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## **From the Editor**

Dear IJCER Readers,

Welcome to Volume 4, Issue 1 of IJCER

There are 2 articles in June 2017 issue. The first article is written by Prof. Dr. Ercan YILMAZ and Yılmaz KILIÇ. The title of the article is THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT ON TRAINEE TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION. This quantitative study explores the relationship between trainee teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS' TEACHING-EFFICACY PERCEPTIONS AND THEIR POTENTIAL SOURCES IN FIELD EXPERIENCE is the title of the second article by Dr. Handan ÇELİK and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ece ZEHİR TOPKAYA. This article examines senior pre-service teachers' teaching-efficacy perceptions and the potential sources of these perceptions in the course of field education, by which it is aimed to reveal the effect of field education on pre-service teachers' teaching-efficacy perceptions in Turkish context.

Hope to meet you in the next issue of IJCER.

Regards,

Cahit ERDEM

Editor



## International Journal of Contemporary Educational Research (IJCER)

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### **The Impact of Organizational Commitment on Trainee Teachers' Job Satisfaction**

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## **The Impact of Organizational Commitment on Trainee Teachers' Job Satisfaction**

**Ercan Yılmaz<sup>1</sup>, Yılmaz Kılıç<sup>1\*</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Necmettin Erbakan University

### **Abstract**

This study aims to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the trainee teachers. Teacher job satisfaction and organizational commitment play a significant role in the furtherance of teaching and learning perfectly. Generally, satisfied and committed teachers are more likely to motivate students to learn in the classroom settings. The participants of the research consist of 170 trainee teachers in the province of Bitlis, and its districts (Adilcevaz, Ahlat and Tatvan) in the 2015-2016 academic year. In this study, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale and Organizational Commitment Scales were used as data collection tools. The analyses of the data revealed that there was a negative relationship between job satisfaction of the teachers and continuance commitment. The analysis also showed a significant and positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment. However, there was no significant relationship between job satisfaction of teachers and affective commitment sub-dimension of organizational commitment. While the levels of the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment are analyzed, it can be seen that normative and continuance commitment sub-dimensions of organizational commitment affect job satisfaction significantly, but affective commitment sub-dimension has no significant impact on job satisfaction.

**Key words:** Motivation, Job satisfaction, Organizational commitment

### **Introduction**

In recent years, great developments and changes have become in the structure of the organizations in terms of both management and employees. Organizations that are most affected by these changes and developments are educational institutions. Schools have to strive to motivate their employees to keep pace with these changes and developments and to achieve their goals in different ways. According to Armstrong (2009), organizations need helping of employees to fulfill their objectives. Therefore, employees play a crucial role in achieving the organizational goals (Armstrong, 2009). In order for a teacher to be successful in his work, certain priorities must be fulfilled. At the forefront of these priorities are organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Gupta & Gehlawat (2013) state that if institutions such as schools want to reach their goals and raise their achievements, they need to take into account teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Because it is not possible to be successful without taking the extra support of the teachers (Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013). Luthans (1998) implies that the teacher who has commitment can be identified within the following aspects: (1) there is a reliance towards that organization; (2) the teacher has hard eagerness in order to achieve organization's goals; and (3) there is a strong reliance in the teacher itself in order to receive all of the goals and value of the organization of school (Sari, Siburian & Wau, 2017).

For many educational organizations and administrators, being aware of the organizational commitment or dedication of the occupants is an important element to be successful in finding and researching ways to ensure continuation (Ersözlü, 2012). A certain balance can be established between the social roles of teachers and the social status of the teaching profession; teachers' knowledge about concepts such as "job satisfaction" which can affect the qualities of life as well as the time period they spend in their institutions will be reflected positively on the quality of life of the teachers (Seyhan, 2015). The job satisfaction and commitment of the teachers play an important role in the furtherance of teaching and learning perfect. In general, satisfied and committed teachers are more likely to encourage students to learn in classroom settings.

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The teachers' commitment to school and satisfaction in business life are important factors for school effectiveness. Teachers have three priorities for the institution that they are working on targets such as the desire to work for the school, the desire to continue to work at school, and the acceptance of the school's educational goals and values (Balay, 2014). The efficiency of the education system and the school's aims in this context depend on the degree to which teachers and school administrators have adopted the aims and values of the school and the education system (Celep, 2000).

### **Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction means a satisfactory or positive emotional state stemming from the evaluation of an individual's work or work experience. It is thought to be various factors that affect the job satisfaction levels of the individual. This emerges as a consequence of the perception of how well employees provide things that are important to their work. These include income, perceived fairness of promotion system, quality of working condition, social relationships, leadership and the job itself (Locke, 1976; Luthans, 1998). Job satisfaction is a mental state that encompasses all the emotions determined by the degree to which a person fulfills his or her needs related job (Evans, 2001). Job satisfaction can be defined as "the relative strength of an individual's identity and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1982). According to Eren (2011), job satisfaction is the happiness that comes from the status and refers to the profits obtained from work materially and morally and as well as it is pleasure that a person is glad to work with his/her colleagues cooperatively (Kılıç, 2013, p.24).

Job satisfaction has become the focus of organizational behavior researchers. The first underlying reason for this focus on job satisfaction is that positive and negative attitudes towards work can have a strong influence on organizational behavior. In other words, of course, the person will have positive and negative feelings such as joy, sorrow and variety of gains through his/her work life. Employees will have attitudes towards their works or their organizations in the result of such knowledge and emotional accumulation. Job satisfaction which takes place in the center of this attitude is a general structure. With the simplest definition, job satisfaction is the overall attitude, acted by the employees towards organization (Kılıç, 2013, p.24). Job satisfaction is perceived as an important determinant of teachers' organizational commitment and as a factor that contributes to the effectiveness of the school. Job satisfaction represents an employee's overall assessment of his/her job, such as his /her feelings, behavior and attitudes about individual's work experiences (Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013). Job satisfaction is defined as the perception of the individual's job-related values in his work and that these values are in harmony with the needs of the individual. In other words, job satisfaction is the product of an internal assessment that we can consider as a result of feelings, behaviors and general thoughts towards the work itself, the work environment or colleagues (Solmuş, 2004).

### **Organizational Commitment**

When the literature is examined, organizational commitment is defined by different scholars as follows: It means that the identification of employee with his/her organization, goals and desire to continue in the organization to achieve her /his objectives, that is why, identifying oneself with the goals and organization and the willingness to be part of the organization (Robbins, 1998). It is the identity of the employee and the strength of the commitment s/he has with a particular organization (Leong, Fumham & Cooper, 1996). It is a kind of value system that commits staff to the organization and identification with the purpose and values of the organization by desiring to continue to stay in the organization without financial worries (Grisworl, 1983). It implies that the willingness of employee to stay as an active member of the organization (Davis & Newstrom, 1989). Organizational commitment is an expression the determination of the individuals to continue working in the organization.

Organizational commitment is a psychological condition that reflects employees' organizational participation and organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment is a concept that includes employees to embrace goals and objectives of the organization, their efforts for organization to come to a better position, and their willingness to retain their presence in the organization. When it is necessary, the employees can see the interests of the organization superior to their own interests (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Beycioğlu & Uslu, 2013; Çorbacı, 2010; Koç, 2009; Wiener, 1982). The concept of work commitment is often explained in relation to psychological theories that involve self-disciplines, namely spiritual, social, mental and physical (Covey, 1989).



