive statistics on lesson planning of the 2015 graduates, measured over the course of data collection.

Table 68

Lesson Planning Scores of 2015 Graduates

Lesson Planning scores	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	70	52.01	9.62
Time 2(6 th semester)	70	52.90	8.67
Time 3(7 th semester)	70	55.24	10.65
Time 4 (8 th semester)	70	56	10.63

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a strong time effect on lesson planning ($\Lambda = .822$ $F = 4.827$ $p = .004$ partial eta squared= .178). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that important differences existed between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.443; $p = .385$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.1.614; $p = .007$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.1993; $p = .000$). An examination of the Time 2, 3, and 4 revealed closer results to each other and no significant difference was observed between them. The 2015 students started to increase their scores after studying the field courses and reached their peak level when completing school experience and teaching practice. The developmental nature of lesson planning over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 29 below.

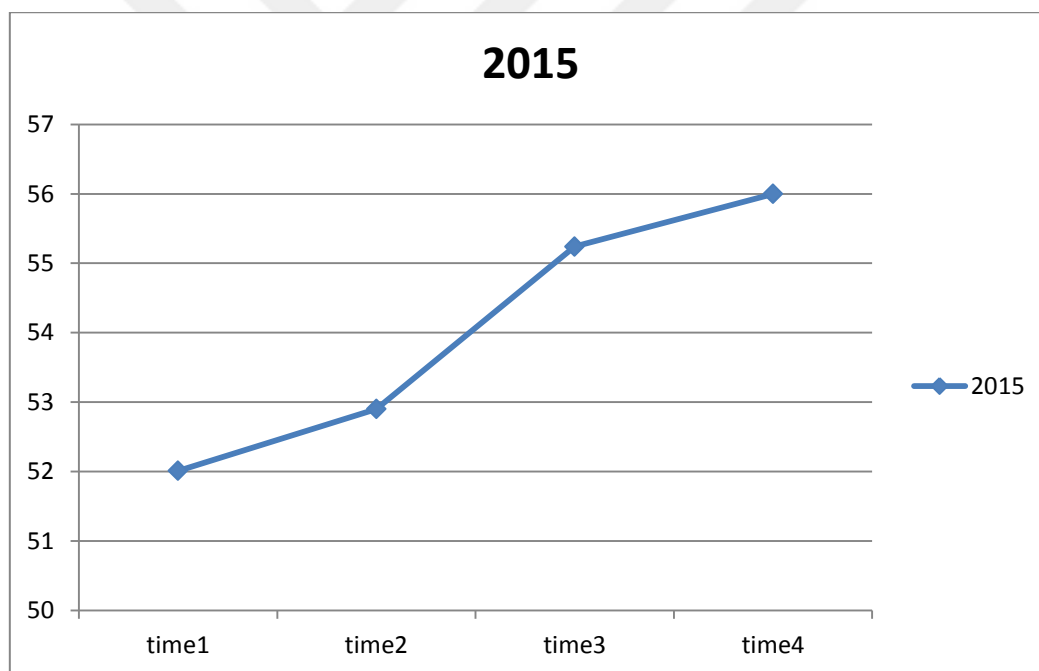


Figure 29: Development of lesson planning of 2015 graduates.

After representing the general view and the changes in lesson planning the study will focus on four major subcomponents of this feature. These subcomponents are labelled as materials and resources, planning, language teaching skills and assessment. The following research question will highlight the influence of teaching practice on lesson planning.

3a: Does experience in teaching practice influence the knowledge of materials and resources of teacher candidates?

To investigate this, firstly; an independent-samples t-test was carried out. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The first topic was about materials and resources knowledge. There were 34 questions in total on the subject. The groups' materials and resources scores are shown in the Table 71. Since the 2014 group was about to graduate and had been taking school experience and teaching practice courses, they seem to be scoring higher than the 2015 group who had taken field courses for only one semester.

Table 69

Materials and Resources Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	Df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	24.18	4.14	-3.636	179	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	98	21.90	4.23			

Table 71 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having carried out teaching practice and school experience, seem to have acquired a higher number of correct answers for teacher knowledge in materials and resources (*Mean* = 24.21; *SD* = 8.76) than the 2015 graduates (*Mean* = 21.90; *SD* = 9.42). Such a finding supports notion that the field courses they had taken previously and the lesson plans they prepared for the real-life teaching experiences gave them an idea of how to choose materials and resources, and the experience acquired from school experience and teaching practice enabled them to gain higher scores. To confirm the comparison, the materials and resources scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 70

Comparison of Materials and Resources Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	Df	p
2014 Graduates	83	24.18	4.14			
2015 Graduate	97	22.46	4.12	-2.779	178	.006

Table 72 above shows that the 2014 group had a higher score than the 2015 graduates. The 2015 group did not outperform 2014 graduates but their score displayed a developmental nature of the construct, revealing a time effect on the scores. Table 73 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while Figure 30 illustrates how 2015 graduates improved in their materials and resources knowledge over the course of data collection for this study. Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from an individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .915$; $F = 7.720$; $p = .001$) with a medium effect size (partial eta squared = .085; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 14.776$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .081) and it still remained significant between the two cohorts when both groups earned the status of 'graduates' ($F = 9.984$; $p = .002$; partial eta squared = .056).

Table 71

Mean Values for Materials and Resources for both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Materials and Resources	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	24.18	4.14	98	21.90	4.23
Time 4*	83	24.18	4.14	97	22.46	4.12

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, materials and resources mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 4 as constant scores. Figure 30 illustrates the varying levels of knowledge of materials and resources of two groups across different times of measurement.

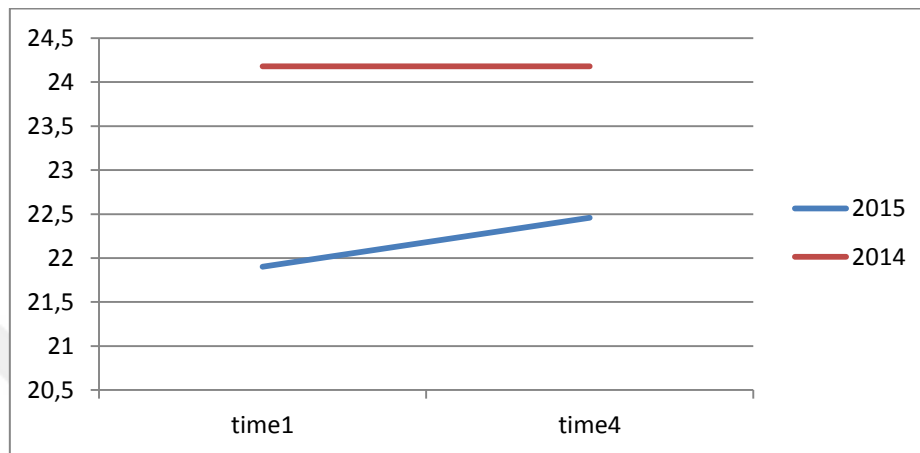


Figure 30: Knowledge of materials and resources score pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that the teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of 2015 students' teacher knowledge and materials and resources knowledge. To see whether time has an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on materials and resources knowledge a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 74 presents descriptive statistics on adaptability of 2015 graduates measured over the course of data collection.

Table 72

Materials and Resources scores of 2015 graduates

Materials and Resources score	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	71	21.40	4.19
Time 2(6 th semester)	71	21.12	4.26
Time 3(7 th semester)	71	22.25	4.76
Time 4 (8 th semester)	71	22.35	4.04

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a time effect on materials and resources knowledge ($\Lambda = .917$ $F = 2.056$ $p = .114$ partial eta squared = .083). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that there were differences between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = .282; $p = .592$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.845; $p = .625$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.944; $p = .601$).

An examination of the Time 2, 3, and 4 revealed closer results to each other and no significant difference was observed between them. 2015 students' knowledge of materials and resources started to develop as they took the field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. The change in knowledge of materials and resources over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 31 below.

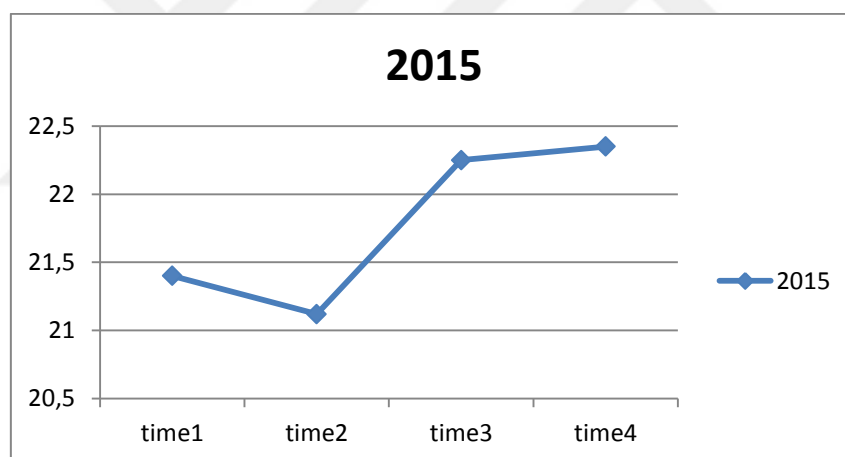


Figure 31: Development of materials and resources knowledge of 2015 graduates.

3b: Does experience in teaching practice influence planning skills of teacher candidates?

The next question deals with planning skills. In the module, there were 21 questions related to planning skills. To analyse the results, an independent-samples t-test was run. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted.

When the two groups' scores were compared, the 2014 group seems to have outperformed the 2015 group. It should be remembered that the first group was about to graduate and had been taking school experience and teaching practice courses, and the 2015 group had taken field

courses for only one semester. The groups' planning skills scores are presented in the table below.

Table 73

Planning Skills scores of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	16.08	2.72	-2.774	179	.006
2 (2015 Graduates)	98	14.85	3.16			

Table 75 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having undertaken teaching practice and school experience, seem to have acquired higher scores for planning skills (*Mean* = 16.08; *SD* = 2.72) than the 2015 graduates (*Mean* = 14.85; *SD* = 3.16). Such a finding reveals that the field courses they took and the plans prepared during their studies and the real-life teaching experiences gave them an idea of how to do planning, enabling them to gain higher scores.

To elaborate such a difference data collected from interviews were used. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was spoken out by student 8 (2014 female) "... my planning skills got better as I met real students and started to teach in a real class... I had a chance to observe the students, find out the type of activities they like and plan my courses accordingly..." A similar verbalization was done by student 9 (2014 female) "... after I met my students while planning my lessons I started to imagine them in the class, and planned every step in detail beforehand..." These remarks made by teacher candidates emphasize the influence of teaching experience on planning skills.

To confirm the comparison, planning skills scores of the 2014 and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 74

Comparison of Planning Skills scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	16.08	2.72			
2015 Graduate	97	15.60	3.55	-997	178	.320

Table 74 above indicates that the 2014 graduated group had a higher score than the 2015 graduates, but the difference was insignificant this time. The 2015 group was able to close the difference between the groups, but the difference was still in favour of the 2014 graduated group.

To observe the development in lesson planning skills the qualitative data were checked. What follows are examples of student teachers comments that support the effect of teaching practice on lesson planning skills. Student 13 (2015 female) remarked that “.... She was not efficient in lesson planning, but after completing teaching practice now that she feels better in planning skills...” Student 12 (2015 male) similarly emphasized that “... I was not good at planning skills since there were unclear subjects in lesson plans, but teaching practice helped me to clarify them. These reports make the influence of teaching practice on planning skills clear.

Table 75 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers, while Figure 32 illustrates how 2015 graduates improved in their planning skills over the course of data collection for this study. Using Wilks’ Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .945$; $F = 4.842$; $p = .004$) with a medium effect size (partial eta squared = .048; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be

statistically significant ($F = 8.393$; $p = .004$; partial eta squared = .048) however, it became insignificant between the two cohorts when both groups earned the status of ‘graduates’ ($F = 1.144$; $p = .286$; partial eta squared = .007).

Table 75

Mean Values for Planning Skills for both 2014-2015 Graduates

Planning Skills	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	16.08	2.72	87	14.75	3.21
Time 4*	83	16.08	2.72	87	15.56	3.55

*This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, planning skills mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 4 as constant scores. Figure 31 illustrates the varying levels of planning skills of two groups across different times of measurement.

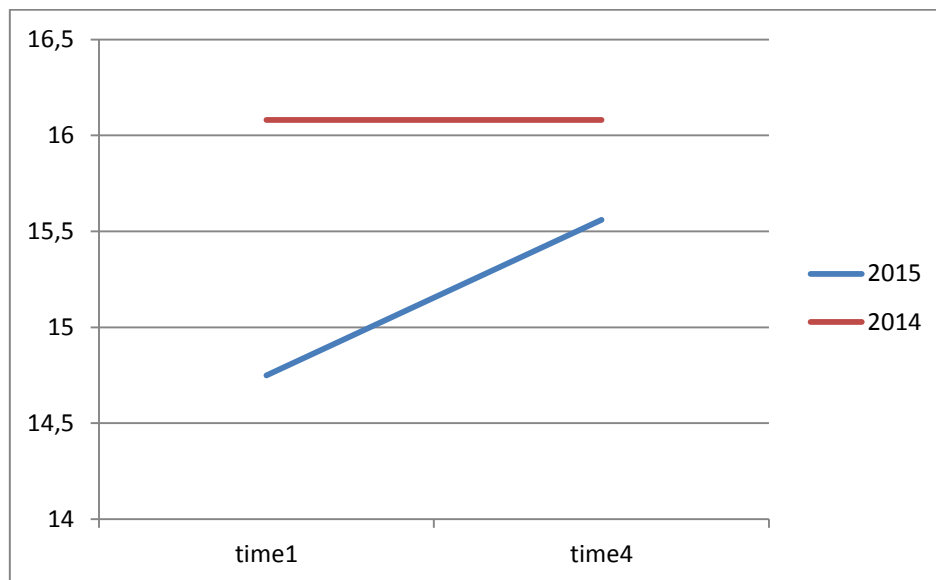


Figure 31: Planning scores pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of 2015 students’ teacher knowledge and planning skills. To see whether time

has an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on planning skills a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 78 presents descriptive statistics on adaptability of 2015 graduates measured over the course of data collection.

Table 76

Planning Skills Scores of 2015 Graduates

Planning Scores	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	71	14.52	3.21
Time 2(6 th semester)	71	14.56	2.77
Time 3(7 th semester)	71	14.91	3.30
Time 4 (8 th semester)	71	15.66	3.45

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a strong time effect on lesson planning skills ($\Lambda = .890$ $F = 2.809$ $p = .046$ partial eta squared= .110). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that differences existed between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = - .042; $p = .910$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.394; $p = .321$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -1.141; $p = .009$).

An examination of the Time 2 and 3 revealed closer results to each other and no significant difference was observed between them. Time 4, however, displayed a significant difference from the others. This may be due to field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. The change in planning skills over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 32 below.

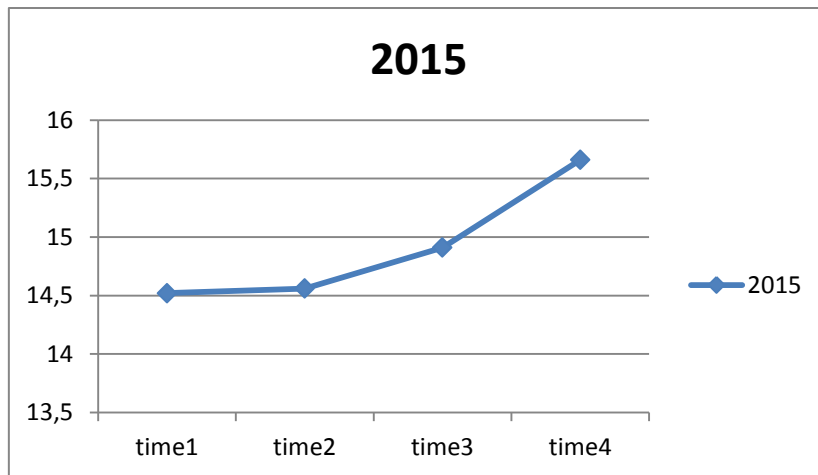


Figure 32: Development of planning skills of 2015 graduates.

3c: Does experience in teaching practice influence the language teaching skills of teacher candidates?

The next question deals with language teaching skills. In the module there were 14 questions on language teaching skills. To see whether teaching practice influences language teaching skills of the candidates' knowledge of language teaching skills, an independent-samples t-test was carried out. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted.

When two groups' scores were compared the 2014 group seemed to outperform the 2015 group. In the first comparison of the scores, the 2014 group was about to obtain the graduate title, while the 2015 group had just started to prepare lesson plans and had courses dealing with received language teaching skills for one semester. The groups' language teaching skills scores are given in the table below.

