THE EFFICACY OF TEACHERS IN A NUMBER OF SELECTED SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU-NATAL

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THE EFFICACY OF TEACHERS IN A NUMBER OF SELECTED SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU-NATAL

by

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DURBAN

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis "The Efficacy of Teachers in a Number of Selected Schools in KwaZulu-Natal" represents my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I. RANGRAJE

October 2002

DURBAN

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother, Sara, and my late father, Fathey Mohamed Rangraje, for making it possible for me to receive my schooling as a young boy. I also dedicate this work to my wife Ayesha, for her support in my quest for furthering my education, as well as to my daughter Nasreen and son Muhammad, who had to endure months of sacrifice so that I may realise my ambition.

To all of you I say *Thank You.*

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SUMMARY

The aims of this research were:

- To determine the status of teacher efficacy in a number of selected schools in KwaZulu-Natal.

- To suggest a number of recommendations for the improvement of teacher efficacy in these schools.

The life-world of the teacher involves a complex network of relationships with himself, with ideas, with objects and with others. Teachers are achievement oriented. Most teachers strive to realise their full potential through self-actualisation.

Various studies have been conducted on teacher efficacy to determine the different dynamics that influence teacher motivation, teachers' professional esteem, thinking, decision-making, and classroom discipline and management. Results have shown that teachers with a high sense of efficacy are generally strongly motivated and satisfied with their jobs, persevere when faced with obstacles, maintain good classroom discipline, and attempt to bring out the best in their students. Conversely, teachers with a low sense of efficacy give up easily when faced with obstacles, are afraid to accept challenges, feel inadequate in the classroom, and harbour feelings of guilt and trepidation when their students perform poorly.

For the purpose of the empirical investigation, a structured questionnaire was used. Teachers from schools in the City of Durban

District were asked to complete the questionnaire. An analysis was done of the 150 completed questionnaires that were returned.

The data obtained was processed and interpreted by means of descriptive and inferential statistics. The null hypothesis, namely that there is no relation between the teacher's experience of the teaching situation and his efficacy, that is, the power to produce the effect wanted, has to be accepted.

In conclusion, a summary and certain findings emanating from the literature study and the empirical investigation were presented. Based on these findings, the following recommendations were made:

- Teachers need to be developed professionally. Proactive professional development programmes should be designed to extend the personal strengths of teachers. Professional development provides opportunities for teachers to acquire new skills and attitudes which can enhance their efficacy.

- Teaching conditions need to be reformed. This involves transforming the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. Teachers need to undertake initiatives which are designed to improve their efficacy. At the same time, school management and education authorities need to improve working conditions so that more effective teaching can take place.

- Teachers need to be satisfied with their jobs in order to perform effectively. The workload of teachers needs to be reduced considerably to enable them to focus more on particular tasks.

Furthermore, teachers require greater incentives to motivate them to perform more effectively.

- Stress in the workplace needs to be reduced if teachers are to perform optimally. The onus rests on all role players to make a concerted effort to control the level of stress in the workplace.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van die ondersoek was:

- Om die status van effektiewe onderwys in geselekteerde skole in KwaZoeloe Natal te bepaal.

- Om sekere aanbevelings aan die hand te doen ten einde onderwysereffektiwiteit te bevorder.

Die leefwêreld van die onderwyser behels 'n netwerk van komplekse verhoudinge met onder andere homself, ander, objekte en idees. Binne sy beroepswêreld streef die onderwyser daarna om sy potensiaal deur middel van self-aktualisering ten volle te verwesenlik.

Die studie wat onderneem is is daarop gemik om onderwyser-effektiwiteit te ondersoek ten einde die dinamika wat onder andere onderwys-motivering, professionele benadering, besluitneming, klaskamer dissipline en algemene bestuur te bepaal. Resultate dui daarop dat onderwysers met 'n hoë sin vir effektiwiteit oor die algemeen meer gemotiveerd en tevrede met hul werkstoestande is. Hulle kom struikelblokke, dissiplinere probleme en probleem situasies wat moontlik mag ontstaan, makliker te bowe. Aan die ander kant wil dit voorkom asof die minder effektiewe onderwyser minder gemotiveerd is om uitdagings te aanvaar, hulle voel ontoereikend in die klaskamer en ervaar dikwels 'n skuldgevoel wanneer leerders swak presteer.