Much research has been done on organizational commitment so far. Low organizational commitment has individual and organizational negative consequences such as delayed work, absenteeism, poor performance and even leaving work (Gül & İnce, 2005). Investigations show that commitment reduces the cost of high turnover rates. It is believed that employees of the organization are more likely to work and to make more self-sacrificing to achieve organizational goals. As a result, organizations are often trying to increase employee commitment to reduce the high cost of employee turnover and to ensure continuity (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Employee loyalty is seen as an important factor in achieving organizational success (Dick & Metcalfe, 2001). As a matter of fact, every organization wants to increase the commitment of its members because it is desirable that employees to be people who solve problems, not stir up troubles. It is generally accepted that staff who are more productive and accountable have higher organizational commitment (Chow, 1994). Although organizational commitment has a subjective structure that varies according to person, time, and space, there are a number of criteria for determining whether an employee is committed to the organization (İbicioğlu, 2000). These criteria are listed below:

- Adopting the goals and values of the organization
- Being sacrificed for the organization
- Strong desire for continued membership of the organization
- Identification with organization
- Internalization

In the light of the above definitions, organizational commitment's structure has three dimensions and these dimensions include affective, continuance and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Aydın, Sarier & Şengül, 2011; Boehman, 2006; Greenberg, 2005; Karakuş & Aslan, 2009; Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). The result of interest of researchers in a number of disciplines including sociology, psychology and behavioral sciences related to organizational commitment, led to different definitions of organizational commitment (Colakoglu, Culha & Atay, 2010).

### **Affective Commitment**

Affective commitment is defined as an emotional attachment, feeling of belonging and involvement in the organization. Affective commitment is measured by the willingness of the individual to remain with organization. The affective commitment of an employee depends on the positive feelings of the employee towards the organization. Members who are determined at the affective level remain with the organization; because they anticipate their personal employment relationships in line with the organization's goals and values. Development of affective commitment involves identification and internalization (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Beck & Wilson, 2000; Tolentino, 2013; Altun, 2010; Güven, 2006). Affective commitment arises when employees fully own the goals and values of the organization. They are emotionally interested in the organization and feel personally responsible for the level of success of the institution. These individuals usually demonstrate high levels of performance, positive working attitudes and wish to stay with the organization. (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Affective commitment happens as a result of the combination of the individual's work experience, perceptions, personal characteristics and the positive attitudes developing towards the organization (Mowday et al, 1982). According to Meyer & Allen (1997), affective commitment refers to an emotional orientation that shows individuals are identified with their organizations, are happy to be members of the organization, and are strongly committed to the organization. Affective commitment occurs when the identity of the individual is identified with the organization or the goals of the organization are directed towards the same direction with time (Varoğlu, 1993).

### **Continuance Commitment**

It is an organizational commitment dimension related to situations from which the cost of leaving organization is high or there is no other alternative. An individual committed to organization with continuance commitment feels commitment to need organization and his/her work. In such situations, the individual thinks that he has spent more time and effort so far and thinks it is necessary to continue with the organization (Erdem, 2007; Güven, 2006). Continuance commitment is based on the expenses that individual link towards leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Commitment relies on the benefits that the employee has obtained from the organization. With this kind of commitment, employees firstly decide to stay in organization not to lose the advantages such as income, social benefits and seniority (Tolentino, 2013).

Continuance commitment arises when individuals build their relationship with the organization on what they are gaining in exchange for their efforts and what would be lost if they were to leave (example, pay, benefits, associations). These individuals demonstrate their best performances only when they meet their expectations of the awards. (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Continuance commitment refers to the idea that an occupation will lose his gains such as status and money which he achieved by spending labor, time and effort that s/he has spent in the organization, in the event of separation from the organization (Yalçın & İplik, 2005).

### **Normative Commitment**

Normative commitment is defined as the feelings of obligation of an individual to stay in his/her organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). On the other hand, the normative commitment is based on obligation and measured by the individual's feelings that s/he must remain with the organization. It is also a reflection of how well one's values and beliefs are in harmony with the core values of the organization (Tolentino, 2013). The employee must feel obliged to be committed to the organization and senses to remain in the organization as a moral imperative. As a principle, the individuals working in the organization dependently want to stay in the organization with the feeling of loyalty due to the possibilities and benefits that the organization has so far offered them (Güven, 2006; Karahan, 2008).

Normative commitment arises when individuals remain with an organization based on expected standards of behavior or social norms. Obedience, cautiousness, and formality are indispensable for these individuals. Research shows that they tend to exhibit the same attitudes and behaviors as those who have affective commitment. (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The level of normative commitment can vary according to differences in individual, family, social and cultural development of employees. Normative commitment can also be seen as a psychological agreement between individuals and organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

### **Purpose of the Study**

The number of the studies on relationship between motivation, organizational commitment and job satisfaction has increased day by day in different areas. It is observed that there were not enough research studies on the trainee teachers in this sense. Especially research done in the local educational and small settlements is very limited. In order to raise the quality of education, the working conditions of the employees, especially the teachers must be improved. The improvement of these conditions depends on some theoretical and hypothetical processes. At the beginning of these processes are the concepts such as "work motivation, organizational commitment and job satisfaction" that can directly affect the performance of the trainee teachers. The intend of this research is to reveal the relationship between the trainee teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In this study, the answers to the following questions were searched.

1. Is there a relationship between trainee teachers' affective commitment and job satisfaction?
2. Is there a relationship between trainee teachers' normative commitment and job satisfaction?
3. Is there a relationship between trainee teachers' continuance commitment and job satisfaction?

### **Method**

This study, designed in the context of quantitative research approach, is based on correlational survey model. Correlational survey models are research models that aim to determine the covariance and grade among two or more variables (Karasar 2011: 81). Such researches try to answer questions such as "what, where, when, at what interval, at what level, how". The purpose of survey model is usually to draw a picture of the existing situation related to the research topic, and to depict. For this purpose, information in the survey models is usually gathered from a large group by using response options generally determined by researcher. (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2014: 177). Questionnaires were prepared by the researcher and distributed to the trainee teachers who have just started to work in the public schools. In the questionnaires, only sex was given as personal information. In this model, the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of trainee teachers were examined. The sample for this study consists of 170 trainee teachers working in Adilcevaz, Ahlat, Tatvan and Bitlis center in the 2015-2016 academic year. Data obtained through the questionnaire were analyzed using SPSS 24 for Windows program; the frequencies, percentages and means were calculated, t-Test, regression analysis techniques and inter- correlations were used to analyze data.

Firstly, the percentage distribution of participants by sex was determined. Accordingly, 50.6% of the participants were female and 49.4% were male teachers.

### Measurement Tools

In the present study, Job Satisfaction Questionnaire and Organizational Commitment Questionnaire scales were used as measurement tools. Organizational commitment scale and job satisfaction scale were developed as the Likert type scales. Both of the scales were transformed into five-point Likert scales.

*Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire:* It was developed by Weiss, Davis England and Lofquist (1967) to measure job satisfaction of teachers. Job satisfaction scale, used by Demirtaş and Kılıç (2016) a-12- item scale, was used in this study. The values of the goodness of fit of the scale are as follows. ( $\chi^2/df=2,23$ ; AGFI= ,876; CFI= ,911; GFI= ,914; NFI= ,852; RMSEA= ,079; SRMR= ,053; TLI= ,891). The 12 MJSQ-short version items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1: highly dissatisfied, 2: dissatisfied, 3: neutral, 4: satisfied and 5: highly satisfied). This scale has been used in many researches before and is also a well-known measure of excellent coefficient alpha.

*Organizational Commitment Questionnaire:* It was developed by Allen and Meyer (1993) as three subdimensions (affective, continuance and normative commitment) and adapted to Turkish by Vasti (2000). The scale consists of 18 items. Cronbach Alpha coefficients in the validity and reliability study performed by Wasti (2000) were 0.79 for Affective Commitment, 0.75 for Normative commitment and 0.58 for Continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen's organizational commitment scale was designed as a 5-point Likert scale; "1: strongly disagree", 2: disagree, 3: undecided, 4: agree and 5: strongly agree ". And four items are negative. These negative items must be scored in reverse. This scale was finally adapted to Turkish by Kurşunoğlu, Bakay and Tanrioğlu (2010). Each item has a five-point Likert-type evaluation system. In the study conducted by Kurşunoğlu et al. (2010), Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients for the internal consistency of the scale were calculated as: .79 for dimension of affective commitment, .62 for dimension of continuance commitment, and .74 for normative commitment dimension.