Table 77

Language Teaching Skills Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	9.47	2.83	-2.680	179	.008
2 (2015 Graduates)	98	8.44	2.35			

Table 79 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having engaged in teaching practice and school experience seem to have obtained higher scores for teaching skills ($Mean = 9.47$; $SD = 2.83$) than 2015 graduates ($Mean = 8.44$; $SD = 2.35$). Such a finding reveals that the teaching language skills course they took; plans prepared during their studies and for teaching practice helped them to gain higher scores.

To better investigate such a difference data gathered from the interviews were examined. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was said by student 5 (2014 male) "...micro-teachings at the department did not contribute so much since they were not real... because our friends were pretending to be primary school students and they gave all the correct answers, everything went smoothly... but in the real classroom with the real students and interruptions I learned to overcome the problems and became better language teaching skills better at the end of the teaching experience course..." This statement verifies the effect of teaching practice on language teaching skills.

To confirm the comparison, the language teaching skills scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 78

Comparison of Language Teaching Skills scores of 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	9.47	2.72			
2015 Graduate	97	9.09	3.55	-868	178	.387

Table 80 above indicates that the 2014 graduated group had a slightly higher score than the 2015 graduates, but the difference was insignificant in this case. The 2015 group was able to close the difference between the two groups.

To observe the development in language teaching skills the qualitative data were visited. What follows are examples of student teachers comments that support the effect of teaching practice on lesson planning skills. Student 20 (2015 female) verbalized that "... she improved her language teaching skills in teaching practice course better... and added... I had a chance to practice different language skills and got deeper in the theory then combined the theory with the practice..." Student 19 (2015 male) similarly mentioned that "... the artificial nature of micro-teaching and said that in teaching experience he gained better command of teaching language skills..." These statements justify the influence of teaching practice on language teaching skills of teacher candidates.

Table 81 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while Figure 34 illustrates how the 2015 graduates improved in their language teaching skills over the course of data collection for this study. Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from individual the independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .934$; $F = 5.856$; $p = .003$) with a medium effect size (partial eta squared = .066; Cohen 1988). The difference between 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they had finished their 4th semester was established as being statistically significant ($F = 8.940$; $p = .003$; partial eta squared = .051) and it became insignificant between the two cohorts when both groups earned the status of 'graduates' ($F = 1.64$; $p = .686$; partial eta squared = .001).

Table 79

Mean Values for Language Teaching Skills of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Language teaching skills scores	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	9.47	2.83	87	8.28	2.37
Time 4*	83	9.47	2.83	87	9.29	3.03

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, teaching skills mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 4 as constant scores.

Figure 33 illustrates the varying levels of teaching language skills of two groups across different times of measurement.

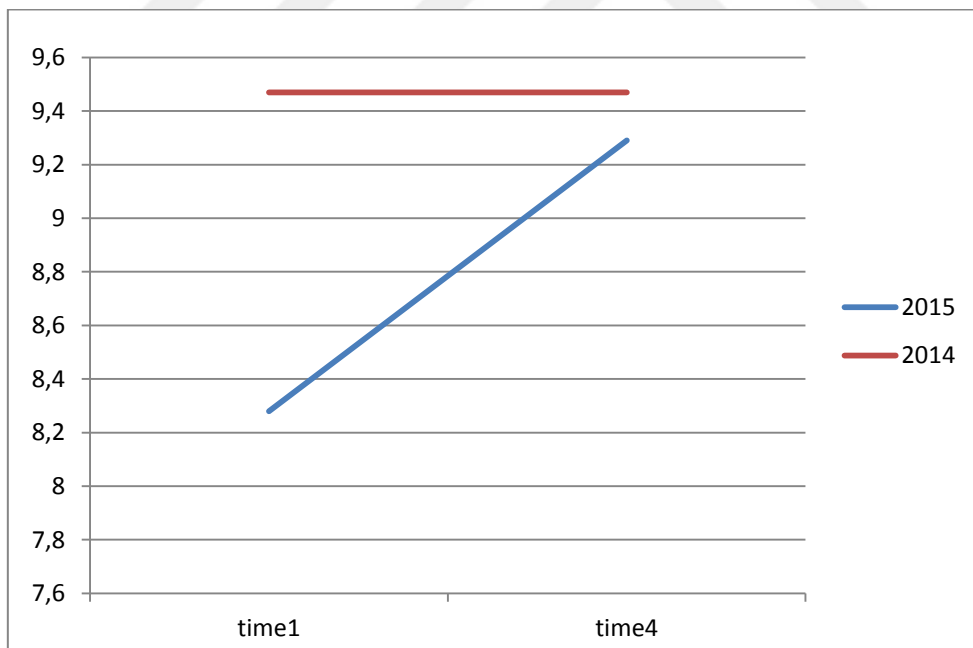


Figure 33: Language teaching skills scores pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of 2015 students' language teaching skills. To see whether time has an effect on

the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on language teaching skills a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 82 presents descriptive statistics on adaptability of 2015 graduates measured over the course of data collection.

Table 80

Language Teaching Skills scores of 2015 Graduates

Language Teaching Skills	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	71	8.18	2.43
Time 2(6 th semester)	71	6.66	2.45
Time 3(7 th semester)	71	9.08	3.00
Time 4 (8 th semester)	71	9.41	2.96

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a strong time effect on language teaching skills ($\Lambda = .524$ $F = 20.563$ $p = .000$ partial eta squared= .476). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that differences existed between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = 1.521; $p = .000$); the group seems to lower their score but then in Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.901; $p = .015$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -1.225; $p = .005$) group scores were higher, pointing development over the course of data collection. This may be due to field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. The change in language teaching skills over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 34 below.

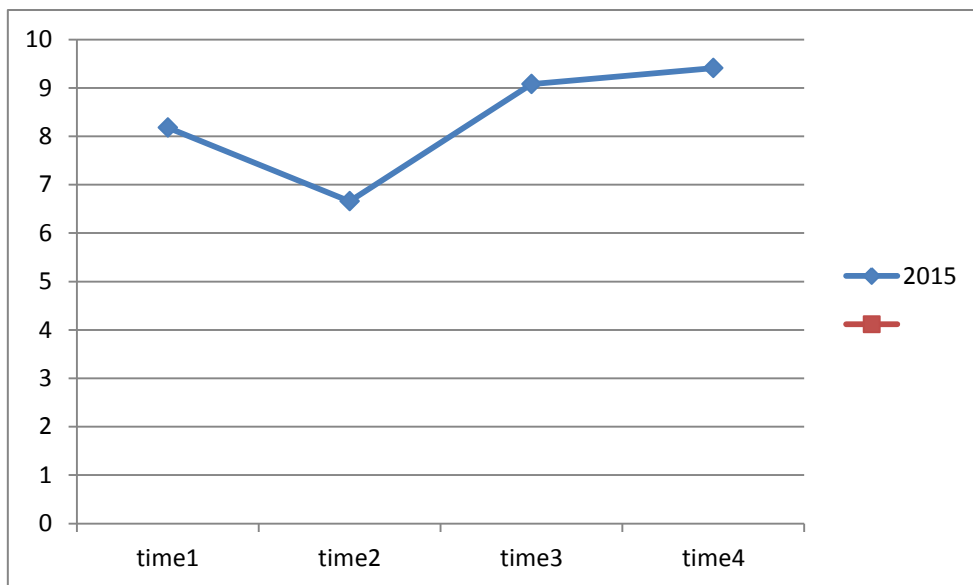


Figure 34: Development of language teaching skills of 2015 graduates.

3d: Does experience in teaching practice influence the assessment skills of teacher candidates?

The last subscale of lesson planning concentrated on candidates' assessment skills. In the module there were 11 questions testing assessment. To test whether there was any change in assessment skills; an independent-samples t-test was run. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The groups' language assessment skills scores are given in Table 83 below. When the two groups' scores were compared, the 2014 group seemed to outperform the 2015 group. In the first comparison of the scores the 2014 group was about to graduate while the 2015 group had started to prepare lesson plans and had received language teaching skills instruction for one semester.

Table 81

Assessment Skills Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	9.78	1.35	-1.420	179	.157
2 (2015 Graduates)	98	9.45	1.66			

Table 83 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having undertaken teaching practice and school experience, seem to have obtained slightly higher scores for assessment skills ($Mean = 9.78$; $SD = 1.35$) than the 2015 graduates ($Mean = 9.45$; $SD = 1.66$). To confirm the comparison, assessment skills scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 82

Comparison of Assessment Skills Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	9.78	1.35			
2015 Graduate	97	9.51	1.79	-1.159	178	.248

Table above indicates that the 2014 group of graduates had a slightly higher score than the 2015 graduates, but the difference was insignificant in this case.

Table 83 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while Figure 35 illustrates how the 2015 graduates improved in their assessment skills over the course of data collection for this study. Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed findings from the individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .986$; $F = 1.203$; $p = .303$) with a medium effect size (partial eta squared = .014; Cohen 1988). The difference between the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 2.265$; $p = .134$; partial eta squared = .013); however, it became insignificant between the two cohorts when both groups earned the status of 'graduates' ($F = 1.571$; $p = .212$; partial eta squared = .009).

Table 83

Mean Values for Assessment Skills of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Assessment scores	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	9.78	1.35	87	9.43	1.71
Time 4*	83	9.78	1.35	87	9.47	1.84

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, assessment mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 4 as constant scores. Figure 35 illustrates the varying levels of assessment skills of two groups across different times of measurement.

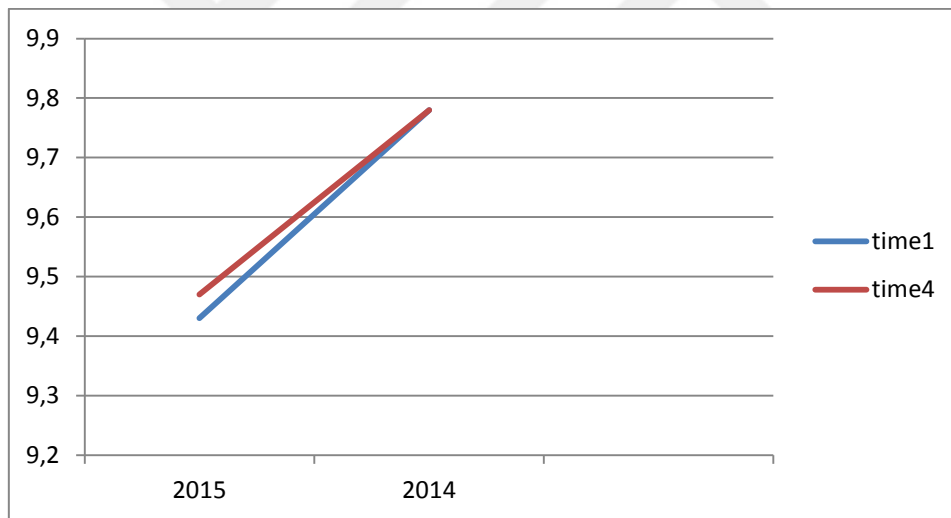


Figure35: Assessment skills scores pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of the 2015 students' teacher knowledge and assessment skills. To see whether time had an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on assessment, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 84 presents descriptive statistics on adaptability of 2015 graduates measured over the course of data collection.

Table 84

Assessment Skills Scores of 2015 Graduates

Assessment scores	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	71	9.37	1.73
Time 2(6 th semester)	71	9.30	1.71
Time 3(7 th semester)	71	9.37	1.91
Time 4 (8 th semester)	71	9.33	1.97

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed no time effect on assessment ($\Lambda = .524$ $F = 20.563$ $p = .000$ partial eta squared = .476). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that no differences were apparent between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = 0.070; $p = .755$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = 0.000; $p = 1.000$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = 0.042; $p = .857$). This may be due to the field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. The change in assessment skills over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 36 below.

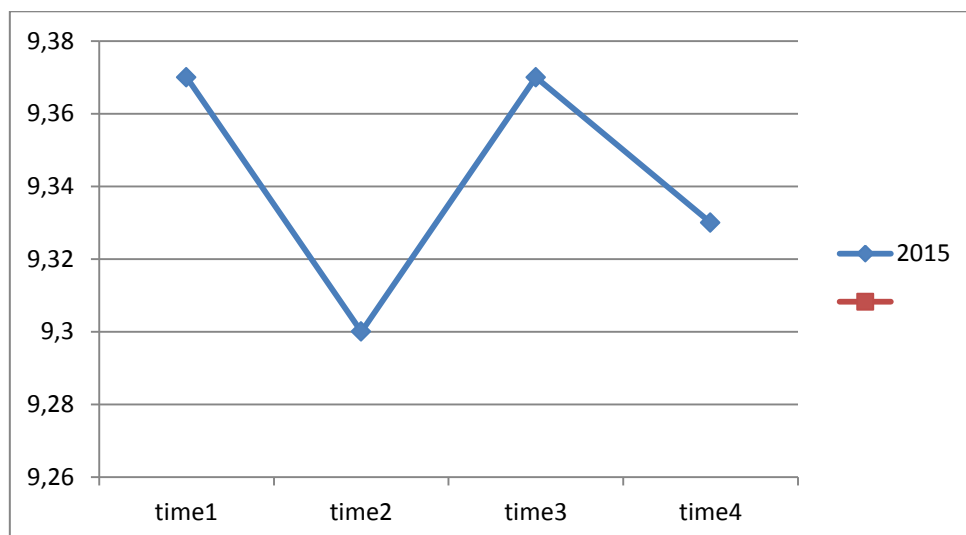


Figure 36: Development of assessment skills of 2015 graduates.

Summary of the findings related to the development of teacher knowledge on lesson planning.

This research question elaborated on the influence of school experience and teaching practice on classroom management. The results showed that school experience and teaching practice courses contributed positively to the development of teacher candidates' lesson planning skills over the time of data collection. When the first data was collected, there was a significant difference between the 2014 and 2015 graduates. Over the time of data collection the 2015 group's lesson planning skills proved to be developmental in nature. This may mean that the group developed themselves and better learned how to make use of materials and resources, prepare lesson plans, deal with and teach language skills and assess what had been learned. The next research question will try to describe the classroom management skills of the candidates.

Research Question4: Does experience in teaching practice influence teacher knowledge of teacher candidates in classroom management?

As mentioned earlier teacher knowledge test had two constituents, the second one focused on classroom management skills of the candidates. The module was composed of 80 questions. To reveal the findings, an independent-samples t-test and a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted to answer this question. Since the 2014 group had been taking field courses such as methodology, teaching language skills and teaching practice courses, they seemed to score higher than the 2015 group who took field courses only one semester. As can be seen from the table, the 2014 graduates seem to have more knowledge (*Mean* = 54.85; *SD* = 7.51) than those students who had just finished their 4th semester in the department (*Mean* = 47.42; *SD* = 7.08). The difference was statistically significant at $p < .01$ ($t = -6.739$).

To elaborate such a difference data collected from interviews were looked over. An examination of the interview data confirmed the statistical difference between the two groups. This was verbalized by student 12 (2014 male) "... in the very beginning of the teaching experience to have good classroom management skills I felt I needed to draw a teacher character... then I overcame the difficulties in classroom management..." Student 10 (2014 female) stated her regret "... I found teacher knowledge to be helpful in classroom management during the teaching practice... while we studied the theoretical courses I did not mind about them so much and understood classroom management strategies importance in practice..." Student 9 (2014 female) told about difficulties met "... I had difficulty in time management while I was trying to cope with classroom management... I had to skip some items or spent too much time on others, but as the number of experience increased I found out that I was better able to deal with classroom management then before..." These extracts from the interviews make the influence of teaching practice on classroom management clear. The groups' teacher knowledge in classroom management scores can be seen in Table 85.

Table 85

Teacher Knowledge Scores in Classroom Management of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	54.85	7.00			
2 (2015 Graduates)	89	47.42	7.08	-6.739	173	.000

The 2015 graduates, after experiencing teaching practice and school experience, seem to have scored higher in teacher knowledge in classroom management (*Mean* = 53.99; *SD* = 10.40) than 2014 graduates (*Mean* = 48.87 *SD* = 7.00). Classroom Management scores of the 2014 and the 2015 graduates (Year 2 students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test to complement the comparison.

Table 86

Comparison of Teacher Knowledge Scores in Classroom Management of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	54.85	7.00	-1.841	177	.067
2015 Graduate	96	53.99	10.40			

From the above findings, it can be inferred that teacher knowledge in classroom management skills scores of the 2015 graduates are lower than those of the 2014 graduates, but still display a developmental nature of the construct and reveal a time effect on the scores.

To observe the development in classroom management skills the qualitative data were visited. What follows are extracts taken from the interviews that support the effect of teaching practice on lesson planning skills. Student 16 (2015 female) mentioned that "... I had difficulty in classroom management because I had to at least two things together, then I remembered the effect of eye contact with the students, it really worked and helped me to cope with some of the problems...." Student 12 (2015 male) stated that "... when I found myself efficient in classroom management I believed that I can be a teacher..." Similarly, student 13 (2015 female) verbalized that "being successful gave her the confidence that she might become a good teacher and added that theoretical knowledge on classroom management had to be reinforced with practice in real classes with real students..." These remarks made by the teacher candidates make the effect of teaching practice on classroom management visible. Table 88 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers.