Vir die doel van die empiriese ondersoek is 'n gestruktureerde vraelys gebruik. Onderwysers van skole in die "Stad van Durban-distrik" is as respondente gebruik. 'n Analise van 150 voltooide vraelyste is gedoen.

Die data wat verkry is is by wyse van beskrywende en inferensiële statistieke verwerk. Die nulhipotese, naamlik dat daar geen verhouding tussen die onderwyser se onderwysondervinding en sy effektiwiteit bestaan nie, is aanvaar.

Ten slotte is 'n opsomming en sekere bevindinge voortspruitend uit beide die literatuurstudie en die empiriese ondersoek aangebied. Gebaseer op hierdie bevindinge is die volgende aanbevelings aan die hand gedoen:

- Onderwysers behoort professioneel opgelei te word. Proaktiewe professionele ontwikkelingsprogramme behoort ontwerp te word ten einde sekere persoonlike hoedanighede van onderwysers te kan ontwikkel. Geleethede vir onderwysers om nuwe vaardighede te versterk of aan te leer ten einde hulle effektiwiteit as onderwysers behoort bevorder te word.

- Onderwysomstandighede behoort aandag te geniet: dit sluit onder andere verandering aan die mikrosisteem, mesosisteem, eksosisteem, and makrosisteem in. Onderwysers behoort aangemoedig te word om hulle effektiwiteit as onderwysers te bevorder. Werksomstandighede behoort gevolglik ook in so 'n mate aangespreek te word dat onderwysers meer effektief kan optree.

- Onderwysers behoort gelukkig in hulle beroep te wees ten einde effektief te kan wees. Die werkslading van onderwysers behoort verminder te word sodat die onderwyser meer aandag kan gee aan situasies wat dringende aandag nodig het. Verder behoort onderwysers groter prestasiebeloning te ontvang sodat hulle meer effektief sal wil optree.

- Spanning in die werksituasie behoort verlig te word. Die onus rus op alle rolspelers in die onderwys om die oorsake van spanning in die onderwyser se werksituasie vas te stel en aan te spreek.

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION **PAGE**

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Education in South Africa is in a state of crisis because of the political and social instability that existed in the past (Lethoko, Heystek & Maree, 2001: 311). The main goal of education is to restore the culture of learning and teaching at schools. The culture of learning and teaching refers to the attitude of teachers and students towards learning and teaching (Heystek & Lethoko, 2001: 222).

Recently, the media has focused much attention on education in South Africa (Sunday Times, 2000: 1). The reasons for this are: the poor results which schools have been producing, the poor conditions at many schools, and the inferior quality of education. This raises concern regarding the attitudes of teachers towards their jobs (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 37; Sallis, 1988: 2; Popkewitz, 1987: 131). The attitudes of teachers, together with their capabilities, has an effect on the quality of education.

Possessing knowledge does not make a teacher effective in the classroom. What is required is for the teacher to be able to use this knowledge to conceive of his teaching in purposeful terms, to size up a particular teaching situation, to use a teaching approach that is appropriate to a particular situation, and to evaluate the results in relation to the original purpose (Popkewitz, 1987: 177). If the

performance of teachers is to be improved, it is necessary to promote their efficacy.

Promoting the efficacy of teachers means developing them professionally, reflecting on their performance, and making them accountable for their actions. Efficacy affects the performance of teachers because it forms a link between knowledge and behaviour. Jantjes (1996: 52) believes that "...a sense of efficacy is not entirely internal". It requires an interactive environment which recognises performance by the provision of rewards and incentives.

In this study, attention will be given to:

- The status of teacher efficacy in a number of selected schools in KwaZulu-Natal.

- Recommendations for the improvement of teacher efficacy in these schools.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Since the 1980's, teachers throughout the world, were faced with continuous, radical changes in the workplace (Telford, 1996: 1). With the dismantling of centralised bureaucracies, schools were in a constant state of reorganisation. The roles and responsibilities of teachers had been revised.