### Findings

The below table 1 below shows means and standard deviations of the trainee teachers' organizational commitment levels and job satisfaction.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Commitment Dimensions and Job satisfaction

Items	N	Mean	SD
Affective Commitment	170	3.0392	.44237
Continuance Commitment	170	2.8451	.76292
Normative Commitment	170	3.1903	.58268
Job Satisfaction	170	3.5497	.73277

Table 1 shows that normative, affective and continuance commitment are important factors for the trainee teachers to be committed their organizations, and these dimensions of organizational commitment have moderate level on satisfaction of the trainee teachers. The job satisfaction perceptions of participants are ( $\bar{x}=3.5497$ ), the mean value of normative commitment is ( $\bar{x}=3.1903$ ), the mean value of affective commitment is ( $\bar{x}=3.0392$ ) and the mean value of continuance commitment is ( $\bar{x}=2,8451$ ). When the scores are examined, it is seen that the highest score belongs to job satisfaction and the lowest score belongs to continuance commitment. This result implies that the trainee teachers are highly satisfied in general point of view.

The below table 2 shows the relationship between the job satisfaction and the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment of the trainee teachers. The results were calculated by Pearson product -moment correlation coefficient and given in Table 2.

Table 2. The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the trainee teachers.

	Organizational Commitment			
	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment	
Job Satisfaction	r	-0,092	-0,147	0,730**
	p	0,233	0,049	0,000

The results in Table 2 show the relationship exists between trainee teachers' job satisfaction levels and the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment. The results reveal a negative relationship between trainee teachers' job satisfaction and continuance commitment ( $r=-0,147$ ,  $p=0,049$ ). And there is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment ( $r=0,730^{**}$ ,  $p=0,000$ ). A significant relationship between job satisfaction of trainee teachers and affective commitment sub-dimension of organizational commitment doesn't exist.

The below table 3 shows the results of the regression equation testing the effect of organizational commitment on job satisfaction of the trainee teachers.

Table 3. Regression Analysis of Organizational Commitment on Job Satisfaction

Independent Variables	The sub-dimensions of organizational commitment	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F	p	$\beta$	t	p
		Affective Commitment					0,020	0,363
	Continuance Commitment	0,737 <sup>a</sup>	0,543	65,479	0,000	-0,096	-2,124	0,043
	Normative Commitment					0,727	13,574	0,000

**Dependent Variable:** Job satisfaction of the trainee teachers

\*\* $p<0,01$

When the data regarding the teachers' perceptions of the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment to predict job satisfaction variable are examined, it appears that organizational commitment with its sub-dimensions contribute (54.3%) of the variance in the dependent variable of job satisfaction. While the levels of the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment are analyzed, it can be seen that normative and continuance commitment sub-dimensions of organizational commitment affect job satisfaction significantly, but affective commitment sub-dimension has no significant impact on job satisfaction.

The below table 4 shows that perceptions related job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the trainee teachers in terms of gender variable for t-test findings are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The t test between organizational commitment sub-dimensions, job satisfaction and gender

Factors	Gender	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	t	p
Affective	Male	84	3,0754	.45434	1.054	.293
	Female	86	3.0039	.43006		
Continuance	Male	84	2.9089	.76635	-1.075	.284
	Female	86	2.7829	.75886		
Normative	Male	84	3.1650	.65244	.560	.576
	Female	86	3.2151	.50806		
Job Satisfaction	Male	84	3.4931	.75884	.997	.920
	Female	86	3.6051	.70642		

Table 4 shows that there is no significant difference between sub-dimensions of organizational commitment and job satisfaction statistically in terms of gender variable. In affective and continuance commitment male's scores are higher than female's even a little. On the other hand, in normative and job satisfaction dimensions female's scores are higher than male's scores.

To identify the relationship between trainee teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, a correlation analysis was carried out, the results of which are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Correlation analysis related all variables

	Job Satisfaction	Affective	Continuance	Normative
Job Satisfaction	1	.309**	-.127	.701**
Affective	.309**	1	.070	.245**
Continuance	-.127	.070	1	-.065
Normative	.701**	.245**	-.065	1
	.000	.000	.398	.000
	.000	.001	.398	.000

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The above table demonstrates that there is a positive significant correlation between job satisfaction and affective commitment ( $r=.309$ ,  $p\text{-value} > 0.01$ ). The same correlation is valid between job satisfaction and normative commitment ( $r=.701$ ,  $p\text{-value} > 0.01$ ). There is a positive and significant relationship between affective commitment and normative commitment ( $r=.245$ ,  $p\text{-value} > 0.01$ ). There was no found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment.

## Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, job satisfaction perceptions of the trainee teachers ( $\bar{x}= 3,55$ ) are high. Similar results were obtained in the previous studies (Demirtaş, 2010; Erel, 2004; Güçlü & Zaman, 2011; Günbayı, 2000; Mahmutoğlu, 2007; Raza & Nawaz, 2011; Varlık, 2000). Job satisfaction is the first mean value ( $\bar{x}=3.5497$ ), normative is the second mean value ( $\bar{x}=3.1903$ ), affective is the third mean value ( $\bar{x}=3.0392$ ), and continuance is the fourth mean value ( $\bar{x}=2.8451$ ). This result implies that the trainee teachers are highly satisfied in general point of view. According to Demirtaş (2015), it is crucial to keep the trainee teachers' job satisfaction perceptions high or at least to prevent them from reducing. In this task, local authorities and school administrators should expend an energy.

According to the research findings, there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction of the teachers and continuance commitment but there is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment. There is no a significant relationship between job satisfaction of teachers and affective commitment sub-dimension of organizational commitment. While the levels of the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment and job satisfaction are analyzed, it can be seen that normative and continuance commitment sub-dimensions of organizational commitment affect job satisfaction significantly, but affective commitment sub-dimension has no significant impact on job satisfaction. The findings indicate that organizational commitment positively influenced job satisfaction of the trainee teachers. The relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction is also highlighted in the literature. (Aydogdu & Asıkgil, 2011; Colakoglu, Culha & Atay, 2010; Demirtaş, 2010; Demirtaş, 2015; Güçlü & Zaman, 2011; Kurşunoğlu, Bakay & Tanrıoğen, 2010; Mahmutoğlu, 2007; Raza & Nawaz, 2011; Shibeika, 2016). Similar results were obtained in these previous studies. Aydogdu & Asıkgil (2011) reported a significant relationship between normative commitment and job satisfaction in their study. In this sense, this finding supports this current study in terms of normative commitment dimension. On the other hand, in the study conducted by Ahmad & Oranya (2010) no significant correlation between job satisfaction and continuance commitment was found. Thus, this result is similar to the result in the present study. According to the study conducted by Shibeika (2016), there is statistically significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment) dimensions. Donald, Lucia & Victor (2016) indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment along with continuance commitment, but did not find a significant relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment. All this shows that the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is a relative concept. This means that different results can be obtained depending on where the work is done and on the people to whom it is applied.

Perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment do not vary significantly according to the variable of gender. Consequently, there is no significant difference between sub-dimensions of organizational commitment and job satisfaction statistically. In affective and continuance commitment males' scores are higher than females' to a little extent . On the other hand, in normative and job satisfaction dimensions, females' scores are higher than males' scores. The study, done by Demirtaş (2015), supports this current research in terms of gender variable. There was not a significant difference in terms of gender in his study.

The results of this study have been observed to be supported by a number of studies conducted on the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Buluç, 2009; Demirtaş, 2010; Güçlü & Zaman, 2011; Karataş & Güleş, 2010; Özdayı, 1990). In these studies, it is stated that the correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment is moderate and / or high level. Demirtaş (2015) emphasized that there is a significant and positive correlation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction in his study. In a study conducted by Yücel and Bektaş (2012), it was determined that there had been a positive correlation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In this current study, the correlation analysis was made in order to identify a significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The analysis shows that job satisfaction is positively and significantly correlated with affective commitment. Also, job satisfaction is positively and significantly correlated with normative commitment. There is a positive and significant relationship between affective commitment and normative commitment. There was no found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment. As a result, it can be argued that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are related to each other. Lance (2006) emphasizes that many researchers deduced that there is a relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction and a middle to strong correlation is ascertained.