Table 87

Mean Values for Teacher Knowledge in Classroom Management of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Teacher Knowledge in Classroom Management	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	54.85	7.51	89	47.42	7.08
Time 4*	83	54.85	7.51	96	53.99	10.40

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, teacher knowledge in classroom management mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores. The findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures were confirmed by a MANOVA test, using Wilk's Lambda ($\Lambda = .801$; $F = 18.463$; $p = .000$) with a medium effect size (partial eta squared = .199; Cohen 1988). The difference between the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 35.375$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .191 while the difference between the two cohorts appeared to have been reduced to be insignificant when both groups earned the status of 'graduates' ($F = 5.384$; $p = .022$; partial eta squared = .035).

Figure 37 illustrates the varying levels of teacher knowledge of two groups across different times of measurement.

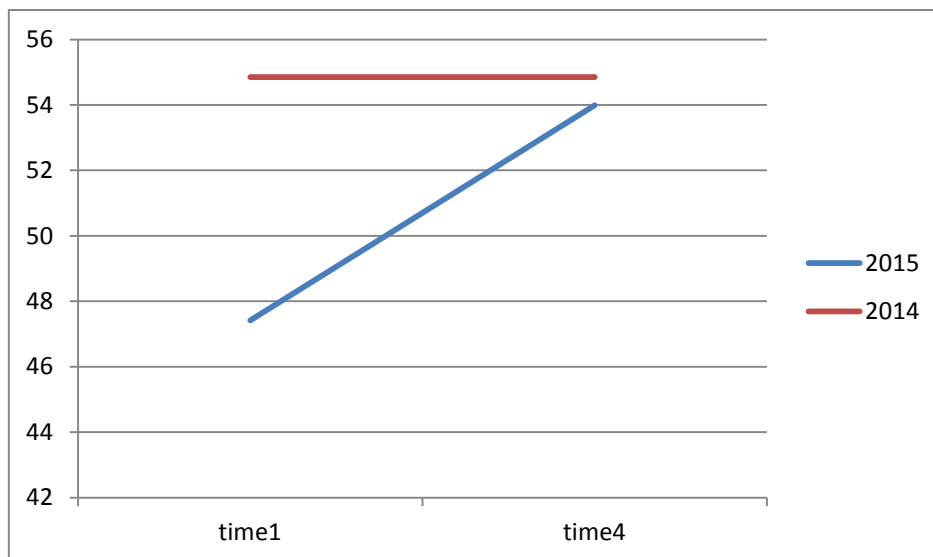


Figure 37: Teacher knowledge in classroom management score pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of the 2015 students' teacher knowledge and classroom management skills. To see whether time had an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on classroom management, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 89 presents descriptive statistics for classroom management skills of the 2015 graduates, measured over the course of data collection.

Table 88

Teacher Knowledge in Classroom Management Scores of 2015 Graduates

Teacher Knowledge in Classroom Management	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	25	46.68	7.76
Time 2(6 th semester)	25	49.52	7.97
Time 3(7 th semester)	25	52.12	6.77
Time 4 (8 th semester)	25	53.92	10.89

To test the time effect on the data, Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a large time effect on classroom management ($\Lambda = .605$ $F = 4.778$ $p = .010$ partial eta squared= .395). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that no differences existed between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -2.840; $p = .089$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -5.440; $p = .001$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -7.240; $p = .011$). This may be due to field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. The change in classroom management skills over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 38 below.

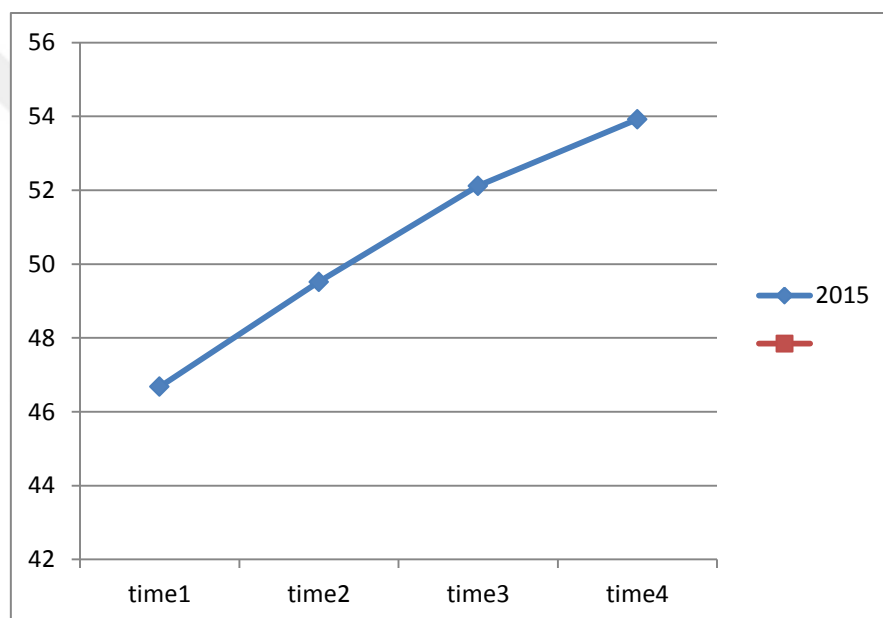


Figure 38: Development of classroom management skills of 2015 graduates.

The next research question will try to describe the classroom teacher language skills of the candidates.

4a: Does experience in teaching practice influence the use of teacher language of teacher candidates?

This question will try to shed light on the use of teacher language by teacher candidates. In the teacher language module, there were 23 questions testing the subject. To test whether there was any change in the use of teacher language; an independent-sample t-test was run on. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were

conducted. When the two groups' scores were compared, the 2014 group seemed to outperform the 2015 group. In this first comparison of the scores, the 2014 group had completed school experience and teaching practice courses while the 2015 group started to receive field courses for one semester.

Table 89

Use of Teacher Language Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	15.51	3.82	-6.403	172	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	91	12.15	3.08			

Table 90 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having engaged in teaching practice and school experience, seem to have obtained slightly higher scores for use of teacher language (*Mean* = 9.78; *SD* = 1.35) than the 2015 graduates (*Mean* = 9.45; *SD* = 1.66). To confirm the comparison, teacher knowledge scores of the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test. Table below indicates that the 2014 graduated group had a higher score than the 2015 cohort.

Table 90

Comparison of use of teacher language scores of 2014 and 2015 graduates

Year of Study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	15.51	4.27	-3.241	177	.001
2015 Graduate	96	13.53	3.82			

Table 91 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while, Figure 40 illustrates how the 2015 graduates improved in their use of teacher language over

the course of data collection for this study. Using Wilks' Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed the findings from individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .762$; $F = 24.952$; $p = .000$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .229; Cohen 1988). The difference between the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 47.771$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .229) and it remained significant between the two cohorts when both groups earned the status of 'graduates' ($F = 14.051$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .080) but this time the difference was smaller.

Table 91

Mean Values for Teacher Language Scores for both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Teacher Language Scores	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	15.51	3.82	80	11.83	2.90
Time 4*	83	15.51	3.82	80	13.15	4.20

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, teacher language mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores. Figure 39 illustrates the varying levels of use of teacher language of two groups across different times of measurement.

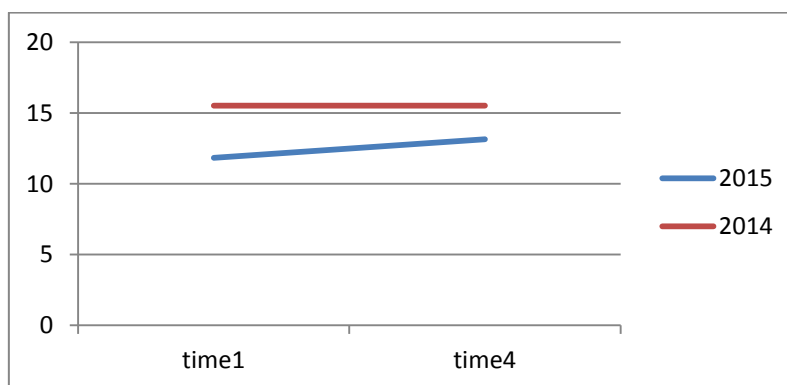


Figure 39: Use of teacher language scores pre- and post-teaching experience

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of the 2015 students' use of teacher language skills. To see whether time has an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on use of teacher language a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 92 presents descriptive statistics on adaptability of 2015 graduates measured over the course of data collection.

Table 92

Teacher Language Scores of 2015 Graduates

Teacher Language Scores	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	46	11.98	2.98
Time 2(6 th semester)	46	13.65	4.02
Time 3(7 th semester)	46	12.85	4.04
Time 4 (8 th semester)	46	13.59	4.83

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed medium time effect on use of teacher language ($\Lambda = .815$ $F = 3.253$ $p = .031$ partial eta squared= .185). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that there were differences between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* =-1.674; $p = .008$); Time 3 (*Mean difference* =-870; $p = 108$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -1.609; $p = .023$). This may be owing to field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. The change in use of teacher language skills over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 40 below.

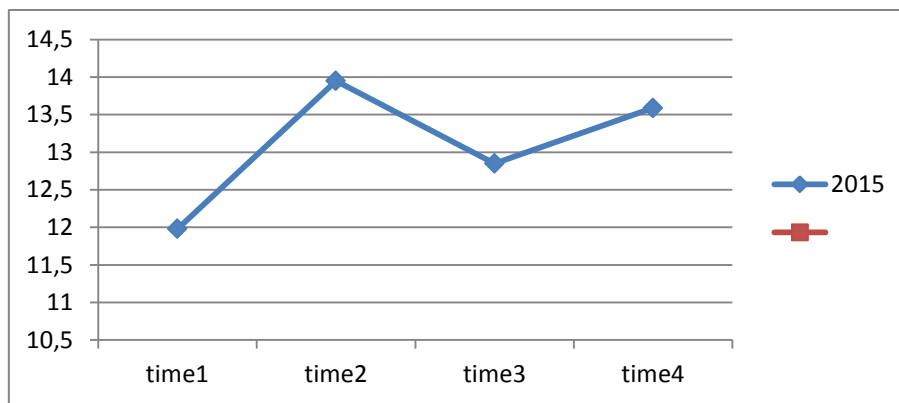


Figure 40: Development of use of teacher language skills of 2015 graduates.

The next research question will focus on handling learner language.

4b: Does experience in teaching practice influence handling of the learner language?

This question will try to investigate the way candidates deal with learner language. In the classroom management module, there were 33 questions testing the issue. The questions were composed of learner language, learner grammar mistakes, correction strategies and giving feedback. To test whether there was any change in handling learner language, an independent-samples t-test was carried out. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. When the two groups' scores were compared the 2014 group seems to rank higher than the 2015 group. In this first comparison of the scores, the 2014 group had completed school experience and teaching practice courses while, the 2015 group had started to receive field courses for one semester. The groups' handling with the learner language scores are given in the table below.

Table 93

Learner Language Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	23.73	3.73	-4.871	172	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	91	20.97	3.76			

Table 93 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having undertaken teaching practice and school experience, seem to have obtained slightly higher scores for handling learner language (mean = 23.73; SD = 3.73) than the 2015 graduates (mean = 20.97; SD = 3.76). To confirm the comparison, teacher knowledge scores of 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 94

Comparison of Handling Learner Language Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	23.73	3.73			
2015 Graduate	96	23.34	4.14	-.660	177	.510

Table above indicates that the 2014 graduate group had a higher score than the 2015 cohort when both groups obtained the title “graduates”.

Table 95 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while Figure 42 illustrates how the 2015 graduates improved in handling learner language over the course of data collection for this study. Using Wilks’ Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed the findings from the individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .857$; $F = 13.399$; $p = .000$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .143; Cohen 1988). The difference between the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 21.495$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .118); however, it was insignificant between the two cohorts when both groups earned the status of ‘graduates’ ($F = 10.593$; $p = .413$; partial eta squared = .004).

Table 95

Mean Values for Learner Language Scores for both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Learner Language Scores	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	23.73	3.72	80	20.97	3.76
Time 4*	83	23.73	3.72	80	23.34	4.14

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, learner language mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Figure 41 illustrates the varying levels of handling the learner language of two groups across different times of measurement.

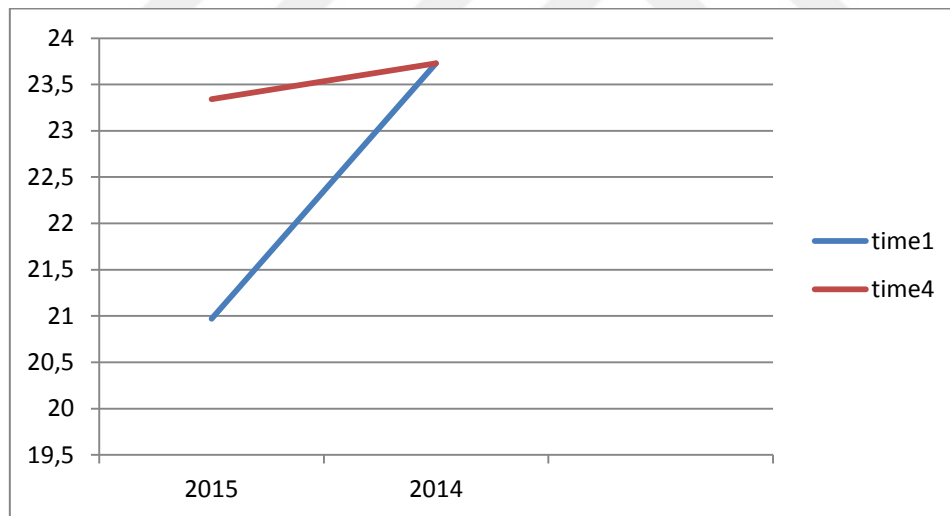


Figure 41: Handling learner language scores pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of the 2015 students' handling learner language. To see whether time had an effect on findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on handling learner language, a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 96 presents

descriptive statistics on adaptability of 2015 graduates measured over the course of data collection.

Table 96

Handling Learner Language Scores of 2015 Graduates

Handling Learner Language Scores	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	36	20.53	4.00
Time 2(6 th semester)	36	20.31	4.44
Time 3(7 th semester)	36	22.69	3.78
Time 4 (8 th semester)	36	23.39	3.71

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a large time effect on handling learner language ($\Lambda = .585$ $F = 7.804$ $p = .000$ partial eta squared= .415). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated differences between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference =.222; p = .735*); Time 3 (*Mean difference =-2.167; p = .002*); and Time 4 (*Mean difference = -2.681; p = .002*). This may have been due to the field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. As pre-service teachers gained experience from these courses, they became better at handling students' grammar mistakes, using correction strategies and giving feedback to the students. The change in skills for handling learner language over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 42 below.

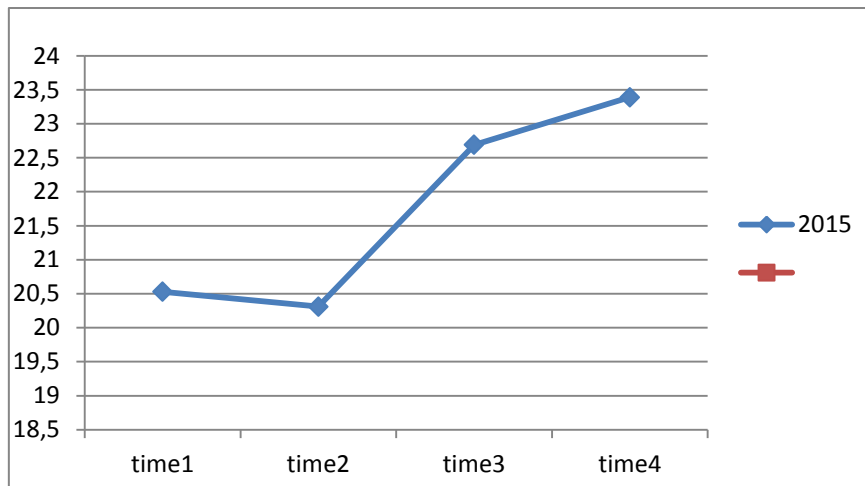


Figure 42: Development of dealing with learner language of 2015 graduates

4c: Does experience in teaching practice influence the handling of general issues of classroom management?

This question will try to investigate the way candidates deal with general issues of classroom management. In the classroom management module there were 16 questions testing the issue. To test whether there was any change in coping with the general issues of classroom management an independent-samples t-test was run. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The groups' coping with the general issues of classroom management scores are given in the table below. When the two groups' scores were compared, the 2014 group seems to outperform the 2015 group. In this first comparison of the scores, the 2014 group had completed school experience and teaching practice courses while the 2015 group had received field courses for one semester.