For decades, the South African education system has been in a cacophonous state due to the poor quality of learning and teaching

(Herselman & Hay, 2002: 239; Steyn, 1999: 357). Since the dismantling of apartheid, insufficient progress has been made to improve the culture of learning and teaching at schools. Each Minister of Education has made an attempt to address these problems by introducing new initiatives from time to time, such as: a new curriculum, whole school development projects, culture of learning and teaching projects, and Tirisano.

Much of the problems facing education could be attributed to low teachers' qualifications, a lack of teacher commitment, and low teacher morale. Since 1999, teachers faced redeployment as part of the Department of Education's rationalisation policy. Many teachers have been transferred to other schools, whilst others have taken financial packages and early retirement. Furthermore, urban schools now have the responsibility of educating students who cannot speak English, many of whom come from low socio-economic backgrounds. These students have special social, welfare, and educational needs.

Ashton and Webb (1986: 2) state that "Teaching is an imperiled profession... because it deprives so many good teachers of their motivation and sense of professional self-esteem". They identify the following factors as contributing to a decline in teacher morale:

- Poor salaries which fall far short of the rate of inflation.

- Lack of a career ladder that rewards competence.

- Loss of public confidence in teachers.

- Disrespect and hostility of many students.

Teachers are dissatisfied with many aspects of their job. A source of complaint is often their workload. According to Steyn and Van Wyk (1999: 41) teachers "...are often required to fulfil multiple roles as a result of their wide range of responsibilities". Large class sizes contribute to the frustration of teachers. The physical conditions at school could also be a source of dissatisfaction for them. Teachers who become dissatisfied with their jobs "...are likely to become less effective or choose to leave the teaching profession" (Rochelle, 1982: 9).

The large number of teachers leaving the country to seek jobs elsewhere raises concern about the level of job satisfaction that they experience, as well as the high level of stress and burnout which is prevalent in the profession. Teachers experience continuous work pressure when performing their daily duties at school. They are constantly confronted with problems such as role conflict and uncertainty, unsatisfactory classroom climate, work overload, low decision-making powers, little support from colleagues, problems with students, and a lack of sensitivity from the management of the school (Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999: 192). It is not surprising, then, that teachers often display a negative attitude towards their work. Such attitudes have a negative impact on the performance of their students. In order to improve the attitude and performance of teachers in schools, it is necessary "...to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances teachers' sense of professionalism and decreases their job dissatisfaction" (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 37).

Job dissatisfaction could lead to stress. According to Rigby and Bennett (1996: 38) stress has recently become "...a problem of especially serious proportions among teachers". They concede that stress affects not only the teacher, but also the students and the educational system as a whole. Van Zyl and Pieterson (1999: 74) assert that teachers are exposed to "...a wide variety of multi-dimensional stressors within the work situation". Of concern is the fact that continued stress could result in burnout, a condition which indicates that the teacher is suffering from "...emotional, physical and cognitive exhaustion" (Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999: 192).

Traditionally, schools had rigid hierarchical management structures. Since the 1980s, "...there has been a growing trend towards decentralising school management with calls for more autonomy at school" (Steyn & Squelch, 1997:1). The South African Schools Act No.84 (Government Gazette No. 17579, 1996) gives parents greater participative powers at school. Teachers' unions have also become powerful in the past decade. Decisions affecting teachers have to be negotiated with their unions at every level. Even at the school site, teachers want to be involved in decision-making processes. However, this process of democratisation is not free from problems. At some schools, the teacher body has become so powerful that it has taken over most of the functions of the principal. Such a situation is not conducive to a healthy teaching-learning environment.

In any profession, and especially in the teaching profession, rewards and incentives play an important role in motivating employees. Very few teachers are intrinsically motivated to perform effectively.

Unfortunately, in the teaching profession, there are very few incentives for teachers. For many teachers, even the opportunity of being recognised for promotion, may be an impossibility.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study investigates the effectiveness of teachers in performing optimally in the classroom. Not all teachers are equally adept at producing learning and some schools are more effective than others at increasing academic achievement. According to Seyfarth (1996: 92) "Variations in the quality of work produced by employees may arise from either motivational or knowledge differences".

In essence, the problem that will be investigated in this study can be formulated as follows:

- What is the status of teacher efficacy in a number of selected schools in KwaZulu-Natal?