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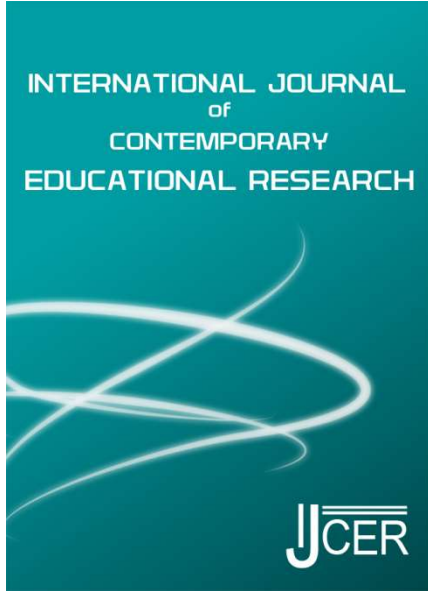
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## Pre-service English Teachers' Teaching-efficacy Perceptions and their Potential Sources in Field Experience \*

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### Abstract

Field experience (FE) is a key component of pre-service English language teacher education enabling the early integration of pre-service teachers (PSTs) in real teaching situations. As a well-researched area, FE is known to increase PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions. Thus, to better understand how it does so in the Turkish context, this study examines senior PSTs' ( $N=145$ ) teaching-efficacy perceptions and the potential sources of these perceptions in the course of FE. Adopting a pretest-posttest design supported by semi-structured interviews ( $N=30$ ), the study showed a significant increase in the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions from pre-test to post-test ( $p<.05$ ). While the interview data indicated that *prior teaching experience, decreased sense of teaching anxiety, and increased confidence in professional self* were among the major sources of the increase in these perceptions, such sources as *untested teaching competencies and critical awareness of teaching and profession* had a negative impact on the PSTs' efficacy perceptions.

**Keywords:** Field experience, Pre-service English teachers, Teaching-efficacy, Teaching competencies

### Introduction

For the last couple of decades, teaching profession and PST education have been extensively studied mainly because of the comprehensiveness of the profession and the challenges along the process of learning to teach (Caires, Almeida, & Vieira, 2012). In this context, FE, as a key component of PST education has also been a significant research concern within teacher education research. Despite having a variety of names such as *practicum, practice teaching, student teaching, field work, internship, teaching practice, or clinical experience*, some form of teaching experience is common to almost every second and foreign language teacher education program (Borg, 2009). Regardless of the name given, FE is considered as an integral, essential, and key dimension of pre-service English language teacher education where PSTs create a beginning sense of self as teachers (Clarke & Collins, 2007; Ronfeldt & Reininger, 2012).

Besides, FE is an opportunity for PSTs to experiment with planning and enacting a short sequence of learning experience under the careful supervision of a faculty advisor (hereafter FA) and a cooperating teacher (CT) at practicum school (Hollins, 2011). PSTs generally take responsibility for one or sometimes two classes for which they will have main responsibility to observe and assist CTs throughout the year. When PSTs teach in their CTs' classes, their FAs pay visits to the practicum schools, generally few times in a term, make classroom observations, provide feedback and assistance, and complete official university documents and reports. This overall structure shows how FE in almost every practicum school works (Rozelle & Wilson, 2012). Although the duration of FE varies considerably across nations, ranging from a few weeks to a year, it occurs most frequently towards the end of the teacher education program (Darling-Hammond & Cobb, 1995).

Within the Turkish teacher education system, FE, running simultaneously with the faculty-based courses in the senior year, is covered via the combination of consecutive school experience (hereafter SE) and teaching practicum (hereafter TP) courses. Taking place in the schools determined by the faculty and bureau of national education in the town in the fall-term for 14 weeks, the main purpose of SE is to provide PSTs with the

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opportunity to familiarize themselves with the profession, workplace, future colleagues and students, and daily tasks and routines of the profession which are mainly achieved through structured observation forms generally specified by the faculty. There might also be some occasions when CTs purposefully involve PSTs in teaching in order to reinforce their familiarization with the profession as much as possible. In TP, PSTs are generally assigned to other schools which are different from their SE schools with the aim of providing them with as many different school contexts, levels, and student groups as possible. Thus, through this rotation, they are expected to enrich their initial repertoire of teaching practice. In this phase, PSTs teach as much as possible and are involved in the routines of teaching more and frequently. Consequently, in both phases by working with a CT in real classrooms with real students, PSTs gradually familiarize themselves with the profession as they receive feedback, mentoring, and ongoing training from their CTs. Besides, FAs assigned by the faculty to guide PSTs throughout their FE also work collaboratively with CTs to guide and evaluate PSTs' professional learning and development in the process. In this regard, as Selvi (2012) highlighted, this contemporary view initiates a shift in our understanding of FE from a point of view where it is defined as an activity to apply theoretical knowledge gained through teacher education to a point where it is viewed as a central process providing PSTs with the social context to grow.

As the descriptions highlight, the rationale behind FE is to overcome the perennial theory-practice gap which has permeated the field of language teacher education (Johnson, 2006), and to have pre-service teachers apply teaching behaviors to “guarantee some level of technical expertise in the classroom” (Caires et al., 2012, p. 164).

Apart from fulfilling this essential function, “as a dynamic and continuous process of mutual interaction and adaptation amongst the newly arrived teacher and different members of that community” (Caires et al., 2012, p. 164), FE supports PSTs' awareness building about their own teaching, while they learn how to make informed decisions through systematic observation and exploration of their own and others' teaching (Gebhard, 2009). Therefore, it ultimately activates PSTs' professional maturity and development as they also build critical awareness of teaching and the profession.

Thus, FE “with [its] steadily increasing levels of complexity and responsibility” (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001, p. 803) plays a very important role on PSTs' professional learning, professional identity development, learning to collaborate with significant others, i.e. FAs, CTs, students, and development of a critical eye towards evaluation of their teaching practices.

### **Teaching-efficacy Perceptions and FE**

Being a central concept in current psychological theory (Housego, 1990), efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance (Bandura, 1994). As the foundation of social cognition theory, human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment, efficacy relates peoples' beliefs that their actions can produce the outcomes they desire (Pajares, 1992). Thus, it is also linked to performance as it affects the amount of effort expended, persistence at task, resilience if faced with obstacles, and perceived stress (Durgunoğlu & Hughes, 2010). Therefore, individuals who have high self-efficacy are known to put in sufficient effort that may produce successful outcomes, whereas those having low self-efficacy are likely to give up prematurely and fail on task.

Besides its use in psychology, efficacy has also been widely referred in teacher education research, and has been defined as “teachers' beliefs or convictions that they can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated” (Guskey & Passaro, 1993, p.4). Efficacy is also known to relate to teachers' feelings of their competencies, their actions, and the outcomes they achieve (see Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001 & 2007). Moreover, experience or performance accomplishments as referred by Bandura (1997, cited in Brown et al., 2012) are stated to be the most important factors in the determination of teaching-efficacy which is further known to be affected by such sources as; *mastery experiences, psychological and emotional states, vicarious experiences, and social persuasion* (see Brown et al., 2012). Mastery experiences are the strongest source of teaching-efficacy since a performance which has been successful increases teaching-efficacy perceptions and also contributes to the expectations from future performances. Furthermore, mastery experiences which have been gained particularly in FE have the biggest influence on the development and growth of PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions (see Hoy & Spero, 2005). Besides, teachers who do not expect to be successful with certain students possibly put forth less effort in preparation and delivery of instruction, and give up easily at the first sign of difficulty, even if they actually know the strategies that could assist

(Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2007). As part of psychology and emotions, *mood, emotions, physical reactions, and even stress* can also source teaching-efficacy perceptions negatively and positively as they can closely influence performance or perceptions of one's own performance. Additionally, vicarious experiences, in other words those that are gained through observation, affect the observer's (PSTs in our context) teaching-efficacy as well. In this regard, vicarious experiences are great potential sources of the development of PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions as throughout their FE they spend a great deal of time to observe others (CTs and peers) in action. Quite complementarily, social persuasion, which in PST education over the course of FE, is gained through feedback provided by CTs and FAs have a lot to offer to the development of PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions (see Brown et al., 2012). Last but not the least, teaching-efficacy is also known to have a link to teachers' confidence that they can design and implement teaching practices in a way to facilitate student learning (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). Thus, as can clearly be seen, teaching-efficacy is a multi-dimensional construct affected by the availability or unavailability of various sources facilitating or debilitating its emergence, growth, and consistency.