Table 97

General Issues of Classroom Management Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of Study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	12.57	2.31	-1.961	172	.051
2 (2015 Graduates)	91	11.89	2.24			

Table 97 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having engaged in teaching practice and school experience, seem to have obtained slightly higher scores for use of teacher language ($Mean = 12.57$; $SD = 2.31$) than 2015 graduates ($Mean = 11.89$; $SD = 2.24$). To confirm the comparison, general issues in classroom management scores of the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 98

Comparison of General Issues of Classroom Management of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of Study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	12.57	2.31			
2015 Graduate	96	12.54	2.78	-.064	177	.949

“Table above indicates that the 2015 graduate group had a similar score to the 2014 group when both groups obtained the title “graduates”. Table 99 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers, while Figure 44 illustrates how the 2015 graduates improved in general issues in classroom management over the course of data collection for this study. Using Wilks’ Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed the findings from the individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .948$; $F = 4.417$; $p = .014$) with a small effect size (partial eta squared = .052; Cohen 1988). The difference between the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 5.364$; $p = .022$; partial eta squared = .032); however, it was insignificant between the two cohorts when both groups earned the status of ‘graduates’ ($F = 0.75$; $p = .785$; partial eta squared = .000).

Table 99

Mean Values for General Issues in Classroom Management for both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

General Issues in CM Scores	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	12.57	3.72	80	11.74	2.26
Time 4*	83	12.57	3.72	80	12.68	2.76

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, general issues mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores. Figure 43 illustrates the varying levels of general issues of classroom management of two groups across different times of measurement.

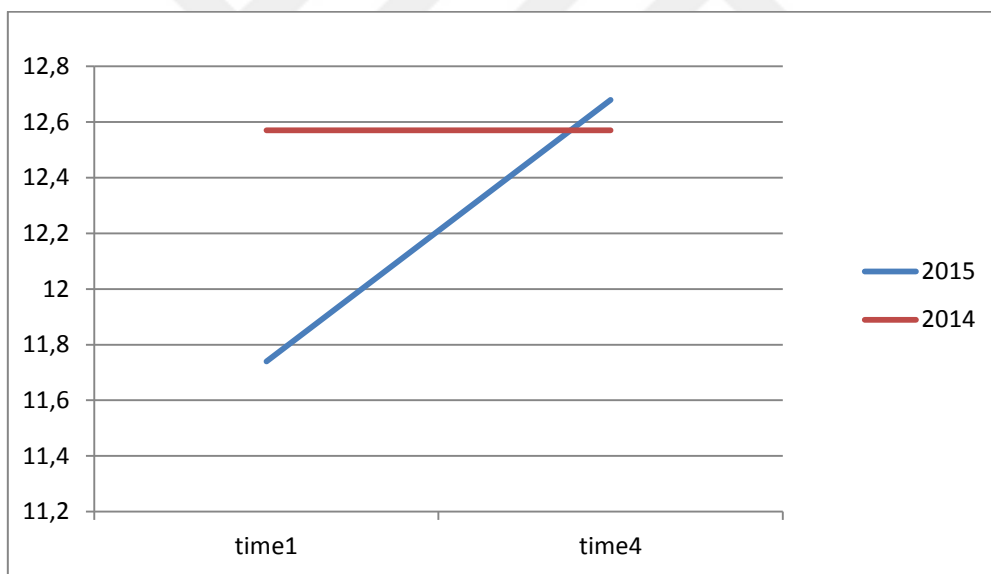


Figure 43: General issues of classroom management scores pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of the 2015 students' ability to cope with general issues of classroom management. To see whether time had an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on classroom management a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test

was also conducted. Table 100 presents descriptive statistics for general issues in classroom management of the 2015 graduates, measured over the course of data collection.

Table 100

General Issues scores of 2015 graduates

General Issues Scores	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	60	11.90	2.19
Time 2(6 th semester)	60	11.78	2.25
Time 3(7 th semester)	60	12.12	2.71
Time 4 (8 th semester)	60	12.58	2.82

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a small time effect on general issues of classroom management ($\Lambda = .939$ $F = 1.245$ $p = .302$ partial eta squared= .061). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated no differences between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* =.117; $p = .734$); but there was a trace of development between Time 3 (*Mean difference* =-217; $p = .592$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -683; $p = .113$). This may have been due to the field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. As pre-service teachers gained experience after completing these courses, they became more skilful at dealing with general issues in classroom management. The change in skills for general issues in classroom management over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 44 below.

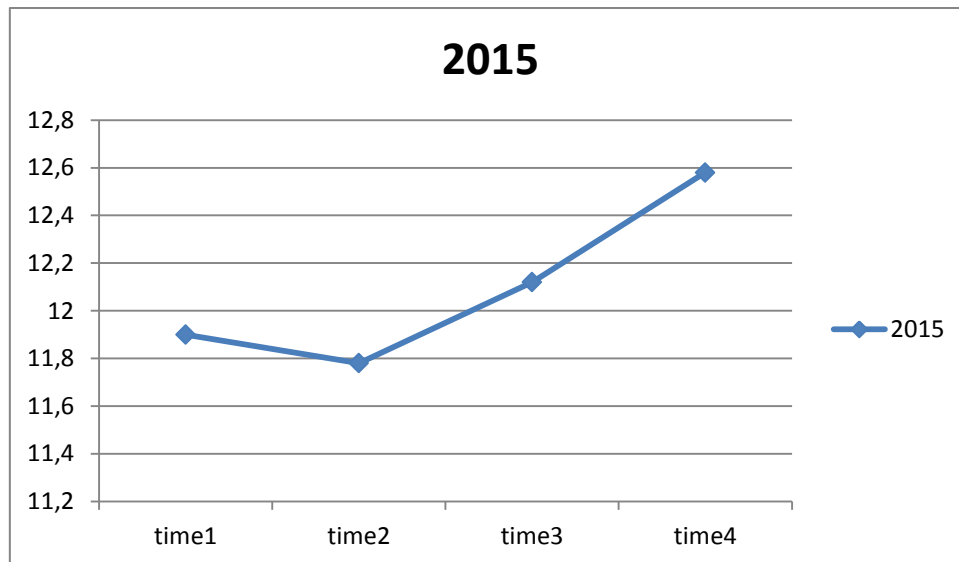


Figure 44: Development of handling of general issues of 2015 graduates.

4d: Does experience in teaching practice influence interacting with students in the classroom?

This question will attempt to describe how the candidates interact with the students in the classroom. In the classroom management module there were 8 questions testing the issue. To test whether there has been any change in interacting with students in the classroom an independent-samples t-test was carried out. Then a MANOVA and a one-group repeated measures ANOVA test were conducted. The groups' scores for interacting with students in the classroom are given in Table 101 below. When the two groups' scores were compared, the 2014 group seems to have outperformed the 2015 group. In this first comparison of the scores, the 2014 group had completed school experience and teaching practice courses, while the 2015 group had received field courses for one semester.

Table 101

Interacting with Students in the Class Scores of 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Year of Study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
4 (2014 Graduates)	83	4.77	1.52	-4.212	172	.000
2 (2015 Graduates)	91	3.87	1.31			

Table 101 above shows that the 2014 graduates, having undertaken teaching practice and school experience, seem to have obtained slightly higher scores for interacting with students ($Mean = 4.77$; $SD = 1.52$) than the 2015 graduates ($Mean = 3.87$; $SD = 1.31$). To confirm the comparison, interacting with student scores of the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates (4th semester students in the previous t-test) were compared through an independent samples t-test.

Table 102

Comparison of Interacting with Students in the Classroom Scores of 2014 and 2015

Graduates

Year of study	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
2014 Graduates	83	4.77	1.52			
2015 Graduate	96	4.57	1.44	-.895	177	.372

Table above indicates that the 2015 graduated group had a close score close to that of the 2014 group when both groups obtained the title “graduates”. Table 103 presents comparable mean values for both groups of student teachers while Figure 46 illustrates how the 2015 graduates improved in interacting with students in the classroom over the course of data collection for this study. Using Wilks’ Lambda, a MANOVA test confirmed the findings from the individual independent samples t-test procedures ($\Lambda = .848$; $F = 14.379$; $p = .000$) with a large effect size (partial eta squared = .152; Cohen 1988). The difference between the 2014 graduates and 2015 graduates when they finished their 4th semester was established to be statistically significant ($F = 22.526$; $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .123); however, it was

insignificant between the two cohorts when both groups earned the status of ‘graduates’ ($F = 1.373$; $p = .438$; partial eta squared = .004).

Table 103

Mean Values for Interacting with Students of both 2014 and 2015 Graduates

Interacting with Students	2014 Graduates			2015 Graduates		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Time 1*	83	4.77	1.52	80	3.73	1.28
Time 4*	83	4.77	1.52	80	4.59	1.50

* This table is meant to examine changes in 2015 graduates in comparison to 2014 graduates. Therefore, interacting with students mean scores of 2014 graduates were measured once and reported both in time 1 and 5 as constant scores.

Figure 45 illustrates the varying levels of interacting with students in the class of two groups across different times of measurement.

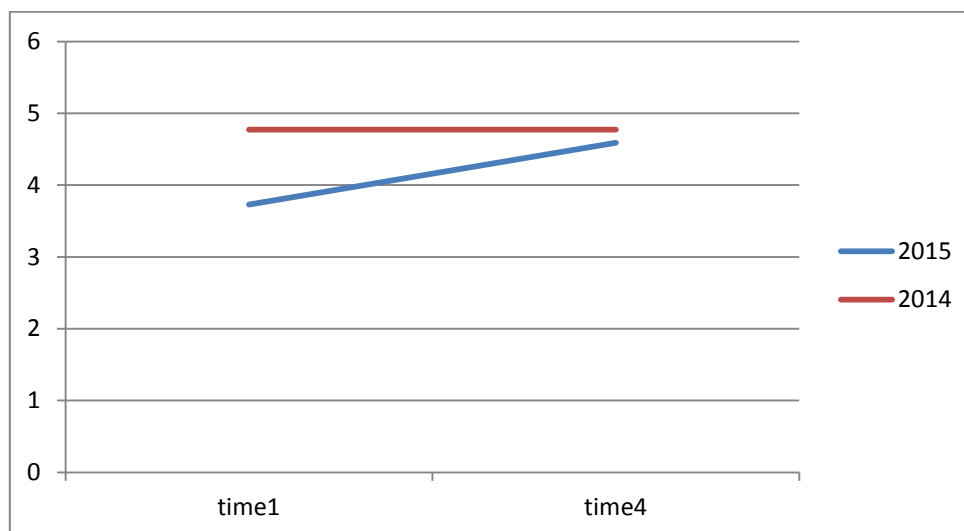


Figure 45: Interacting with students in the class pre- and post-teaching experience.

The findings indicate that teaching practice and schools experience contributed to the development of the 2015 students’ skills for interacting with students in the class. To see whether time has an effect on the findings and confirm the effects of teaching experience on

interacting with students a one-group repeated measure ANOVA test was also conducted. Table 104 presents descriptive statistics on adaptability of the 2015 graduates measured, over the course of data collection.

Table 104

Interacting with Students Scores of 2015 Graduates

Interacting with Students	N	Mean	SD
Time 1 (5 th semester)	64	3.73	1.32
Time 2 (6 th semester)	64	4.22	1.34
Time 3 (7 th semester)	64	4.48	1.31
Time 4 (8 th semester)	64	4.50	1.51

To test the time effect on the data Wilks' Lambda statistics and a repeated measures ANOVA test were used. The findings revealed a large time effect on interacting with students in the classroom ($\Lambda = .802$ $F = 5010$ $p = .004$ partial eta squared = .198). A post-hoc Tukey test indicated differences between Time 1 and Time 2 (*Mean difference* = -.484; $p = .015$); and this became larger over the course of data collection: Time 3 (*Mean difference* = -.750; $p = .001$); and Time 4 (*Mean difference* = -.766; $p = .001$). This may have been due to the field courses and completed school experience and teaching practice. As pre-service teachers gained experience after completing these courses, they became better at interacting with students in the classroom. The change in interacting with students in the classroom over the course of data collection can be illustrated in Figure 46 below.

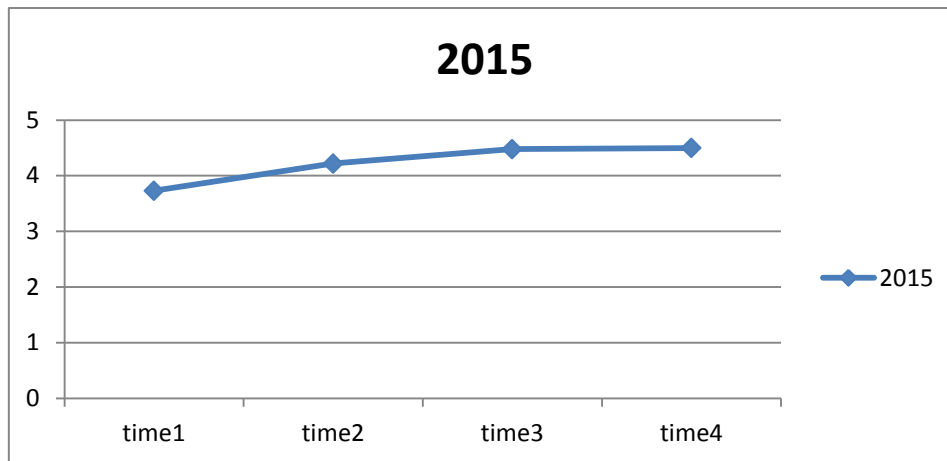


Figure 46: Development of interacting with students in the class of 2015 graduates.

Summary of the findings related to the development of teacher knowledge in classroom management. This research question elaborated on the influence of school experience and teaching practice on classroom management. The results showed that school experience and teaching practice courses contributed positively to the development of teacher candidates' classroom management skills over the time of data collection. When the first data was collected there was a significant difference between the 2014 and 2015 graduates. Over the time of data collection this difference disappeared and the 2015 graduates reached higher levels of classroom management. This may mean that the group developed themselves and learned how to use teacher language, to assess, evaluate and correct student language, deal with general issues and interact with the students in the classroom more effectively.

The next research question deals with the relationship between sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge.

Research Question 5: Is student teachers' self-efficacy related to their emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge test scores?

The present research question aimed to highlight whether different constructs are related to each other in foreign language teacher identity construction. To test whether self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge test scores are related to each other in foreign language teacher identity construction bivariate correlation analysis were conducted.

A Pearson correlation coefficient analysis revealed significant relations mostly with emotional intelligence factors. The sense of self-efficacy of student teachers appeared to correlate to student total emotional intelligence scores ($r_{(179)} = .418; p < .01$). Subscales of emotional intelligence also appear to correlate with sense of self-efficacy scores with a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988). In order of magnitude of correlation coefficients of intrapersonal intelligence had the strongest correlation with sense of self-efficacy ($r_{(180)} = .417; p < .01$) followed by mood intelligence scores ($r_{(1801)} = .375; p < .01$), interpersonal intelligence ($r_{(179)} = .325; p < .01$), stress management ($r_{(168)} = .248; p < .01$), and adaptability ($r_{(180)} = .242; p < .01$). Findings from these can be seen below.

Table 105

Correlation Analysis Results for Sense of Self-efficacy and Emotional Intelligence

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
SES total	1								
Lesson Planning	-.030	1							
Classroom Management	.153	.786**	1						
Intrapersonal Skills	.417**	-.057	.139	1					
Interpersonal Skills	.325**	-.163*	.134	.627**	1				
Adaptability	.242**	.093	.288**	.624**	.420**	1			
Stress Management	.248**	.098	.186	.278**	.174	.381**	1		
General Mood	.357**	-.057	.017	.704**	.566**	.582**	.354**	1	
EQ	.418**	-.040	.196	.888**	.731**	.791**	.440**	.839**	1

*P<.05; **P<.01

Research Question 6: Is student teachers' self-efficacy related to their course marks?

The study aimed to find out whether student marks are related to student sense of self-efficacy. To answer this question bivariate correlation was used. A Pearson correlation coefficient analysis revealed significant relations mostly with the classroom management course. The sense of self-efficacy of student teachers appeared to correlate to students'

classroom management course scores ($r_{(176)} = .340; p < .01$). In order of magnitude of correlation coefficients for classroom management marks had the strongest correlation with a sense of self-efficacy ($r_{(176)} = .340; p < .01$) followed by teaching practice ($r_{(201)} = .228; p < .01$), teaching principles and methods ($r_{(176)} = .190; p < .01$), research methods ($r_{(173)} = .185; p < .01$), teaching language skills I ($r_{(174)} = .185; p < .01$), ELT methodology I ($r_{(173)} = .181; p < .01$), language teaching skills II ($r_{(172)} = .158; p < .01$), Approaches to English language teaching II ($r_{(173)} = .155; p < .01$) and approaches to English language teaching I ($r_{(176)} = .149; p < .01$).