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

In behavioural research, the hypothesis to be tested is referred to as the null hypothesis. "Null hypotheses are negations or denials of research hypothesis statements" (Champion, 1981: 129). A null hypothesis is a statement which, if refuted, will lead to the support of some true research hypothesis. The rejection of a null hypothesis tantamounts to accepting a research hypothesis.

The research hypothesis for this study is formulated as follows:

- A relation exists between the teacher's experience of the teaching situation and his efficacy, that is, the power to produce the effect wanted.

For the purpose of this study, the research hypothesis is formulated as a null hypothesis as follows:

- There is no relation between the teacher's experience of the teaching situation and his efficacy, that is, the power to produce the effect wanted.

1.5 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The aims of this research are:

- To determine the status of teacher efficacy in a number of selected schools in KwaZulu-Natal.

- To suggest a number of recommendations for the improvement of teacher efficacy in these schools.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

Research with regards to this study will be conducted as follows:

- Consulting available, relevant literature in order to base this study on an accountable theoretical base.

- Constructing a structured questionnaire to be completed by level 1 teachers. A Likert type scale questionnaire with three response categories (Agree, Disagree, Uncertain) will be constructed. The three response categories will ensure that the respondents fall in one of the categories enabling the measuring of the direction and the intensity of feelings.

- Undertaking a pilot study to investigate the feasibility of the study.

- Administering the questionnaire at the selected schools.

- Processing the data once the questionnaires have been returned.

- Analysing the research data using descriptive and inferential procedures. Presenting a discussion of the findings.

- Instituting certain guidelines according to which accountable support can be initiated to equip teachers to perform effectively.

1.7 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

1.7.1 Gender issue

The masculine pronoun is used throughout this research and it refers to both male and female. It is used solely for the purpose of convenience and flow.

1.7.2 Efficacy

Efficacy may be described as the power to produce the effect wanted. It has to do with personal effectiveness, in terms of the perceived and actual capabilities of an individual. Efficacy beliefs influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave, in order to produce particular outcomes (Rigby & Bennett, 1996: 52; Bandura, 1993: 118; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993: 69).

1.7.3 Related concepts

The following concepts are semantically related to efficacy but have different meaning in different contexts:

- Effectiveness: Having an effect; producing a definite or desired result (The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, 1993: 330).

- Efficacious: Producing or sure to produce the desired effect (The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, 1993: 330).

- Efficiency: State or quality of being efficient (The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, 1993: 330).

1.7.4 Ex-Departments

In South Africa, during the Tri-cameral Parliament, the education departments were separated according to the different race groups. The education authority for whites was referred to as the House of Assembly (HOA), that for Indians was referred to as the House of

Delegates (HOD), that for the coloured community was referred to as the House of Representatives (HOR) and that for Africans was referred to as the Department of Education and Training (DET).

1.7.5 Teacher

Mosoge and Van der Westhuizen (1997: 196) define teacher as any person who teaches, educates or trains students at a school, but excludes a member of management. The term 'teacher' is synonymous with the word 'educator'. According to Parker (1998: 3) an educator is a mediator of learning, designer of learning programmes and materials, learning-area specialist or phase specialist. An educator is one who teaches, educates or trains others. In this investigation, the term 'teacher' is used throughout, and refers specifically to the educator at school.

1.7.6 Student

The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (1993: 3106) defines student as "...a person engaged in or fond of study". Other sources define student as a person studying at a tertiary institution. In this investigation the term 'student' refers to the pupil or learner at school. In keeping with much of the literature consulted, the term 'student' is used.

1.7.7 Relationship

The South African Oxford School Dictionary defines relationship as "...how people are related" (1998: 369). Relationship refers to the

mutual involvement of human beings with one another. At school, the teacher is involved in a variety of relationships with others in his environment (Gouws & Kruger, 1994: 5). This 'relationship' is the theory on which the research is built on.

1.7.8 Stakeholders

A stakeholder is a person who has an interest or a concern in something (The South African Oxford School Dictionary, 1998: 432). There are groups of people, other than the teachers and students, who have a vested interest in the school. Such interested parties are referred to as 'stakeholders'. Stakeholders include parents of students at the school, others in the community, business people, well-wishers, social workers and members of the police force.