In this regard, increasing PSTs teaching-efficacy perceptions regarding their capabilities to execute the tasks associated with teaching in educational settings (Siwatu, 2011) is of primary importance in FE as undoubtedly pre-service teacher education programs all over the world aim to prepare qualified, competent, and efficacious teachers who can meet the needs of students with diverse skills and linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Cruz & Arias, 2007; Gebhard, 2009).

Therefore, as a common construct in teacher education research, teaching-efficacy has been researched in connection with teachers' behaviors in the classroom, the effort they put into teaching, the goals they set i.e. career plans, their level of planning and organization, approaches towards students' learning outcomes, achievement, and motivation (see Coladarci & Breton, 1997; Pajares, 1992; Poulou, 2007; Putman, 2012; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001; Turner, Jones, Davies, & Ramsay, 2004; Uztosun, 2016). Moreover, teaching-efficacy perceptions are also suggested to have a close relationship with the quality of teacher education (see Carr, 2013; Gurvitch & Mezler, 2009; Kraut, 2012; Tran, 2011; Turner et al., 2004) as it is the process whereby PSTs are provided with a very comprehensive coursework equipping them with the knowledge, skills, understandings, and dispositions which form the basis for their teaching-efficacy perceptions.

As for PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions, research has shown that FE is a source of their teaching-efficacy (see Martins, Costa, & Onofre, 2015) specifically stemming from successful experiences in FE (Karakas, 2016; Li, 1999). However, as suggested by Caires et al. (2012), despite the growing knowledge about FE and becoming a teacher, some questions such as how PSTs experience their FE with regard to their perceptions of teaching-efficacy still remain unanswered. Relying on this motivation, this study aims to explore the extent FE affects senior PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions and the potential sources behind them.

## Methodology

### Design and Participants

For an in-depth and detailed examination of the research concern, the researchers adopted a pre and post-test, longitudinal data collection design through the combination of quantitative and qualitative means. The quantitative data were gathered through survey methodology, as the most cost-effective and practical method to collect data from a large sample (McCawley, 2009; Nunan & Bailey, 2009), and the qualitative data collection was realized through one-on-one semi-structured interviewing, as it yields rich, complex, and interesting data (Trumbull, 2005).

The sample was selected using convenience sampling (McMillan, 1996; Ross, 2005) which was made up of 145 PSTs enrolled at a state university in northwest Turkey. The PSTs who displayed diversity in terms of age, academic achievement, language skills, teaching motivation, and educational background spent the SE and TP phases in 12 practicum schools in the city center, and were supervised by the CTs in the schools and FAs at the faculty throughout their FE.

### Instrumentation and Data Collection

For the quantitative data, *teaching-efficacy perceptions scale* was developed with reference to English language teachers' competencies determined by Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) (see TED, 2009). The five competency domains, namely *planning and arranging English language teaching (ELT) processes, developing language skills, monitoring, assessing, and evaluating language development, collaborating with school-family and society, and gaining professional development in ELT*, included sub-competency domains changing between 2 and 7 items. For the scale's development, the sub-domains included in five teacher competency domains were turned into 22 statements, and were put on a 5-point Likert ranging from *very ineffective* to *very effective*. To assure its reliability, it was first piloted with a group of 3<sup>rd</sup> year PSTs ( $N=14$ ) who were specifically asked to make notes on the comprehensibility of the items and the format. After making some alterations on the first version of the scale based on this initial feedback, 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, and 3<sup>rd</sup> graders ( $N=77$ ) were asked to respond to the scale to run reliability analysis which decreased the final version to 21 items. Proven to be reliable ( $\alpha.77$ ), indicating acceptable internal consistency (see Gliem & Gliem, 2003), the scale was ready for data collection which was realized before the PSTs began their FE in practicum schools and after they completed it. As for data collection, group administration (Dörnyei, 2003) was adopted to guarantee that administration happened under homogenous conditions, and as many respondents as possible were reached. As the participation was voluntary, in pre-test the sample ( $N=106$ ) included 74 females and 32 males, while the post-test sample ( $N=98$ ) included 66 females and 32 males.

As for the qualitative data collection, the researchers prepared a written list of questions to be used with the PSTs both to guide the interviews and also to give the researchers the freedom to probe for more information. To assure the content validity, initial drafts of the interview protocols were reviewed by both researchers (Zohrabi, 2013). Based on feedback and comments, the questions were revised for clarity and effectiveness to enable them to elicit what they were supposed to elicit. As another measure, frequent debriefing sessions (Shenton, 2004) were used between the researchers to discuss alternative questions, and also to test developing ideas and interpretations. Through the combination of review of initial drafts and frequent debriefings, the credibility of the interview protocols were established. Following these initial preparations, data collection was done towards the end of both SE and TP phases with the voluntary participation of 18 PSTs in the SE interviews and 12 PSTs in the TP interviews. Guided by the interview protocol, the interviews were tape recorded and complemented by field notes to ease data analysis.

### Data Analysis

For the analysis of the quantitative data, descriptive and inferential statistics were performed. The implementation of the non-parametric tests as inferential statistics was based on the assumption that the disturbance of differences in two measures (pre and post-tests) is severely non-normal (McDonald, 2014). The detailed analysis of measures of skewness and kurtosis and the histograms also revealed that the scale had non-normal distribution.

As for the qualitative data, the interviews were initially transcribed and then were read several times to get a complete sense of the transcribed data (Creswell, 2009). The analysis was made through constant comparison method (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1994), in which concepts are called as basic units of analysis, while categories are explained as higher in level as and more abstract than the concepts they represent. While reporting the findings, the PSTs were given codes such as PST1, PST2, and so on to showcase how the indicators and sources were created.

### Findings

In this section, the results obtained through the analysis of the scale and interview data are presented. In order to explore the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions before and after FE, initially their overall efficacy perceptions were calculated, and an item by item analysis of the scale was conducted for both the pre and post-tests (see Table 1).

Table 1. PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions before and after FE

Scale items	Pre-test		Post-test	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Total</b>	<b>3.79</b>	<b>.47</b>	<b>4.02</b>	<b>.42</b>
1. making appropriate plans for English language teaching	3.69	.78	3.99	.63
2. arranging appropriate learning environments for English language teaching	3.81	.71	4.06	.53
3. using appropriate methods and techniques for English language teaching	3.80	.74	4.12	.65
4. using appropriate materials and resources for teaching process	4.01	.65	4.07	.61
5. using technological resources for language development	4.00	.78	4.04	.80
6. helping learners develop effective language learning strategies	3.85	.75	4.06	.64
7. encouraging learners to use English accurately and intelligibly	4.06	.67	4.14	.52
8. developing learners' listening skills	3.97	.70	4.04	.55
9. developing learners' speaking skills	3.76	.91	3.95	.72
10. developing learners' writing skills	3.94	.76	4.04	.69
11. making use of teaching practices by considering learners with special education and learning needs	3.36	1.02	3.61	.92
12. setting objectives for the assessment and evaluation of English language teaching practices	3.52	.83	3.93	.56
13. using appropriate assessment and evaluation tools and methods for English language teaching	3.65	.83	4.00	.54
14. interpreting and feeding results of assessment and evaluation back into learners' language development	3.77	.78	4.12	.52
15. reflecting results of assessment and evaluation on teaching to identify learners' language development	3.65	.75	4.11	.54
16. collaborating with families for the development of learners' language skills	4.00	.82	4.07	.66
17. collaborating with institutions, organizations, and individuals to help learners comprehend the importance of foreign language learning	3.80	.84	3.99	.75
18. identifying professional competencies for English language teaching	3.68	.80	4.09	.66
19. gaining personal and professional development in English language teaching	3.84	.80	4.08	.64
20. taking advantage of scientific research methods and techniques to gain professional development	3.75	.85	3.94	.74
21. applying research results to teaching practices to gain professional development	3.72	.80	3.97	.74