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Correlation Analysis Results for Sense of self-efficacy and Course Marks

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
SES total	1								
Classroom Management	.340**	1							
Teaching Principles and Methods	.190*	.344**	1						
Research Skills	.185*	.309**	.401**	1					
Teaching Language Skills I	.155*	.366**	.500**	.286	1				
				**					
ELT methodology I	.181*	.275**	.279**	.433	.445**	1			
				0**					
Teaching Language Skills II	.158*	.354**	.515**	.156	.652**	.368	1		
				*		**			
Approaches to English language teaching II	.149*	.391**	.593**	.442	.440**	.470	.549**	1	
				**		**			
Approaches to English language teaching I	.155*	.321**	.516**	.369	.340**	.352	.483**	.538**	1
				**		**			

* $P < .05$; ** $P < .01$

Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented findings from the analysis of the data and provided relevant evidence in seek of answers to the research questions. To do this, results from the quantitative analysis were examined and extracts from the qualitative data were visited.

Chapter V: Discussion and Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter will present the aim of the study, a summary of the study and the summary of the methodology. Then it will continue with the main findings and discussion sections. In the main findings and discussion section, the changes in sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and the teacher knowledge will be shared.

Aim of the Study

This study aimed to explore foreign language teacher identity. To define the teacher identity the personal and professional lives of general education pre-service and in-service teachers have been investigated (Connelly & Clandinin, 1999; Day, 2002; Elsheikh, 2012; Guzman, 2010; Jewett, 2012; MacLure, 1993). In the field of L2 education, Varghese et al. (2005) argue that “in order to understand language teaching and learning we need to understand teachers: the professional, cultural, political and individual identities which they claim or which are assigned to them” (p.22).

Keeping this in mind, this study sought to examine the relationships between teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, professional knowledge and field work courses in the teacher identity construction of pre-service teachers.

Since teacher knowledge and identity have traditionally been investigated separately this study attempted to bring them together and tried to show the relationship between teacher identity and the knowledge which would constitute one dimension of identity construction.

The study examined how a teacher's sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and field work courses contributed to and collaborated in identity construction. Mainly the study had 6 main research questions. The nature of the data collection instruments deepened the research questions because of the sub-scales or categories included in them.

Under the title of sense of self-efficacy the study initially examined the overall changes in pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy after completing teaching experience. Then the study focused on subscales of the self-efficacy which included self-efficacy on student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. Another constituent that might have had an influence in foreign language identity shaping of pre-service teachers was emotional intelligence. Thus, the study also started by examining the overall effect of teaching experience on students' emotional intelligences and deepened the investigation by considering intrapersonal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, adaptability, stress management, and general mood. The study attempted to find out what happens to teacher knowledge in the course of teaching experience period. To do this it scrutinized the influence of teaching practice on teacher knowledge. Teacher knowledge was examined under two categories the first one involved lesson planning skills and the second was in classroom management skills of the pre-service teachers. The lesson planning skills focused on materials and resources, planning skills, language teaching skills and the assessment skills. Classroom management skills included the use of teacher language, handling learner language, general issues of classroom management, and interacting with students in the classroom.

After studying three constituents that might have a role in foreign language teacher identity shaping the study tried to find out the interconnectedness of these constituents. Finally, the study focused the lens on the relationship between self-efficacy and academic success of the students by examining the course marks of the participants.

Summary of the Study

This study aimed to understand foreign language teacher identity development of pre-service teachers at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart university ELT department. It explored the interconnectedness and evolution of the self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and professional knowledge that may have an effect on the development of teacher identity. The study also

tried to highlight the level of contribution of teacher sense of self-efficacy, professional knowledge, emotional intelligence and field work courses in teacher identity construction. While doing this, the study focused on the pre-service teachers' perceptions of the contribution of the field work courses' collaboration in teacher identity construction. The study firstly focused on whether experience in teaching practice influenced teacher candidates' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge. Secondly, the study attempted to shed light on the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge test scores. Lastly, the research studied the relationship between student teachers' self-efficacy and their course marks.

Main Findings and Discussion

Changes in Self-efficacy. The study initially investigated the overall influence of experience in teaching practice on self-perceived teacher self-efficacy.

This study observed an increase in self-efficacy over the course of the study. Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to exert an impact on student teachers' perceived self-efficacy in that self-efficacy is likely to improve as student teachers become more experienced. After carrying out the teaching experience course the pre-service teachers gained confidence in themselves. They were able to keep the students and especially the misbehaving and unwilling ones engaged in classes, apply suitable instructional strategies and manage the class successfully. They had an idea about how to attract students' attention, and became aware of the importance of students' interests and hobbies.

As a result they could evaluate the most suitable instructional technique(s). Their confidence and motivation to teach increased. Student 3 (2015 female) summarized this as follows "...after keeping the students engaged in my classes I gained confidence and felt motivated. Because I believed that I could choose the right kind of activities to use in my classes..." The teaching experience course provided authentic teaching experiences in order

to help the trainees develop practical skills, human relationships and all other necessary elements of teaching efficacy.

This finding is in line with some other studies (Ashton, 1984; Anthony & Saidi, 2008; Martin, 2008; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Yeung & Watkins, 2000; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). As a teacher education program the ELT department supported pre-service teachers to be motivated and confident. Ashton (1984) claimed that a teacher education program ought to make an effort to develop pre-service teachers to be highly motivated and confident for effective classroom performance, by providing them opportunities for developing practical skills, human relationships and all other necessary elements needed for effective teaching. He further suggested that a teacher education program which is designed to foster teaching efficacy beliefs should consist of exposure not only to context-based teaching experience but also to authentic teaching experience.

The students pointed out the contribution of the teaching experience course to their expectations regarding future careers. Most of the students said that they have a positive belief about their future teaching experiences. This finding is consistent with Anthony and Saidi (2008) who investigated the self-efficacy of pre-service teachers before and after their field experience in an attempt to predict their future teaching effectiveness. The study found that self-efficacy beliefs and behaviour changes and outcomes were highly correlated and that self-efficacy was an outstanding mirror for the pre-service teachers' future careers.

Experience in a real context is very important in teaching; it reflects one's weak and strong sides in practice. There are various sources of experience. Bandura (1997) categorized the four experiential sources as: enactive mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal or social persuasion, and physiological and/or emotional states.

As Bandura (1997) clarified mastery experience refers to a teacher's experiences in terms of success and failure and it is the most influential source of efficacy information since

it caters for authentic evidence of the teacher's performance in real classroom and school setting. If the experience is success it may lead to increased self-efficacy and failure to reduced self-efficacy. With regard to success in teaching experience teachers' efficacy beliefs are raised, which may contribute to the expectations that teaching will be proficient in the future. In addition, the findings of Yeung and Watkins (2000) also justified the influence of teaching practice on the self-efficacy of pre-service teachers'.

The findings of this study confirm the positive effects of mastery experience as well. Both the 2014 and 2015 groups seemed to have higher efficacy beliefs after experiencing teaching practice. The initial difference between the two groups disappeared and they proved to have improved themselves in the sense of self-efficacy. This was the overall evaluation regarding the changes in self-efficacy. The TSES sense of self-efficacy scale involved efficacy on student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management which deepened the investigation on three further sub-scales.

The first sub-scale investigated was the sense of self-efficacy on student engagement. Efficacy on student engagement involves reaching challenging and unmotivated students, motivating the students, providing confidence for student achievement, teaching them to be critical, developing students' creativity and helping unsuccessful students to learn. At first sight all these items may sound too pretentious to handle. Teaching experience provided students with the opportunity to confront such difficulties in real life and as they overcame these difficulties they felt efficacious. This result is supported by Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy (1998). They reported that such experiences help the teachers to assess their determination and confidence in themselves in teaching by evaluating their efforts when they confronted persistence and resilience. Furthermore, their study also, emphasized that the teachers also evaluate their capability to manage the stress or depressing feelings. In line with, Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy (1998) Martin (2008) explained that

having a positive or negative attitude towards oneself depends on student achievement, motivation and engagement. The key component in having a positive attitude is accentuated to be the way how teachers communicate with student while they manage their own as well as students' behaviour during class.

Participants in the study reported similar expressions. Student 9(2014 male) reported that he became more motivated and confident in teaching after he could engage unwilling and unmotivated students in his class. Student10 (2015 female) said that she started to believe that she could become a good teacher as she realized she could pick up the right games and activities for her lesson and the students did not want to leave the class in break time.

Woolfolk (2004) stressed the contribution of mastery experiences are the highest in self-efficacy. They described success or achievement construct as a dynamic belief in the individual's own self- efficacy which can be weakened by failure. It is assumed that fruitful experiences in teaching increase efficacy expectations and remain constant for future situations.

Similarly, Mulholland and Wallace (2001) specified that failure or ineffective experiences lower such efficacy beliefs. For prospective teachers, mastery experience is an imperative source of efficacy beliefs.

The second sub-scale investigated the self-efficacy regarding instructional strategies. The study explored the influence of experience in teaching practice on instructional strategies. The study observed an increase in the sense of self-efficacy for instructional strategies over the course of the study. Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to have an impact on student teachers' use of instructional strategies. Participants in the study reported changes to the self-efficacy for instructional strategies. This may be because of having chances to apply practice with real students in real classes. Participants commented on the contribution of theoretical courses in their teaching knowledge, and that micro teaching

experiences they conduct at the ELT department were helpful but not realistic. Micro-teachings were carried out with their classmates whose proficiency levels were nearly equal to their own. For this reason, they never had to think of how to adapt the questions for the students' level or how well their taught items were comprehended by the group. During the teaching practice however, they became aware of the importance of question asking techniques, assessment procedures, providing good examples and explanations, adapting the course to the level of the students and individual differences in students. Student 20 (2015 female) said that "...at first I was shocked because in micro-teachings there was never a pause in the class; our classmates always give the correct answers at once... when I was first confronted with silence in my class, I was shocked and could not know what to do...later I started to simplify the same question... when it worked things became easier..." After completing the teaching practice course, the participants in the study seemed to have a higher sense of self-efficacy for instructional strategies. Most of the students were pleased with their performances and felt they were equipped to teach.

Woolfolk, (2004), Mulholland and Wallace, (2001), and Pajares, (2002) also reached similar conclusions. Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) stated that the degree of self-efficiency a teacher exhibits determines the nature and quality of students' learning. Being an efficient teacher means being able to assess your capabilities and choosing the instructional techniques that will ultimately engage students, especially challenging or unmotivated ones. The pre-service teachers stated that they are able to see the good/bad sides in their teaching performances and now they are able to compare their teaching to others.

The participants also mentioned the contribution of the school experience course and observation tasks to the instructional strategies. Some of the students who were luckier had chances to observe how to simplify subjects to help the learners to learn, how to assess taught items, prepare the right questions for the assessment, to use evaluation methods and to create

a suitable learning environment. This finding supports the importance of vicarious learning. Moran and Hoy (2007) underlined the importance of vicarious experiences. In teacher education pre-service teachers spend time to learn out of their experiences and also observing the actions of their supervisors, mentors and class friends. Pajares (2002) draws attention to the contribution of vicarious efficacy in new skills acquisition without practice and the importance of a credible model.

Lankard (1999) adds that vicarious experiences help pre-service teachers to adjust their previous experiences after observing in a new situation. Pre-service teacher evaluates this recent observation and may decide to execute the same action or not.

The third sub-scale investigated the effect of teaching practice on self-efficacy in classroom management. The research question explored the influence of experience in teaching practice in classroom management. This study observed an increase in the sense of self-efficacy on classroom management over the course of the study. Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to have an impact on student teachers use of classroom management strategies. The pre-service teachers emphasized the effect of teaching experience on classroom management. Participants commented on the artificial nature of the micro-teachings they did at the ELT department. Since they were not real, they did not have any chance to cope with discipline and classroom management problems. Student 7 (2015 male) reported that when he first started school experience, observation time discouraged him about becoming a teacher "... he was frightened...had negative perceptions about teaching... he decided to observe well how the teacher of the class handled the difficult situations and confessed regretting undervaluing classroom management courses he took..." Student 13 (2015 female) reported that as she could manage to carry out her lesson plan smoothly in the class, keep the unwilling ones' involved in the activities, and assigned responsibilities to problematic students by giving them tasks, she felt that she would manage her classes better

in the future... She stated that the students accept them as university student not real teachers...” Another student, student 11, (2014 female) reported that it was difficult to apply her content and pedagogical knowledge with children and manage the class at the same time. Findings related to the self-efficacy on classroom management prove that teaching experience serves as a landmark in pre-service teachers beginning teacher career.

The findings of this research question are in line with some other studies (Katrina, 2004; Plourde, 2002). The students stated the teaching experience course was a milestone in the beginning of their teaching career. Katrina (2004) stated that the importance of teaching practice as a significant step in pre-service teachers’ educational career warrants the application of theoretical knowledge and transforms the “pre-service teachers” into “real teachers”. Likewise, Plourde (2002) highlighted the prominence of experience that provides opportunities for pre-service teachers to apply their content and pedagogical knowledge with children and to further develop personal teaching philosophies.

These findings are consistent with the other studies conducted in Turkey (Celep, 2001; Gencer & Çakıroğlu, 2007; Savran, 2002). Some other students having a high degree of self-confidence in managing classroom issues reported the effectiveness of the classroom management courses they are taught during their studies in terms of teacher training, which indicates parallelism with the implications of many investigations (Chambers & Hardy, 2005; Ekici, 2008; Henson, 2003; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005; Yeşilyurt & Çankaya, 2008).

Changes in emotional intelligence. The second constituent the study investigated was the emotional intelligence of pre-service teachers.

This study observed an increase in emotional intelligence over the course of the study. Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to have an impact on student teachers emotional intelligence in that emotional intelligence is likely to improve as student teachers become more experienced. Pre-service teachers mentioned the changes in

their emotions before and after the teaching practice. The study showed that as the students gained a higher sense of self-efficacy their emotional intelligence levels improved as well. As they experienced success and achievement in actual teaching experiences they seemed to have stronger confidence in themselves. The study reported that pre-service teachers felt motivated and pleased when the students were responsive and had positive emotions when the students were co-operating in teaching practice and when their practice partners in the same group and the mentors gave them positive feedback about their teaching performance. This was verbally reported by Student 6 (2015 male) “as my students were engaged and responsive in the lesson I felt closer, happier and more optimistic about my future career... I preferred spending some of the break times in the classroom with my students...”

The findings of the study are in line with some other studies. Various researchers such as Hargreaves, (2000) and Erb (2002) studied the joy the teachers experience in their relationships with children, especially when the children are responsive. The researchers concluded that the teachers enjoy spending time with children in school and in extracurricular activities. Researchers such as Emmer, (1994a), Sutton, (2000a), Hatch, (1993), and Erb, (2002) obtained similar finding in their studies. They stated that teachers had positive emotions when students cooperated and caused no major disruptions, got everything done (Emmer, 1994a; Sutton, 2000a; Hatch, 1993) and when colleagues were supportive (Erb, 2002). Koçoğlu (2011) pointed to the importance of emotional intelligence in teacher education. She highlighted the fact that awareness of the importance of emotional intelligence would contribute to pre-service teachers’ future careers. This is a double gain situation teacher him/herself may develop higher emotional competencies which in turn may have an impact on students’ learning and achievement. Therefore, the way in which emotions are understood, reflected, and managed may hold promise for effective teaching.

On the other hand pre-service teachers also mentioned negative emotions such as anxiety, anger and frustration because of failing to reach because of goal; inattention of the students and the complexity of first practices in real life. Research in the field yielded similar results. Researchers carried out studies on negative emotions such as, anger and frustration which arise from sources related to anger and frustration because of failing to reach because of goal Erb, (2002), Hargreaves, (2000), and Sutton, (2000a) stated that these may arise because of students' misbehaviour and violation of rules. Reyna and Weiner (2001) stated that teachers are also likely to become angry when they believe that students' poor academic work is due to controllable factors such as laziness or inattention.

For beginning teachers a common source of negative emotion is anxiety. Pre-service teachers stated they were anxious when they first entered the real classes. They were anxious because the school, mentors and the students were all new. They had confusing emotions since they had no idea how they would be met by the new environment and uncertainty about the attitude of the mentors and students were other challenging issues for the student teachers. Student 8 (2014 female) stated that she frequently questioned whether she could be successful in her practice and everything seemed to her too complex to do..." Another student, Student 7 (2014 female) reported that she had worries about classroom management..." This finding is in line with Bullough, Knowles and Crow (1991), Erb, (2002) and Tickle, (1991). They stated that the reason for anxiety may be the complexity of learning to teach and the uncertainty of achieving goals. Similarly, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) stated that emotions may influence teacher cognition and teacher motivation. They claim that teachers' negative emotions are "a central component of management and discipline because they focus attention so powerfully" (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003, p. 336).