First and foremost, the PSTs were found to hold moderately high teaching-efficacy perceptions right before they started the SE phase of FE ( $M=3.79$ ,  $SD=.47$ ). A closer look into the item means and standard deviations in the pre-test showed that they perceived themselves efficacious with regard to *encouraging learners to use English accurately and intelligibly* ( $M=4.06$ ,  $SD=.67$ ), *using appropriate materials and resources for teaching process* ( $M=4.01$ ,  $SD=.65$ ), *using technological resources for language development* ( $M=4.00$ ,  $SD=.78$ ), and *collaborating with families for the development of learners' language skills* ( $M=4.00$ ,  $SD=.82$ ). These items refer to the competency domains regarding developing language skills, planning and arranging ELT processes, and collaborating with school-family and society. Additionally, they were observed to have high efficacy perceptions about *developing learners' listening skills* ( $M=3.97$ ,  $SD=.70$ ) and *developing learners' writing skills* ( $M=3.94$ ,  $SD=.76$ ). Furthermore, on some other issues (see the items with the means changing between 3.65 and 3.85) such as *helping learners develop effective language learning strategies*, *gaining personal and professional development in ELT*, *arranging appropriate learning environments for ELT*, or *taking advantage of scientific research methods and techniques to gain professional development*, the PSTs were found to have moderate to moderately high teaching-efficacy perceptions.

On the other hand, the PSTs perceived themselves relatively less efficacious on *making use of teaching practices by considering learners with special education and learning needs* ( $M=3.36$ ,  $SD=1.02$ ). This result reflects the fact that the teacher education program for English language PSTs in Turkey does not offer any courses or training for teaching learners with special education and learning needs. The second item with the lowest mean score, i.e. *setting objectives for the assessment and evaluation of ELT practices* ( $M=3.52$ ,  $SD=.83$ ), seems to indicate the significance of practice and experience for developing assessment and evaluations skills, which are relatively challenging, as teachers need to test their competencies in various grades and skills groups.

It is only understandable then that the PSTs in the study felt less efficacious because of these untested skills prior to FE.

The post-test results, on the other hand, revealed an increase in the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions ( $M=4.02$ ,  $SD=.42$ ). They had high efficacy perceptions regarding *encouraging learners to use English in an accurate and comprehensible way* ( $M=4.14$ ,  $SD=.52$ ), *using appropriate methods and techniques for ELT*, *interpreting and feeding results of assessment and evaluation back into learners' language development* ( $M=4.12$  for both), and *reflecting results of assessment and evaluation on teaching to identify learners' language development* ( $M=4.11$ ,  $SD=.54$ ). As seen, after the FE, the PSTs were found to develop higher teaching-efficacy perceptions regarding the practical issues in teaching. Specifically, dramatic increases were detected in their efficacy perceptions related to assessment and evaluation knowledge and skills, which were the competencies they felt the least efficacious in pre-test. Thus, the findings overall indicate that the FE contributed to the PSTs' teaching knowledge and skills development almost on all teaching competencies. In addition, *identifying professional competencies for ELT* was found to increase from pre-test ( $M=3.68$ ) to post-test ( $M=4.09$ ), which could suggest that the PSTs' awareness regarding the competencies that they need to possess also developed throughout the FE. However, similar to the pre-test, the PSTs were found to perceive less efficacious for *making use of teaching practices by considering learners with special education and learning needs* ( $M=3.61$ ,  $SD=.92$ ).

As the overall means for pre-test ( $M=3.79$ ) and post-test ( $M=4.02$ ) differed, Wilcoxon signed-rank test was run to understand whether the change was statistically meaningful or not (see Table 2).

Table 2. Wilcoxon Signed-ranks Test for PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions before and after FE

Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Negative Ranks	30	37.47	1124.00	-3.084*	.002
Positive Ranks	55	46.02	2531.00		
Ties	4				

\*Based on negative ranks.

As the table shows, FE created a significant change in the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions ( $z= -3.084$ ,  $p= 0.002$ ). Thus, it can be concluded that throughout the FE, in other words from the very beginning of SE to the end of the TP, the PSTs significantly developed positive and higher teaching-efficacy perceptions.

To further understand the potential sources for the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions, the interview data were also analyzed. Initially, the findings for the SE phase are presented below (see Table 3).

Table 3. Perceived sources regarding the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions in SE

Teaching-efficacy perceptions	Sources	Indicators	Participant codes
<b>Higher teaching-efficacy perceptions</b>	Prior teaching experience	*Teaching friends or family members *One-on-one private tutorials *Voluntary teaching	PST3, PST4, PST6, PST7, PST8, PST9, PST17
	Faculty education	*Teaching knowledge and skills *Knowledge of resources for teaching *Self-confidence	PST5, PST7, PST15
<b>Lower teaching-efficacy perceptions</b>	Untested teaching competencies	*Lack of confidence in teaching (due to lack of teaching practice) *Teaching anxiety	PST2, PST10, PST11, PST12, PST14, PST16
	Critical awareness of teaching and profession	*Reflection on quality-teaching *Increased awareness on teaching knowledge and skills	PST12, PST15



As the table shows, the findings revealed that the PSTs hold both *higher* ( $n=10$ ) and *lower teaching-efficacy perceptions* ( $n=8$ ) which were explained by various reasons. For those who had higher teaching-efficacy perceptions, the primary source was *prior teaching experience* ( $n=7$ ), which was acquired and developed through teaching family members or friends, one-on-one private tutorials, and voluntary teaching at the university's pre-school. For instance, PST6 stated that "*I have previous teaching experience which makes me feel confident.*" Faculty education was perceived to be another source for high teaching-efficacy perceptions linked to teaching knowledge and skills, knowledge of resources for language teaching, and even self-confidence. While PST7 indicated that they were trained, and thus, had the knowledge of making use of technology in teaching, PST15 thought that teaching was going to be easy as they had teaching knowledge and skills thanks to faculty education.

For those who hold lower teaching-efficacy perceptions, the primary source was *untested teaching competencies* ( $n=6$ ). The participants linked it to lack of confidence in teaching which resulted from lack of teaching practice. It was also found to cause teaching anxiety. PST2 said that "*I had no experience and had no idea of students. Yes, we have learnt lots of things at faculty, but I had concerns for how to teach.*" Similarly, PST16 stated that "*In the beginning, I was anxious. Because the faculty education relies on knowledge, but does not provide us with the chance to practice.*" As his words point out, his teaching anxiety was the result of inadequate teaching practice closely linked to not being able to test his teaching competencies. Secondly, lower teaching efficacy perceptions seem to stem from the PSTs' observations of their CTs and occasionally their peers while teaching, which was found to have created *a critical awareness of teaching and profession* ( $n=2$ ) in them. For instance, PST12 stated how her perceptions on quality-teaching were clarified when she saw a CT who she did not want to be like. She said "*I saw how not to be a teacher. The CT seemed to be traditional, and did not even seem to be prepared for the classes. She used no extra materials, but only the course book. Now I ask... Will I be able to use what I have learned at faculty?*" In a similar vein, PST15's efficacy perceptions were challenged as she became more aware of her teaching knowledge and skills. She stated that "*At the beginning, I thought that it [teaching] was going to be easy, but now, I see teaching is a hard job. Some theories do not work in practice. Theory seems easier, but there is much out there [in real classrooms]*".

The data analysis of the interviews for the TP phase also showed that the PSTs' had higher ( $n=7$ ) and lower ( $n=1$ ) teaching-efficacy perceptions with several sources explaining the reasons for these perceptions (see Table 4).