It can be summarized that the influence of emotions is clear in the success of pre-service teachers' lives. It seems that when the pre-service teachers are able to evaluate their

feelings and solve problems they may become academically successful and positively motivated. This is consistent with Bar-On (2005) who posited that;

ability to manage one's emotions, to be able to validate one's feelings and to solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature are important for being academically successful; additionally, academic performance appears to be facilitated by being able to set personal goals as well as to be sufficiently optimistic and self-motivated to accomplish them. (Bar-On, 2005, pp. 14-15)

These findings are consistent with the general issues investigated in the field. These support the overall influence of teaching practice on pre-service teachers' emotional intelligence. The study also deepened its scope to sub-scales of emotional intelligence.

The most improved subscale was interpersonal intelligence which included developing empathy, having social responsibility and interpersonal relationships. As the teaching practice became more intense, the pre-service teachers reported establishing good relationships with the mentors and students in their groups. They were able to develop empathy and good relationships with others. They were able to understand the students they taught, create a secure and trusting environment in the class, and take the perspective of their students and choice of teaching method. They also stated to co-operate with the teaching experience group members. A study by Tettegah and Anaderson (2007) supported this finding reporting that teacher empathy has a positive impact on teaching and consequently on learning.

Student 1 (2014 female) stated "I started to ask myself how I would feel if were a student... would like this kind of activity..." Student 12 (2015 male) stated "when I received feed-back from my mentor and friends I tried to develop empathy with them..."

This finding is supported by Winters (2009) who stated the importance and positive contribution of empathy in the school setting. Brown (1994) described empathy as the ability or capacity to understand or feel what others understand or feel. Similarly, Brown (2000)

underlined the idea that empathy is an important skill for people who experience a new second or foreign language context. As Ellis (1994) stated the importance of empathy as an affective factor that will influence language development, particularly second language learning. Pawlak (2012) reminded us that prospective teachers should not only be trained in linguistics and didactics but awareness should be created about interpersonal intelligence skills, which is quite important in affect-oriented teaching and learning environments. Therefore, having higher score in interpersonal intelligence is important. Similarly, Brown (1994) clarifies that empathy can be seen as a complex concept, for which language can play a significant role because since language is the primary means of empathizing.

The pre-service teachers in the present study did not only desire to have friendly relations with their future students, but also tried to engage and motivate them to participate in learning activities. Precisely, they believed that they would patiently listen to and understand the feelings of their future students to build a trusting and caring relationship whereby learning can occur. In addition, these skills involve careful, compassionate and non-judgmental listening and positive communication with the person. Pre-service teachers with strong interpersonal skills patiently listen to and understand the feelings of their students, and create a positive learning environment.

Having higher scores in interpersonal intelligence created a positive mood in pre-service teachers. General mood refers to being self-motivated and includes happiness and optimism. After establishing good relationships with mentors and the students, the teacher candidates felt optimistic and happy about their performances and future career. Of course, there were problems and weak sides in their experience but generally they were positive and looked at the brighter side of life and felt content with themselves, others and life in general.

Koçoğlu's (2012) study supported this finding. The high scores indicate cheerful, positive, helpful and optimistic individuals who know how to enjoy life.

Student 8 (2105 male) stated that “I still have worries about my teaching career but teaching experience provided an insight into the real teaching context... my anxiety is lowered...” Student 17 (2015 female) reported that she felt happier and optimistic about a teaching career... teaching practice provided her with “a sense of achievement in teaching...” Having higher scores in interpersonal intelligence and general mood fed students’ confidence in themselves. They started to believe that they can establish good relationships with the students and develop empathy to better understand and assist their learning. This view created a positive mood in them. The third high subscale was intrapersonal intelligence.

Intrapersonal intelligence refers to self-awareness and self-expression. Experience in the real environment seemed for provide chances to teacher candidates to gain self-regard and accurately perceive and understand themselves. Teaching practice enabled them to become aware of their emotions’ about teaching; they became assertive and constructive in expressing their emotions. As they gained confidence and emotionally grew, they won independence in their teaching, which meant being self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others. As a result, they were able to strive to achieve personal goals and actualize their potential.

Student 6 (2014 female) reported that at the beginning of the teaching experience there were uncertain things about teaching: “... as I practiced teaching and got the students engaged in the lesson, and saw them enthusiastic in studying English I became more assertive in planning more dynamic and enjoyable classes...my confidence grew...”

The pre-service teachers seemed to grow mostly in the areas of interpersonal, general mood and intrapersonal intelligences. Adaptability and stress management intelligences were the once that changed only slightly. This may be due to their nature. Teacher candidates believe they may become more adaptable as their experience increases in time.

Adaptability refers to change management. It includes reality testing, flexibility and problem-solving. Putting these into practice requires more experience and autonomy in

teaching. For reality testing, pre-service teachers need to be able to objectively validate their' feelings and thinking with external reality. They reported that teaching is endless learning and there is a lot they will learn after they start teaching. Flexibility is another dimension that may develop in time. It means to adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations. The students need to get a real English teacher identity to do it. Koçoğlu (2012) accentuated the idea that not having the characteristics of stress tolerance and flexibility was to be expected for pre-service teachers, because they were directly supported in their efforts by their university supervisors and cooperating teachers. They were often told what to do, how to complete the task and how to behave during their training experience.

Student 9 (2015 female) stated "...we are not accepted as teachers at practice schools. We are considered to be university students... this is a process. After we are appointed as teachers we will be more able to adapt ourselves and feelings to new situations." Problem solving is a similar case. When they confronted a problem at first they were puzzled and could not decide what to do to solve the problem. As they gained experience, things became familiar with them and they familiar with them, they avoided the shock. To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature requires time and experience.

The least changed facet of intelligence was the stress management. Stress management refers to emotional management and regulation. It involves stress tolerance; effectively and constructively managing emotions, and impulse control; to effectively and constructively control emotions. Şirin (2007) and Taylı (2010) emphasized the importance of teachers' recognizing feelings and managing them in an appropriate way. The present study also found that pre-service teachers are aware of the importance of feelings in teaching. Additionally, Baron (1997) described emotional intelligence as a set of skills that facilitates an individual in coping successfully with the pressures and demands from the environment. Student 3(2015 female) reported that stress management was a little bit problematic at the beginning,

although she felt better later. She stated lesson plans and materials lessen her stress but unexpected events or misbehaviour in the class was still causing stress.

Emotional intelligence is very rich in nature and has different dimensions. What is lacking in the field is data due to the scarcity of studies on the effects of the teaching practice course on pre-service teachers' emotional intelligence. Acquisition of language concepts by pre-service teachers is probably influenced by university coursework and field experiences, but little research has examined how the emotional intelligence of the pre-service teachers develops in the course of teaching practice. Emotional intelligence is mostly explored as an overall concept; its' subscales and their development has been ignored in the field. The next section will focus on the dimension of teacher knowledge.

Changes in Teacher knowledge (Lesson Planning). The third constituent the study investigated was teacher knowledge.

Teacher knowledge was examined in two different areas. The first was related to lesson planning skills and using resources for language teaching. This study observed an increase in teacher/ lesson planning knowledge over the course of the study. Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to exert an impact on student teachers teacher knowledge in that lesson planning is likely to improve as student teachers become more experienced.

The findings in this study have revealed that different student teaching contexts offer varied opportunities of growth for student teachers. It is likely that the student teaching context provides productive learning experiences. The pre-service teachers' knowledge of lesson planning, language teaching skills, materials and resources selection skills and assessment skills were observed to grow after teaching practice. The influence of experience has become visible again. The pre-service teachers acquired knowledge of methodology and theory in the department. They were given chances to practice declarative knowledge in the

micro teaching sessions. The students participating in the study reported that they became aware of the function and importance of the different methods and techniques during the teaching practice. Since it was the first time most of the pre-service teachers experienced real interaction between the learners and themselves, it was extremely valuable and helpful for them. They were trying to acquire teacher identity and, the suitable medium turned out to be the teaching experience. Ben-Peretz's (1995) study is consistent with this; she clarified that field experience has been regarded as the most valuable component of initial teacher education that contributes to pre-service teachers' professional learning. Similarly, Tang (2002) regarded learning-to-teach as the construction of the teaching self in the professional artistry of teaching. The students' teacher identity started to gain concrete shape. The teaching practice provided a context for pre-service teachers to find their identity. Context in teaching took centre stage.

The student teaching context is conceptualized in three different facets. Eraut (1994) named the first one as the action context, McNally, Cope, Inglis, and Stronach (1997) labelled the second one as the socio-professional context and Slick (1998) labelled the third one as supervisory context.

Eraut (1994) defines the action context as the real settings in which pre-service teachers are introduced to the complex nature of learning-to-teach. Student teachers' experience in the school is chiefly confined to classroom teaching rather than an exposure to the full range of responsibilities of full time-teaching (McCulloch & Lock, 1992; Stones, 1987). The teacher candidates start to develop teacher identity, learn to collaborate with others and develop critical understanding of teaching practice.

Pupils act as an important reference group to student teachers in the action context. Nias (1989) argued that pupils can validate student teachers' professional competence or make them feel technically inadequate. Similarly, Yee Fan Tang (2003) investigated the

contribution of field experiences to teacher knowledge. The study focused on student teachers' construction of self in teaching in different phases of practice context such as, the action context, the socio-professional context, and the supervisory context. These findings are in line with the present study. The action context helped the pre-service teachers to feel adequate and have a teacher identity after experiencing teaching practice.

Student 6 (2015 female) emphasized that "...the first time I put my plan into practice, when unexpected situations happened, I could not know what to do... then I realized what anticipated problems refer to in real life... this was a real gain out of teaching experience..."

The study narrowed down its scope to lesson planning skills of the student teachers. This section aimed to explore how well the students could identify and select aims appropriate to learners, the stage of learning and lesson types; identifying the different components of a lesson plan, planning an individual lesson, choosing and sequencing activities appropriate to learners and aims; and choosing assessment activities appropriate to learners.

The pre-service teachers stated that after they spent time in practice, lesson planning became easier and the issues in the plan became clearer because they had a chance to observe the students, find out the type of activities they liked and plan the courses accordingly. Some other students related that they became better at planning after completing teaching practice; now they feel better in planning skills and teaching practice helped them to clarify them. As a result, they had chances to bridge the gap between the theory and practice of lesson planning.

Students found teaching practice to be useful in integrating theory with practice, monitor the growth in their teacher knowledge and, lesson planning skills and at the end of the teaching practice course most of them found themselves ready to teach. These findings were similar to those of Wiseman, Knight, and Cooner, (2005), Ribich, (1995), and Jaquith, (1995). Wiseman, Knight, and Cooner, (2005) stated that including field experience in the teacher

education programme provides student teachers with opportunities to integrate theory learnt into practice in a meaningful way. Ribich (1995) strongly believes that field experience in teacher education programmes helps students grow and develop as teachers. It also assesses students' "readiness for entering the teaching profession" (Jaquith, 1995, p. 20). Teaching practice provided chances for the teacher candidates to review lesson planning skills and whether growth in their professional knowledge had taken place after the completion of the teaching practice.

Other than lesson planning skills the study also focused on language teaching skills of the students. The aim of this section was to evaluate whether the students were able to transform the declarative knowledge they acquired from teaching language skills, methodology and approach courses into procedural knowledge. Candidates were expected to prove that they have an idea about concepts and terminology on identifying and selecting lesson aims.

The study underlined a change in language teaching skills of the students after completing the teaching practice course. The students stated that there was growth in their language teaching skills. Most of the students compared micro teaching and practicum courses concluding that they found teaching practice courses more productive since they took place in a real environment with real learners. They criticized micro- teaching performances for not being real and not having real age groups in front of them and reported that they gained too much self-confidence since every step runs smoothly in the department. They said they experienced reality shock and dissonance when they confronted difficulties in the practicum. This was consistent with Kagan (1992), who argued that for growth to take place dissonance must be experienced. She elaborated that novice teachers' use of growing knowledge of pupils and classrooms helps to reconstruct the teaching self in the learning-to-teach process.

The teaching experience course seems to have contributed to the teacher knowledge of the pre-service teachers' lesson planning skills and, language teaching skills. The active engagement required in field-based experiences leads to deeper understanding than classroom learning alone (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

The study investigated whether there was any change in the knowledge of selection of materials and resources after completing the teaching practice. The study highlighted a change in selection of materials and resources knowledge of the pre-service teachers. The students' knowledge of making use of resources, materials and aids in lesson planning was tested. They were expected to have an understanding of concepts and terminology related to using reference sources for lesson preparation.

Teaching practice facilitated students in having a point of view when applying their declarative knowledge to practice in real, meaningful practices. This finding is supported by ten Dam and Blom (2006). They reported that real schools open the door to pre-service teachers by learning through participation in real, meaningful practices. This way, pre-service teachers construct their own knowledge.

Thus, the collaboration between schools and universities gains importance since the programme offers a balance between transforming theoretical knowledge into practice. In the process working collaboratively both organizations provide pre-service teachers with scientific concepts and participation in professional practice.

Language teacher educators such as Fradd and Lee (1998) and Day and Conklin, (1992) have specified the knowledge/competency base of EFL teacher education programs in three ways. The first one is knowledge of language which refers to content knowledge, knowledge of the subject matter, English language. The second one is knowledge of science of teaching and pedagogy which includes pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of generic

teaching strategies, beliefs, and practices. The last one is knowledge/competency of teaching in reality that encompasses pedagogical content knowledge.

Accordingly, pre-service teachers participating in the study reported that teaching practice provided them with insights on how to choose suitable materials and resources for lesson preparation, how to adapt materials for their student groups and how to select and use supplementary materials and activities and the selection and use of course book materials. The third component of the tripartite seemed to be effective in the use of materials and resources. The candidates could practice their pedagogical content knowledge and experienced how to represent content knowledge in the classroom and how learners come to understand the subject matter in the context of real teaching.

Student 7 (2015 female) stated that after the completion of teaching practice she was better able to choose suitable materials and resources for lesson preparation, if needed she could adapt materials for her student groups and select and use supplementary materials and activities. The impact of teaching practice has been underlined by the study.

The bulk of research to date has investigated the pre-service teaching experience. Little is understood about pedagogical content knowledge in the course of teaching practice in pre-service foreign language teaching. In particular, we do not yet understand what happens to teacher knowledge during the teaching practice. What has been attempted by this study is to try to provide an understanding of what happens to teacher knowledge and how is it shaped by the student teachers' over course of teaching practice period.

Changes in teacher knowledge / Classroom management. The second area of teacher knowledge was related to classroom management skills of the pre-service teachers.

It consisted of two parts related to managing the teaching and learning process, the classroom language used by the teacher and the students, and the teacher's ability to manage and make the most out of classroom language and interaction.

The study observed an increase in teacher/ classroom management knowledge over the course of the study. Such a finding implies that experience in teaching courses is likely to exert an impact on student teachers' teacher knowledge; in that classroom management is likely to improve as student teachers become more experienced.

Classroom management (CM hereafter) is one of the most mentioned problems of pre-service teachers. The situation was the same for the participants of the study. They mostly stated problems of CM. CM is an important source of anxiety for every teacher experienced or pre-service. Pre-service teachers reported experiencing problems related to classroom management (Merç, 2004). Kyriacou (1991) stated that the situation is not different with experienced teachers as well. Fowler and Şaraplı (2010) pointed to the precision of the component of a foreign language classroom in classroom management.

In the extracts presented below, there are some explanations made by pre-service teachers about the classroom incidents that caused management problems in their teaching experiences. The most frequently stated classroom management problem was time management, it was explained by Student 9 (2014 female) as follows: "... I had difficulty in time management while I was trying to cope with classroom management... I had to skip some items or spent too much time on others, but as the number of experiences increased I found out that I was better able to deal with classroom management than before..."

This was in line with Macias and Sanchez (2015), who stated that they observed similar problems with pre-service teachers who claimed that classroom management interfered with instructional time. They stated that they often had to stop the lesson to solve all kinds of situations in class. Likewise, Kerdikoshvili (2012) examined the ways of handling classroom management and discipline problems in a Georgian context. The findings of the study revealed that there are close relationships between the principles of effective CM and the principles of learning and motivation.

Merç (2004) also conducted a study with 99 Turkish EFL student teachers. The study identified the major problems under the titles of, pre-service teacher based problems, student based problems, mentor teacher based problems, educational context or system based problems and supervisor based problems. Pre-service teacher based problems were detailed as the problems in the pre-active stage, in the active stage and individual problems.

Another common problem was observed to be the lack of enough practice of declarative CM knowledge and the awareness of the importance of CM strategies. Student 16 (2015 female) mentioned this as follows “... I had difficulty in classroom management because I had to do at least two things together; then I remembered the effect of eye contact with the students. It really worked and helped me to cope with some of the problems....”