Table 4. Perceived sources regarding the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions in TP

<i>Teaching-efficacy perceptions</i>	<i>Sources</i>	<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Participant codes</i>
<b>Higher teaching-efficacy perceptions</b>	Decreased sense of teaching anxiety	*Diminished anxiety, hesitation *Emotional control	PST1, PST4, PST11
	Increased confidence in professional self	*Tested teaching competencies	PST1, PST9
	Prior teaching experience	*Teaching to friends, family members, etc.	PST7, PST8
	Faculty education	*Teaching knowledge and skills	PST3
<b>Lower teaching-efficacy perceptions</b>	Lack of teaching commitment	*Inadequate teaching practice *Un or underdeveloped teaching competencies (such as time management) *Inadequate emotional attachment to teaching	PST6

For those who held higher teaching-efficacy perceptions, *decreased sense of teaching anxiety* was the primary source. For instance, PST4 stated that "*My anxiety and hesitation diminished as I practiced. I am confident now. I learnt how to give simple, clear classroom instructions, check them, maintain eye-contact, monitor the class,*

and use the class space effectively. I could not do these in the beginning.” As can be understood, as her teaching skills improved, it created a *decreased sense of teaching anxiety* supporting her higher teaching-efficacy perceptions. Similarly, PST11 said that “*I was scared in the beginning. When I first taught in the TP school, I could not keep the class silent, and was going to give up, and questioned my decision to become a teacher. I realized how teaching in a school was completely different. I began to learn better what students want, learnt more about them, and what to do with them.*” Thus, it becomes clear that there is a link between professional learning, teaching anxiety and decreased sense of teaching anxiety. Complementarily, *increased confidence in professional self* ( $n=2$ ) was also found to play a huge role on higher teaching-efficacy perceptions. For PST1, “*I had the opportunity to practice teaching techniques, and to see that I could establish interaction with the students. I felt happy, when they called me “teacher”. Now, I can keep calmer, keep up with the lesson plan or mental plan in mind. Therefore, I think my teaching skills have developed. After the TP, I have seen that teaching is not that much difficult. I feel confident now.*” As seen, having tested her competencies and seen that they worked, she developed teaching confidence. Similarly, PST9 who stated that she had not had a clear idea of teaching in the early days of the TP gradually developed more confidence especially for classroom management as she saw she could “*reach*” the students and know them more and better. Similar to the finding from the SE phase, *prior teaching experience* ( $n=2$ ) emerged as a major source increasing efficacy perceptions. Lastly, *faculty education* was indicated as a source linked to efficacy perceptions. PST3 who thought that teaching was an easy job, and he could teach what he had learnt at faculty actually implied that teaching knowledge and skills which he acquired through the faculty education positively affected his teaching-efficacy perceptions.

As it was the end of the entire FE process, no one was found to hold lower teaching-efficacy perceptions directly related to teaching knowledge and skills, which was also detected in the quantitative data analysis (see Table 2). However, there was only one PST who explained his lower teaching-efficacy with his *lack of teaching commitment*. He stated “*... it is hard to practice what we have learnt here, [at faculty], at TP schools. For instance, I thought I could keep the students on track longer, but saw it was not possible. I also had problems in managing the time, but I had no chance to adequately practice. I am not sure if I am going to teach.*”

Consequently, the PSTs’ teaching-efficacy perceptions, which were found to reveal a statistically significant increase from pre-test to post-test, were observed to be positively shaped by various sources such as *prior teaching experience, faculty education, decreased sense of teaching anxiety, and increased confidence in their professional self*. On the other hand, the PSTs’ lower teaching-efficacy perceptions, which were seen to almost diminish at the end of the FE, were seen to be mainly related to *untested teaching competencies, critical awareness of teaching and profession, and even lack of teaching commitment*, which could be an indirect reflection of teaching knowledge and skills-related issues. Therefore, the PSTs’ teaching-efficacy perceptions are seen to develop and transform as the PSTs engaged in FE.

## Discussion and Conclusion

This study was carried out to understand whether FE contributed to the teaching-efficacy perceptions of PSTs and to find out about the underlying sources shaping these perceptions. To this end, a mixed-method study design was employed in which likely changes in teaching-efficacy perceptions were explored through a scale administered to the participants before and after the FE and the potential sources for these perceptions were investigated through face-to-face interviews.

Firstly, a statistically significant increase was found in the PSTs’ teaching-efficacy perceptions at the end of the FE indicating that it was a contributory developmental process for PSTs’ professional learning, i.e., developing positive efficacy perceptions. The detailed analysis of the quantitative data showed that in pre-test, the PSTs overall felt the most efficacious on those competencies related to planning and arranging English language teaching processes including *encouraging learners to speak English accurately and intelligibly, using appropriate methods and techniques* as well as *appropriate materials and resources* and *technological resources*. Thus, it can be said that since FE is designed to provide PSTs with opportunities to test their teaching competencies, to see which ones work, which changes or improvements they need to make and etc., it immensely contributes to the development of practical and instructional aspects of teaching in PSTs which is also supported by the results of some other studies showing that such skills as making use of instructional strategies to promote active student learning, getting through to most of students, teaching all students to high levels and responding to their needs, and giving simple instructions were the issues that graduates felt the most efficacious for (see Chacon, 2005; Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002a; Darling-Hammond, Eiler, & Marcus, 2002b; Gurvitch & Metzler, 2009; Karakaş, 2016; Poulou, 2007; Uztosun, 2016).

Secondly, the post-test results of the study showed that the FE had a considerable effect particularly on the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions regarding *using appropriate assessment and evaluation tools and methods for ELT, interpreting and feeding results of assessment and evaluation back into learners' language development, and reflecting results of assessment and evaluation on teaching to identify learners' language development*. As can be understood, these perceptions are related to the competencies for monitoring, assessing, and evaluating language development, and they are relatively more challenging as PSTs need authentic and ongoing experiences to familiarize themselves with the complexity of assessment and evaluation of different skills in different levels. Despite the challenge and complexity lying behind development of these competencies, a detailed look into the studies carried out in PSTs' FE showed that almost none made a reference to if and how FE made any difference on PSTs' teaching-efficacy of assessment and evaluation competencies. Akbulut Taş and Karabay (2016), in their metasynthesis study of developing teaching skills through FE, also reported that PSTs' positive attainments on measurement and assessment were mentioned in very few studies. In this regard, this might suggest that the significant role that FE plays on the development of PSTs' assessment and evaluation competencies is unfortunately disregarded. That is the reason why in their study of measuring PSTs' perceptions of measurement and evaluation, Sabancı and Yazıcı (2017) openly suggested that over the course of their FE, PSTs need to be provided with opportunities to practice their teaching competencies regarding measurement and evaluation. Despite lack of emphasis on these significant competencies, the finding of the current study showing a clear change regarding the increase in the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions shows that in cases where PSTs are provided with the context and opportunities to test their competencies, they begin to feel more efficacious even in relatively challenging and hard-to-develop skills. Therefore, this finding definitely calls for awareness building regarding standardization in FE in a way that it is restructured with the determination of untested teaching competencies and promotion of emphasis on their practice and development.

Together with the instructional issues mentioned above, another competency area where a slight increase over the course of FE was observed was *collaborating with families for the development of learners' language skills*. As in most cases, PSTs receive little or no formal training to work with families during their teacher education in Turkey. Despite this lack of experience, the participants of this study held high efficacy perceptions with regard to this competency even before they started their FE, which may indicate their positive dispositions (Unal & Unal, 2014) and their willingness to cooperate with families in learners' favor. The high perceptions even without the PSTs experience collaboration with families can indicate that they begin to assume professional responsibility and identity which clearly shows the FE's role on promoting the emergence of PSTs' identity growth. Therefore, as the research suggested (see Darling-Hammond et al., 2002b), PSTs need to be provided with knowledge and skills to learn how to establish empowering relationship with families which are one of the stakeholders for the success of education in schools.