Prodromou (1992) stressed the importance of establishing eye contact with the students with regard to achieving successful classroom management. Altinel (2006) counted establishing eye-contact with the students as one of the helpful non-verbal in handling misbehaviour.

Students confessed that they did not become aware of the importance of classroom management before the teaching practice. This was due to the artificial nature of micro teachings they performed at the ELT department. Since the class members only pretended to be primary or secondary school students, there weren't any real management or proficiency problems confronting them. In a sense, students were regretful that they had not concentrated on classroom management strategies better. They complained about personal survival problems in the real teaching context. The pre-service teachers reported that most challenging problems were related to having a continuous class control, handling unmotivated students, and meeting the needs of different kinds of students. Mau (1997) mentions about three main categories of problems: personal-survival, learner, and teaching situation problems. The study reveals that it is critical for pre-service teachers to experience real classroom teaching as

much as possible in order to manage the classrooms better and to deal with individual students more effectively.

Student 10 (2014 female) stated the late awareness of the importance of classroom knowledge as follows: "... I found teacher knowledge to be helpful in classroom management during the teaching practice period... while we studied the theoretical courses I did not mind about them so much and only understood classroom management strategies importance in practice..." This finding is in line with the results of İflazoğlu and Saban's study (2009). According to researchers, practicum courses offer chances to ELT students to put the information they learned in various methodology courses into practice.

Another problematic situation concerned student engagement and undisciplined behaviour. Most of the students in the study reported that the most difficult part of teaching practice was CM. They stated various reasons, such as pupils, unexpected interruptions, misbehaving students, and discipline problems. They stated that they were equipped to teach in terms of lesson plans, materials and activities but management problems inhibited the progress of the lesson. When there is interruption, the enthusiasm for teaching is weakened and the pre-service teachers became muddled. McKinney (1992) supported this finding. He reported that teachers with enthusiasm for teaching manage the class well.

Similarly, the aim of Kayıkçı's (2009) investigated the impact of teachers' CM skills on the discipline behaviour of students. The outcomes of the study yielded that a positive teacher-student relationship and communication would decrease student misbehaviour.

As a remedy İnceçay and Dollar (2012) study pinpointed that teaching practice would provide opportunities for ELT pre-service teachers to transform their declarative knowledge, into the procedural knowledge which may increase the efficacy and readiness levels of pre-service ELT teachers to manage classroom with less difficulty in a real environment.

After completing teaching practicum students revealed that they overcame their initial anxiety and inexperienced selves in CM. Student 12 (2014 male) explained this as follows “... in the very beginning of the teaching experience, to have good classroom management skills I felt I needed to draw a teacher character... then I overcame the difficulties in classroom management... then I realized, as I solved problems in CM, my efficacy started to improve” Student 12 (2015 male) stated that “... when I found myself efficient in classroom management I believed that I can be a teacher...” Similarly, Student 13 (2015 female) verbalized that “...being successful gave her the confidence that she might become a good teacher and added that theoretical knowledge of classroom management had to be reinforced with practice in real classes with real students...”

In their study, İnceçay and Dollar (2012) analysed the correlation between the efficacy of pre-service teachers and their readiness to manage their classrooms. The findings showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the pre-service teachers’ CM efficacy and their readiness to manage the challenging classroom behaviours. The study revealed the importance of teaching practice course in transforming the declarative knowledge on classroom management into procedural one. The pre-service students were not successful in putting theory into practice.

Pre-service teachers complained about not being accepted as a “real teacher” by the students. This created some confusion in pre-service teachers’ minds. Student 9 (2014 female) stated that she was better able to manage her classes after she could the create character of a teacher in students’ minds. Student 11 (2014 male) underlined the same issue; he stated that initially the students did not take them seriously and as a result showed no respect but in time, by being well-prepared for the classes, and using interesting games and activities, he gained their respect and students started to be involved in his classes... CM was not a serious problem any longer...” This was in line with Macias and Sanchez (2015). In their study, they

stated that pre-service students complained about being considered as a college student who is carrying out an activity. They felt that this had serious consequences because the high school students did not see them as their teachers either, and they were more inclined to challenge their authority and be disrespectful toward them. Therefore, they felt they needed to be firm and assertive so that their students would take them more seriously.

Pre-service teachers mentioned the importance of mentor teachers during teaching practice. Some of the student teachers said they started the practicum with high expectations from mentor teachers, but they were disappointed; some others were luckier because they had experienced teachers with the essential skills to manage both the class and students. Student 5 (2015 male) complained about his mentor teacher for only following the course book line by line, not bringing any extra materials to the class and creating a monotonous atmosphere in the classroom. Student 19 (2015 female) criticized her mentor teacher and said that the observation period in the practicum course was a waste of time, as the teacher only applied the Grammar Translation method in the class and CM was also insufficient. On the other hand, some other pre-service teachers were quite thankful to their co-operating teachers for providing them with such valuable support and experience. This finding was in line with Turanlı and Yıldırım (1999) and Chien (2014). Turanlı and Yıldırım (1999) pointed out that pre-service teachers had high expectations from their teachers with regard to effective CM. This may be because pre-service teachers think that their mentors should be experienced enough and equipped with essential skills to manage both the class and students.

Furthermore, Chien (2014) contributed to the significance of a mentors role in the development of pre-service teachers classroom management skills via observing their mentor teachers' instructions and having conversations with them regarding their experiences.

As can be seen so far, the classroom management skills of pre-service teachers have mostly been investigated in relation to misbehaviour of the students, keeping the class in order

and the relationship with mentor teachers/ supervisors. What has been ignored is whether classroom management skills related to teacher knowledge are shaped in the teaching experience period. This study aimed to shed light on the process of teacher knowledge growth in relation to classroom management skills of pre-service teachers after completing the teaching practice course.

Recent studies implemented in the field of education showed that acquiring the required knowledge and skills is not sufficient for effective teaching. The contributions of internal factors such as teachers' traits and beliefs have been emphasized. Likewise, Ortaçtepe and Akyel (2015) underlined the importance of teachers' traits, attitudes and beliefs contributing to their effectiveness as educators. Emotional intelligence can be illustrated as one of these traits. Goleman's (2000) study is in line with this. The study underlined that high levels of emotional intelligence create confidence, risk taking, and facilitated learning. It may be useful to underline once again, emotional intelligence is not an innate talent, but a learned ability, which has a contribution to the effectiveness of teachers.

Another important trait of effective teachers is self-efficacy. Gibbs (2002) stated that effective teachers believe that they can make a difference in student learning and they demonstrate this belief in their teaching. Gibbs (2002) and Tschannen-Moran, et al., (1998) study emphasized that teacher effectiveness is affected by their levels of self-efficacy. The study next explored whether different constructs are related to each other in foreign language teacher identity construction.

The Pearson correlation coefficient analysis revealed significant relations mostly with emotional intelligence factors. The sense of self-efficacy of student teachers appeared to correlate to student total emotional intelligence scores. Drew (2006) pointed to the growing body of research that reveals emotional intelligence and self-efficacy exist together and interact with each other. In other words, as remarked by Anderson (2004), emotional

intelligence can influence beliefs about teaching, which in sequence may determine effective teaching and student learning.

The findings of this study revealed that during the process of EFL teacher identity shaping, pre-service teachers' emotional intelligence and self-efficacy were closely related to each other. This finding is consistent with the studies above.

Intrapersonal intelligence had the strongest correlation with a sense of self-efficacy followed by mood intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, stress management and adaptability.

Pre-service teachers with high sense of self-efficacy levels tended to have higher intrapersonal intelligence, relying on the confidence they gained from successful teaching experiences. Teaching experience developed pre-service teachers' self-awareness on the way to identity formation. Especially, when they successfully executed a performance, their self-regard developed. As a result; they became aware of their own emotions about teaching, and they are better motivated to teach and more assertive because they can express their emotions more effectively and constructively than before. Having a higher intrapersonal intelligence gave them a feeling of independence and they became more self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others. They had a chance to actualize themselves in teaching in the real context, which enabled them to see how well they could achieve personal goals. This finding supports Fabio and Palazzeschi's (2008), study which examined the association between occupational self-efficacy and emotional intelligence among 169 Italian teachers. They concluded that the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence best accounts for teacher self-efficacy. This finding is in line with those reported by Chan (2004), Martin, Easton, Wilson, Takemoto and Sullivan (2004), Rastegar and Memarpour (2009), Gürol, Özercan and Yalçın (2010), and Amirian and Behshad (2016).

Foreign language learning is a complex task that is associated with anxiety and feelings of discomfort, prevention, self-doubt and worry; which mean teachers have to deal with students who come to class not only with diverse abilities but also with a range of emotional tendencies. The pre-service teachers who successfully complete teaching experience have higher emotional intelligence and self-efficacy levels because they could cope with difficult students, lower student anxiety, create a good learning environment and facilitate effective learning in their classes. This feeds the general mood of their teaching.

Studies carried out by Frederickson (2001), Kremenitzer (2005) and Atay (2007) drew attention to the importance of the positive mood of teachers. Frederickson (2001) named broad-coping skills which would enable teachers solve more problems that may be available with the teachers who experience more positive emotions. Kremenitzer (2005) stated that for effective and successful teaching, being able to regulate and manage emotions within the classroom is an important factor. Managing teachers' mood to respond unanticipated and difficult spontaneous situations is perhaps the most challenging of all. Therefore, teachers must be able to make a quick emotional adjustment.

As Salovey and Mayer (1990) proposed, emotional intelligence helps to deal with the emotions. According to them emotional intelligence is the ability to monitor emotions, discriminate among them and use this information for leading thinking and action. The pre-service teachers had chances to experience this and became aware of the importance of emotions in teaching; they started to monitor the students' reactions to English as a foreign language and to the classes. Student 4 (2015 female) emphasized the importance of emotions and teaching practice in her beginning career as follows: "after spending some time with the students in the class we became familiar with each other, I learned some names, they started to come and ask me questions in break times and did not want to leave me alone... a friendly

atmosphere developed... since I gained their trust they became more engaged and better motivated...”

Yazici, Seyis and Altun (2011) found that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy were the significant predictors of academic success. As teacher candidates successfully fulfil the teaching experience course, they feel better in terms of academic performance. As mentioned by Student 4 above, she became better at interpersonal competencies in the teaching practice period.

Teaching practice provided insights for the pre-service teachers’ future teaching career and underlined the importance of emotions in teacher identity shaping. This finding is consistent with Adiloğulları (2013). The study claimed that understanding and managing emotions in communication, and developing empathy skills, may help to be more successful and satisfied in their professional life. In other words, emotional intelligence may have a central role in the improvement of teachers’ academic abilities at its best and may provide a better professional and academic success. It seems that experience in teaching contributed to pre-service teachers’ sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and the teacher knowledge.

Pedagogical and Methodological Implications

Pedagogical Implications. Limitations are inevitable in any foreign language research. Bearing in mind the limitations of this study, the findings of the study suggests that there are some pedagogical implications.

Firstly, teacher sense of self-efficacy seemed to have grown during the teaching practice. As stated by Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), teacher sense of self-efficacy involves the teacher’s belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context. As a result, as stated by Cousins and Walker (2008), teachers with higher efficacy tend to be more open to

new ideas, more willing to experiment with new methods to better meet the needs of their students and more committed to teaching.

These studies show that beliefs are crucial in taking responsibility, in determining the way teachers understand and organize instruction, bringing about the desired outcomes of student engagement and learning. Efficacy is probably such a belief. According to Chan (2007), self-efficacy is developmental and can be learned, in which case, training programs can be provided for teachers with the aim of developing their self-efficacy.

Secondly, the teaching practice course had an effect on the pre-service teachers' emotional intelligence. The study showed that as the students gained a higher sense of self-efficacy their emotional intelligence levels improved as well. Teachers who improve their emotional intelligence can become aware of the significance of the individual differences and design their courses on these individual differences by supporting students' learning. Thus, teachers can support students' enhancing communication skills, developing a common sense of responsibility and learning in the classroom (Obiakor, 2001). Teachers must be aware of their own emotional intelligence skills to develop students' emotional intelligence (Kaufhold and Johanson, 2002). In summary, teachers are expected to possess high levels of emotional intelligence for daily interactions with students, their colleagues and administrators.

According to Bar-on (2000), and Mayer and Salovey (1997), emotional intelligence develops over time and can be taught and improved through training, programming, and therapy and its' improvement will promote both emotion and thought.

This study found a positive relationship between the sense of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. This finding may be beneficial to teacher educators and EFL teachers.

Since each of them has the capacity to be developed and learned teacher educators and EFL teachers may become more sensitive about these positively correlated concepts. Likewise, Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) reported a significant positive relationship

between emotional intelligence and teaching efficacy. Furthermore, Rastegar and Memarpour (2009) reported that it is highly likely that emotionally intelligent individuals could provide help in how to manage emotions to less emotionally intelligent individuals.

In other words, development of emotional intelligence during teacher education programmes can lead to the development of teachers' self-efficacy and vice versa. Therefore, there is a need to consider them as important factors during EFL teacher education programmes both in pre-service and in-service teacher preparation.

Thirdly, the teaching practice enhanced the teacher knowledge of the pre-service teachers. The students participating in the study seemed to become more aware of the function and importance of pedagogical content knowledge. An increase, in the sense of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence levels seemed to positively contribute to the teacher knowledge of the pre-service teachers both in lesson planning and classroom management skills. The teaching practice provided the pre-service teachers with the valuable opportunities to experience real interaction with real learners. In the EFL teacher identity shaping period, the teaching experience course seemed to be the suitable medium.

Ben-Peretz's (1995) study is consistent with this; the study underlined the importance of field experience as the most favourably viewed component of initial teacher education in contributing to student teachers' professional learning. Similarly, Tang (2002) regarded learning-to-teach as the construction of the teaching self in the professional artistry of teaching. The students' teacher identity started to gain concrete shape. Wiseman, Knight, and Cooner, (2005) stated that including field experience in the teacher education programme provides student teachers with opportunities to integrate theory learnt into practice in a meaningful way. Ribich (1995) strongly believes that field experience in teacher education programmes helps students grow and develop as teachers. Teaching practice provided chances for the teacher candidates to review lesson planning and classroom management skills.

Finally, the findings of the study emphasized the importance of teaching practice in pre-service teachers' initial career development. Similarly, Clarke and Collins (2007) and Gebhard (2009) commented that; the teaching practicum is an integral, essential and key dimension of pre-service teacher education. The study revealed that the teaching practice provided chances for the students to engage in real teaching contexts, work with mentors and university advisors beyond the framework of the student-teacher relationship that may be described as a steady progress on the way to foreign language teacher identity and transform their content and pedagogical knowledge into practice. Likewise; Ronfeldt and Reininger (2012) reported that the practicum is the place where the pre-service teachers can gain experience in real teaching contexts, work with cooperating teachers and faculty advisors and practice their theoretical teacher knowledge. The study reported that teaching practice contributed to the development of teacher identity of pre-service teachers'. This could happen while they were collaborating with their mentors, supervisors, practicum group members and students in their classes.

The pre-service teachers drew attention to the contribution of the teaching practice course in EFL teacher identity shaping. At the institutional level, a move towards more collaborative forms of institute–school partnership is desirable. Future curriculum revisions and research initiatives in teacher education programmes should contribute to integrating the sense of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in order to provide better opportunities for the pre-service teachers in acquiring EFL teacher identity. As stated by the participating pre-service teachers, school experience and the teaching practice courses should start in the earlier semesters and be given more time in the curriculum.

Findings from this study might help researchers and teacher educators focus more on enhancing EFL teachers' sense of efficacy in teacher education programs.

To do this, most importantly, mentor training should be considered as a significant step. Altay (2015) drew attention to the contribution of mentor training in pre-service teachers' early careers. The first experiences are of great importance for pre-service teachers' future careers. Mentors may be given in-service training on how to be an effective mentor. The training program may include giving constructive feedback. More positive constructive feedback may feed a higher sense of self-efficacy.

The teaching practice group size may be too crowded to provide comprehensive feedback. In the university-school collaboration handbook, prepared by Topkaya, Yavuz and Erdem, (2008), the number of students in teaching practice groups was determined to be 7. Pre-service teacher groups may be minimized to a number of 3-4 at most. This application may create more opportunities for pre-service teachers to have more practice. In reality, pre-service teachers sometimes have the chance to apply the teaching experience only 2 or 3 times, which is not sufficient.

As the ELT department, our priority is to provide pre-service teachers with positive feedback and a higher sense of self-efficacy. To do this as mentioned above, smaller groups may be formed; in this way, supervisors and pre-service teachers may have more opportunities for better feedback before and after the teaching practice experiences.

Another suggestion may be to have departmental laboratory courses which may be carried out in foreign language teaching centres or programmes. A local example such as; ÇOMU TOMER (Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Turkish Language Teaching Centre) or Çocuklar Evi (university nursery school) can be given. This may give teacher candidates more experience in teaching, meeting real students, observing differences in students, trying to keep the students engaged in the lessons, making use of instructional strategies and classroom management. The impact of possible shock in the future teaching practice may be lessened. Pre-service teachers' chances for teaching experience may be enhanced.

In the light of the findings of the present study courses focusing on skills associated with emotional intelligence may be developed for EFL pre-service teachers. The teaching practice has an important place in the development of emotional intelligence. The mentors need to be made aware of the significance of emotions in teaching. In mentor training programs an introduction to the control of emotions and emotional intelligence may be helpful. Other than this, the training programs may stress the contribution of reflective practice in teaching practice. These training programs may be useful to help teachers manipulate their emotions appropriately, shift undesirable emotional states to more productive ones, understand the link between emotions, thoughts and actions, initiate and sustain rewarding interpersonal relationships in the classroom, and be sensitive to students' emotions. Principles of NLP can be introduced into teacher education programmes.

An integration of emotional intelligence may be applied by education faculties. The current guideline for teaching practice has a place for reflection which is only of mechanical dimension. The guideline provides questions as to how the pre-service teachers evaluate their experience before, during and after practice. Pre-service teachers keep a written record of their observations about instructional strategies, classroom management, communication in the classrooms and lesson planning.

What is lacking is the emotional dimension of the teaching practice. In the affective dimension, items questioning emotional intelligence may be added. The inclusion of such items may create an awareness of the control of emotions in inter and intra personal areas, stress management, adaptability to different situations and the general mood.

Integration of a sense of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in teacher education programs may enhance each other. The structure of the teaching practice course may be revised to create a better environment and better opportunities for pre-service teachers to confront more positive experiences in teaching. As a result, teacher candidates' self-efficacy

and emotional intelligence levels may become higher and they may use their teacher knowledge feeling more efficacious and emotionally strong. This would contribute to the EFL teacher identity formation.

Methodological Implications. This study offers some methodological implications. The study aimed to investigate whether different constructs have an effect on EFL language teacher identity and whether any change takes place in pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge during the teaching practice. The study did not aim at making specific recommendations for or generalizations about the exploration of teacher identity. The study aimed to explore and interpret interconnectedness of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge of pre-service teachers in the development of teacher identity.

The data collection period included 5 semesters, which may be sufficient to observe the changes and development in self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge of the participants as a group. The number of participants was not enough for regression analysis to find a cause and effect relationship. Because of the cross-sectional nature of the study, it was not possible to follow individual cases for the development of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge of teacher candidates, instead correlation analysis was conducted.

Suggestions for Further Research. In the light of the findings of this study, the following suggestions can be given to investigate issues to meet the requirements of EFL pre-service teachers in teacher identity formation:

- Firstly, a larger and wider population sample could be used in order to be able to generalize the results.
- Secondly, in this study, teacher sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge were examined as the constituents that may have an effect in

teacher identity formation. Similar studies could be conducted with different constituents, since identity is a complex and multifaceted concept. Doing further research on different dimensions of language teacher identity may confirm and add to the findings of the current study.

- Case studies examining different constituents may be helpful in understanding teacher identity formation.
- Cross-sectional case studies with more participants may be more helpful in following individual cases of development in teacher identity formation.

Conclusion

This study sought to explore whether a change takes place in pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge during their teacher identity construction period at an ELT department. Next, the study aimed to inspect the interconnectedness of the sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge in teacher identity construction. Furthermore, the study attempted to investigate the contribution of the teaching practice course to pre-service teachers' self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge.

Firstly, the findings of the study pointed to significant changes in pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy. Pre-service teachers seemed to have reached a higher sense of self-efficacy after interacting with their students in real schools. The student teachers became more enthusiastic in using different techniques and a variety of activities in their classes. The pre-service teachers in the study seemed to thus have been equipped with one of the dimensions of language teacher identity during this period.

Secondly, the study revealed growth and development in the emotional intelligence of the pre-service teachers. Interaction with real students in real schools helped the pre-service teachers develop their emotional intelligence levels. Since teaching and learning requires

human interaction pre-service teachers became more aware of the importance of interpersonal relationships and became more conscious of emotions in the classroom. Classroom discourses play an important role in shaping teacher identity as stated by Pavlenko (2003). Becoming aware of emotions and having control of them seemed to help pre-service teachers to be more adaptable to sudden and unexpected interruptions and difficulties in the class. Becoming an adaptable teacher helped them to increase stress management and they could go on implementing their lesson plans in the class.

Thirdly, the study underlined the development in pre-service teachers' teacher knowledge in lesson planning and classroom management skills. As they carried out teaching practice and the number of experiences increased they started to improve their teacher knowledge. They stated that they consciously became aware of theoretically received knowledge and were better able to use.

It may be concluded that in teacher identity self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and the teacher knowledge are all related to each other, which explains multifaceted nature of the concept. Although the direction is not clear from the analysis, all concepts seem to be contributing to one another.

Next the study investigated the interconnectedness of the constituents of teacher identity under consideration. The study found that there was a positive relationship between the sense of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. It seems that, as the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy developed, their emotional intelligence developed as well. Students with more successful teaching experiences seem to have higher levels of emotional intelligence. Having higher self-efficacy generated more positive emotions in pre-service teachers. This conclusion is in line with the findings of other researchers. Sutton and Wheatley (2003) also advocate that teachers with more positive emotions may generate more ideas and strategies. Timoštšuk

and Ugaste, (2010) revealed that the emotions of student teachers highlight and intensify experiences.

Finally, the study concentrated on the influence of the teaching experience course on pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and the teacher knowledge. The results obtained from this study show that the teaching practice course makes a significant contribution to the changes in the sense of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and teacher knowledge of the pre-service teachers. Positive experiences in the teaching practice promoted both teacher candidates' sense of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. As a result, a strong interconnection was found between the sense of self-efficacy and emotional knowledge of pre-service teachers. Consequently, the importance of teaching practice in pre-service teachers' initial career development and teacher identity construction has been clearly underlined by this study. It may be summarized that teaching experience is important not only to practice teaching but to increase one's self-efficacy, management of emotions and teaching knowledge. This could be due to contribution of established teacher knowledge through positive experience to the teacher self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and the teacher knowledge.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Turkish version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

(TTSES)

ÖĞRETMEN ÖZYETERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ	Yetersiz	Çok az	Biraz yeterli	Oldukça yeterli	Çok yeterli
1. Çalışması zor öğrencilere ulaşmayı ne kadar başarabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Öğrencilerin eleştirel düşüncelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sınıfta dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen davranışları kontrol etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Derslere az ilgi gösteren öğrencileri motive etmeyi ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Öğrenci davranışlarıyla ilgili beklentilerinizi ne kadar açık ortaya koyabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Öğrencileri okulda başarılı olabileceklerine inandırmayı ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Öğrencilerin zor sorularına ne kadar iyi cevap verebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Sınıfta yapılan etkinliklerin düzenli yürümesini ne kadar iyi sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
9. Öğrencilerin öğrenmeye değer vermelerini ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
10. Öğrettiklerinizin öğrenciler tarafından kavranıp kavranmadığını ne kadar iyi değerlendirebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
11. Öğrencilerinizi iyi bir şekilde değerlendirmesine olanak sağlayacak soruları ne ölçüde hazırlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
12. Öğrencilerin yaratıcılığının gelişmesine ne kadar yardımcı olabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
13. Öğrencilerin sınıf kurallarına uymalarını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
14. Başarısız bir öğrencinin dersi daha iyi anlamasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
15. Dersi olumsuz yönde etkileyen ya da derste gürültü yapan öğrencileri ne kadar yatıştırabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
16. Farklı öğrenci gruplarına uygun sınıf yönetim sistemi ne kadar iyi oluşturabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
17. Derslerin her bir öğrencinin seviyesine uygun olmasını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
18. Farklı değerlendirme yöntemlerini ne kadar kullanabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
19. Birkaç problemlili öğrencinin derse zarar vermesini ne kadar iyi engelleyebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
20. Öğrencilerin kafası karıştığında ne kadar alternatif açıklama ya da örnek sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5

21. Sizi hie sayan davranışlar gösteren öğrencilerle ne kadar iyi baş edebilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
22. Çocuklarının okulda başarılı olmalarına yardımcı olmaları için ailelere ne kadar destek olabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
23. Sınıfta farklı öğretim yöntemlerini ne kadar iyi uygulayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
24. Çok yetenekli öğrencilere uygun öğrenme ortamını ne kadar sağlayabilirsiniz?	1	2	3	4	5



APPENDIX B. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE INVENTORY

Sevgili öğretmen adayları,

Bu anket sizlerin duygusal zekânızı değerlendirmek için uygulanmaktadır. Vereceğiniz yanıtların doğru yanlış karşılığı yoktur. Anket sonuçları doktora tez çalışmam da kullanılacak ve gizli tutulacaktır, çalışmanın sağlıklı olması için içtenlikle cevap vermeniz önemlidir. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

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Öğrenci ad-soyadı:

Numarası:

Cinsiyeti:

Sınıf:

N.Ö.() İ.Ö.()

Duygusal Zeka Envanteri	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1- Zorluklarla baş edebilme yaklaşımım adım adım ilerlemektir.	5	4	3	2	1
2.Duygularımı göstermek benim için oldukça kolaydır.	5	4	3	2	1
3.Çok fazla strese dayanamam.	5	4	3	2	1
4.Hayallerimden çok çabuk sıyrılabilir ve o anki durumun gerçekle kolayca dönebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
5.Zaman zaman ortaya çıkan tersliklere rağmen, genellikle iş düzeleceğine inanırım.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Üzücü olaylarla yüz yüze gelmek benim için zordur.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Biriyle aynı fikirde olmadığımda bunu ona söyleyebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde beni neyin üzdüğünü bilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Başkaları benim iddiasız biri olduğumu düşünürler.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Çoğu durumda kendimden eminimdir.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Huysuz bir insanımdır.	5	4	3	2	1
12. Çevremde olup bitenlerin farkında değilimdir.	5	4	3	2	1
13. Derin duygularımı başkaları ile kolayca paylaşamam.???	5	4	3	2	1
14. İyi ve kötü yanlarıma baktığım zaman kendimi iyi hissedirim.	5	4	3	2	1
15. Yaşamımı elimden geldiğince anlamlı hale getirmeye çalışırım.	5	4	3	2	1
16. Sevgimi belli edemem.??	5	4	3	2	1
17. Tam olarak hangi konularda iyi olduğumu bilmiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
18. Eski alışkanlıklarımı değiştirebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
19. Hoşuma giden şeyleri elimden geldiğince sonuna kadar öğrenmeye çalışırım.	5	4	3	2	1
20. Başkalarına kızdığımda bunu onlara söyleyebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
21. Hayatta neler yapmak istediğime dair kesin bir fikrim yok.	5	4	3	2	1
22. Yapacaklarımın bana sık sık söylendiği bir işte çalışmayı tercih ederim.?	5	4	3	2	1
23. Bir problemi çözerken her bir olasılığı inceler, daha sonra en	5	4	3	2	1

iyisine karar veririm.					
24. Bir liderden çok, takipçiyimdir.	5	4	3	2	1
25. Doğrudan ifade etmeseler de, başkalarının duygularını çok iyi anlarım.	5	4	3	2	1
26. Fiziksel görüntümden memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
27. İnsanlara ne düşündüğümü kolayca söyleyebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
28. İlgilimi çeken şeyleri yapmaktan hoşlanırım.	5	4	3	2	1
29. Sabırsız bir insanım.	5	4	3	2	1
30. Diğer insanların duygularını incitmemeye özen gösteririm.	5	4	3	2	1
31. İşler gittikçe zorlaşsa da genellikle devam etmek için motivasyonum vardır.	5	4	3	2	1
32. Başkalarıyla iyi ilişkiler kurarım.	5	4	3	2	1
33. Güç bir durumla karşılaştığımda konuyla ilgili olabildiğince çok bilgi toplamayı isterim.	5	4	3	2	1
34. İnsanlara yardım etmekten hoşlanırım.	5	4	3	2	1
35. Son birkaç yılda çok az başarı elde ettim.	5	4	3	2	1
36. Öfkemi kontrol etmem zordur.	5	4	3	2	1
37. Hayattan zevk almıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
38. Duygularımı tanımlamak benim için zordur.	5	4	3	2	1
39. Haklarımı savunamam.	5	4	3	2	1
40. Oldukça neşeli bir insanımdır.	5	4	3	2	1
41. Düşünmeden hareket edişim problemler yaratır.	5	4	3	2	1
42. İnsanlar benim sosyal olduğumu düşünürler.	5	4	3	2	1
43. Kurallara uyan bir vatandaş olmak çok önemlidir.	5	4	3	2	1
44. Kendimi olduğum gibi kabul etmek bana zor geliyor.	5	4	3	2	1
45. Aynı anda başka bir yerde bulunmak zorunda olsam da, ağlayan bir çocuğun anne ve babasını bulmasına yardım ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
46. Arkadaşlarım bana özel şeylerini anlatabilirler.	5	4	3	2	1
47. Kendi başıma karar veremem.	5	4	3	2	1
48. Başka insanlara saygı duyarım.	5	4	3	2	1
49. Başkalarına neler olduğunu önemserim.	5	4	3	2	1
50. Bazı şeyler hakkında fikrimi değiştirmem zordur.	5	4	3	2	1
51. Problemlerin çözümüne ilişkin farklı çözüm yolları düşünmeye çalışınca genellikle tıkanır kalırım.	5	4	3	2	1
52. Fantaziler ya da hayaller kurmadan her şeyi gerçekte olduğu gibi görmeye çalışırım.	5	4	3	2	1
53. Neler hissettiğimi bilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
54. Benimle birlikte olmak eğlencelidir.	5	4	3	2	1
55. Sahip olduğum kişilik tarzından memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
56. Hayal ve fantazilerime kendimi kaptırırım.	5	4	3	2	1
57. Yakın ilişkilerim benim ve arkadaşlarım için çok önemlidir.	5	4	3	2	1
58. Yeni şeylere başlamak benim için zordur.	5	4	3	2	1
59. Eğer yasaları çiğnemem gerekirse, bunu yaparım.	5	4	3	2	1
60. Endişeliyimdir.	5	4	3	2	1
61. Yeni şartlara ayak uydurmak benim için kolaydır.	5	4	3	2	1
62. Kolayca arkadaş edinebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
63. Can sıkıcı problemlerle nasıl baş edebileceğimi bilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
64. Başkaları ile çalışırken kendi fikirlerimden çok onlarınkine güvenirim.	5	4	3	2	1

65. Kendimi çok sık, kötü hissederim.	5	4	3	2	1
66. Konuşmaya başlayınca zor susarım.	5	4	3	2	1
67. Çevremdekilerle iyi geçinemem.	5	4	3	2	1
68. Zor şartlarda serinkanlılığımı nasıl koruyacağımı bilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
69. Kendimi takdir ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
70. İnsanlarla tartışırken, bana sesimi alçaltmamı söylerler.	5	4	3	2	1
71. Tarzımı değiştirmem zordur.?	5	4	3	2	1
72. Hayatımdan memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
73. Başkalarının bana ihtiyaç duymalarından çok, ben başkalarına ihtiyaç duyarım	5	4	3	2	1
74. Hafta sonlarını ve tatilleri severim.	5	4	3	2	1
75. Çok sinirlenmeden stresle baş edebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
76. Çok zor durumların üstesinden geleceğime inanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
77. Acı çeken insanların farkına varamam.	5	4	3	2	1
78. Genellikle en iyisini ümit ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
79. Başkalarına göre, bana güvenmek zordur.	5	4	3	2	1
80. Endişemi kontrol etmemin zor olduğunu biliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
81. Başkalarının duygusal ihtiyaçlarını, kolaylıkla fark ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
82. Abartmayı severim.	5	4	3	2	1
83. Gülümsemek benim için zordur.	5	4	3	2	1
84. Uygun bir zamanda negatif duygularıyla yüzleşir, onları gözden geçiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
85. Yeni bir şeye başlamadan önce genellikle başarısız olacağım hissine kapılırım.	5	4	3	2	1
86. İstedğim zaman “hayır” demek benim için zordur.	5	4	3	2	1
87. Bir problemle karşılaştığımda önce durur ve düşünürüm.	5	4	3	2	1
88. Yukarıdaki ifadelere samimi bir şekilde yanıt verdim.	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix C: Semi-structured Interview Questions for Pre-service Teachers

- 1- Do you have teacher knowledge? Do you know what teacher knowledge is?
- 2- How did you acquire your teaching knowledge?
- 3- Is the process of acquiring the teacher knowledge over?
- 4- Where do you use the knowledge acquired?
- 5- Do you face any difficulty during teaching experience?
- 6- Do you share your teaching practice experiences with a friend or a group? What do you gain from it? What do you think about teaching practice applications? What are the advantages and disadvantages?