On the other hand, the participants of this study displayed low efficacy perceptions regarding *teaching learners with special education and learning needs*. This result is in line with some other studies where low efficacy perceptions are linked to lack of content and pedagogical content knowledge resulting from faculty education, lack of practice, experience, and training to work with students with special education needs (Darling-Hammond et al., 2002b; Giallo & Little, 2003; Jung, Cho, & Ambrosetti, 2011). For instance, with an emphasis on lack of experience and training on working with students with special needs, Jung et al. (2011) found that special education PSTs reported higher levels of efficacy and confidence in their abilities to support learners with special education needs. Similarly, Freytag (2001) in her study also detected the positive effect of coursework addressing inclusion. Thus, these results show the significance of educating PSTs on a specific skill and providing them with opportunities to practice it. Considering the fact that in Turkey all teachers including English language teachers have inclusive students in their classrooms, this specific finding of the current study underlines the urgent need to integrate courses into teacher education curricula of all subject areas to equip PSTs with the content and pedagogical content knowledge of working with learners with special learning and education needs as well as giving them the opportunities to put the knowledge and skills into practice in FE.

The qualitative data obtained through the interviews, on the other hand, revealed several factors underlying the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions. First and foremost, *prior teaching experience* was the most significant source in SE, and this is actually understandable since it is the very beginning of FE, and great majority of PSTs naturally have untested their teaching competencies. Therefore, those who had tested competencies relied on their prior teaching experience which is clearly mentioned by Bandura (1994) as the source providing PSTs with mastery experiences sourcing their teaching-efficacy perceptions (also see Bandura, 1997, cited in Brown et al., 2012). Especially after PSTs experience mastery practice in authentic teaching settings, they feel that they are able to meet the authentic challenges in teaching successfully (see Gurvitch & Metzler, 2009; Putman, 2012). Besides and interestingly, the PSTs regarded *faculty education* as a source being secondarily important to them. Actually, some contradictions lie in that especially when the time PSTs spent in teaching education at faculty is

considered. As known, faculty education is a 4-year process the first 3-year of which is heavily spent by being engaged with the acquisition of content and pedagogical content knowledge which definitely establishes the basis of learning teaching profession. However, disregarding the role of such a significant process could unfortunately suggest that there might be some problems in PSTs' teaching competencies development as this finding may indicate that faculty education cannot fully help PSTs develop the necessary teaching competencies, such as teaching language skills and grammatical structures (Kömür, 2010), teaching intercultural perspectives (Polat & Oğay Barka, 2014), and even lack of opportunities for micro teachings and teaching practice (Seferoğlu, 2006). Thus, there seems to be a need to empower PSTs with teaching competencies as early in their faculty education as possible as they are so much important that they cannot only be left to the 4<sup>th</sup> year. To do this, short visits to real schools and classrooms starting from the first year at faculty need to be incorporated into teacher education programs. PSTs need to be given the opportunity to fully immerse in the real workplaces by job shadowing, deeper observations in the first years of the faculty education which have to be supported by theoretical courses and intensive microteaching opportunities as they develop pedagogic content knowledge and related skills at the faculty. And then under the supervision and support of the both faculty and school mentors, PSTs need to start teaching real students in real teaching environments. Only through such an intense and lengthened involvement, can teacher education programs prepare PSTs having stronger teaching-efficacy.

As for the TP phase, the PSTs reported to have higher efficacy perceptions welded from *decreased sense of teaching anxiety* and *increased confidence in their professional self* because of the frequency and quantity of practicing in which the likely role of reflection and learning in action cannot be disregarded. In support to this finding, *untested teaching competencies* resulting from lack of teaching practice and confidence in teaching skills were found to be a major source for lower teaching-efficacy perceptions for some PSTs. These two related findings further indicate that although frequent practicing is a key to test competencies and develop confidence, it is not enough on its own. Rather, teaching practice enriched with reflection is a must, and this is ultimately needed to enable PSTs to develop confidence in their teaching-self as part of their identity construction (see Karakaş, 2016), develop teaching knowledge and skills, and also develop spontaneity and flexibility in their teaching performance (see Caires et al., 2012). Therefore, the invaluable role of reflection in PSTs' education over the course of FE calls for immediate feedback from their CTs, whose support is known to make a difference on PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions (see Caires et al., 2012; Hoy & Spero, 2005; Smolleck & Mongan, 2011) and also peers as they teach in practicum schools. In this regard, the contributions of these two parties on PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions validate the role of vicarious experiences as sources of PSTs' teaching-efficacy (see Bandura 1994; Bandura, 1997, cited in Brown et al., 2012). Besides, PSTs also need to provide themselves with self-feedback through reflective diaries which enable them to make a further critique of their teaching practice, and this should definitely be followed by teaching the same lesson in another class of the same level. Thus, this gives PSTs the chance to practice a revised and improvised version of their teaching which is vital to support their learning and development in action. Research also shown that continuing to engage in teaching practice, particularly the one enhanced with reflection, either on a daily basis or over an extended period of time, PSTs are seen to improve to become capable of interpreting and assessing their teaching performance, thus teaching-efficacy (see Putman, 2012). Faculty also has a significant role to support this reflection on teaching as faculty teachers definitely need to create opportunities for PSTs through regular weekly reflection sessions which are necessary to encourage their deeper thinking and evaluation of their FE practices, and act accordingly in their following teaching practices in schools and even their future teaching practices in profession.

Last, but not the least, a surprising result of this study was that the PSTs were found to develop *teaching awareness* regarding the quality and standards of quality-teaching as they reflected on their own teaching experiences and observed their CTs' and peers' instructional practices, which were found to have a negative effect on their perceived teaching-efficacies. Thus, gaining and developing efficacy in teaching is a matter of one's own ongoing practice as well as observation of others' practices which provide PSTs with accumulation of improved and renewed knowledge. Therefore, as research showed, teaching and learning to teach is far more complicated than PSTs might assume (see Grijalva & Barajas, 2013). In this regard, similar to the other findings of the current study, the role of increased teaching awareness on teaching also calls for earlier and longer involvement of PSTs with quality-teaching practice in real classrooms and with real students.

In the light of the results and discussions above, it can be concluded that FE obviously contributes to PSTs' development, professional learning, and ultimately increases their perceptions of teaching-efficacy, which is multidimensional and complicated as it is clearly seen to be a combination and also an ultimate result of a number of issues such as *faculty education, teaching knowledge and skills, teaching practice, confidence in professional self which is known to come through testing teaching competencies*, and also *increased awareness*

regarding teaching both through critiquing one's own teaching and others'. Therefore, similar to the studies briefly referred above, the increase in the PSTs' teaching-efficacy in this study can also be linked to the integration and interaction of various issues sourcing the PSTs' higher teaching-efficacy perceptions. On the other hand, if it is the vice versa case, which means that PSTs are not provided with adequate opportunity to engage in teaching practice (also see Uztosun, 2016), test their teaching competencies, reflect on their in and out-of-class work, they can ultimately result in lower teaching-efficacy perceptions. Moreover, the increase on the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions regarding *interpreting and feeding results of assessment and evaluation back into learners' language development* and *reflecting results of assessment and evaluation on teaching to identify learners' language development* also deserve attention as it is obvious that practice made a difference on the increase in the PSTs' teaching-efficacy perceptions in assessment and evaluation. In this regard, PSTs need to be provided with opportunities to test and develop their teaching competencies in assessment and evaluation (also see Sabancı & Yazıcı, 2017). Hence, the FE process can clearly be seen to have a pivotal role on how PSTs construct and develop their teaching-efficacy perceptions.

Therefore, relying on the findings and discussions, the results could primarily suggest that FE is the key mechanism providing PSTs with appropriate and authentic teaching practice and also giving them the chance to see if and how what they learn at faculty works in real teaching and if and how the realities and challenges of teaching in schools are addressed through faculty education. In this regard, the results also show the undeniable role of faculty education for educating PSTs who have adequately and effectively developed teaching competencies and who can also reach high-quality teaching. However, as can be inferred from the emphasis put on testing teaching competencies, the results also suggest that pure and sole theory is never enough. That is, PSTs need to be provided with more authentic opportunities to test their teaching competencies. Therefore, FE could be longer and thicker in nature not only to support the development of teaching competencies, but also to support the development of teaching awareness and confidence in professional self. Last but not the least, as all these do not naturally develop on their own, the findings call for strong and stable harmony and cooperation between faculty and schools for a better and high-quality PST education.

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