1.7.9 School community

The South African Oxford School Dictionary (1998: 89) defines a community as "...a group with similar interests or origins". School community refers to the people in the immediate community which the school serves, who have an interest in the school.

1.8 FURTHER COURSE OF STUDY

The theoretical framework will be discussed in chapter two.

The research design to be used in this project will be described in chapter three.

The presentation of research data will be dealt with in chapter four.

Finally, chapter five will provide a summary of the research, findings and certain recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

TEACHER EFFICACY PAGE

CHAPTER 2

TEACHER EFFICACY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Fuller, Wood, Rapoport and Dornbusch (1982: 7) define efficacy as "...the individual's perceived expectancy of obtaining valued outcomes through personal effort". Rigby and Bennett (1996: 52) assert that efficacy links knowledge and behaviour, and in consequence, affects performance. Bandura (1993: 118) states that efficacy beliefs "...influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave". Efficacy has to do with personal effectiveness, a feeling that one can control events and produce outcomes (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993: 69). Individuals with high-efficacy beliefs perform better than those with low-efficacy beliefs.

The life-world of the teacher is the context in which he strives to be effective, in which to achieve efficacy. The life-world of the teacher comprises everything that is meaningful to him, such as the various relationships and dynamics that influence his efficacy. The teacher has a direct relationship with himself, his students, others in the teaching profession, parents, and stakeholders in the community. By understanding the life-world of teachers, we will begin to understand the hopes and complex anxieties that affect them. In this way, we can understand the connections that may exist between teachers' efficacy attitudes and the social realities which they face.

The role of the teacher is to educate his students through interacting with them (Vrey, 1990: 11; Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 174). During this interaction, there are various factors that affect the work of the teacher. Some of these factors include: the influence of the environment, student attitudes, parent attitudes, the status of the teaching profession, decision-making structures, job security, and teachers' personal characteristics.

The climate and culture of a school should be such that they promote harmony among teachers. Teachers need to be satisfied with their jobs for them to perform well at it. For this, they need to be motivated (Hoy & Miskel, 1996: 253). However, the teaching profession is beset with numerous problems that cause anxiety and depression among teachers. Such feelings often lead to stress and can, eventually, cause burnout.

Research has indicated that it makes good sense to focus on the promotion of efficacy in teachers if they are to bring about a positive change in the education of their students (Selaledi, 1999: 266-270). Some teachers are naturally driven to give of their best in their work. Others need to be motivated to do so. It is important to consider the life-world of the teacher and the notion of efficacy, before discussing other factors that affect the efficacy of the teacher.

In this chapter, attention will be given *inter alia* to the following:

- Life-world of the teacher.

- Teacher efficacy.

- Efficacy theories.
- Influences on teachers' sense of efficacy.
- Teaching environment.
- Prevailing problems.
- Teaching climate.

2.2 LIFE-WORLD OF THE TEACHER

An analysis of the life-world of the teacher is essential to an understanding of how efficacy attitudes develop in teachers. The life-world of the teacher includes everything in his life, such as his geographical world, the people and objects in it, the systems, forces, attitudes, ideas and his self. It is the Gestalt of meaningful relationships which he assigns to the different facets of his life. Vrey (1990: 18) stresses that "It is the life-work of every adult to constitute a life-world in which he orientates himself towards people, objects, ideas, etcetera, by forming meaningful relations". The life-world of the teacher is unique since it is the totality of meanings as perceived by him. A unique feature is that the life-world of two teachers cannot be identical.

The life-world of the teacher consists of his:

- self-actualisation,
- needs,

- motivation, and
- relationships.

2.2.1 Self-actualisation of the teacher

Self-actualisation refers to "...helping a person to become the best that he is able to become" (Vrey, 1990: 42). The need to actualise one's potential depends on the satisfaction of the physiological and psychological needs of an individual. Self-actualisation implies a person's deliberate efforts to realise all his latent potential. This includes every area of his manual skill, intellectual capacity, emotional experience and moral awareness. Self-actualisation does not imply a need for perfection. An individual who finds an activity that is meaningful to him, develops through his involvement in it. This happens once his psychological and physiological needs have been satisfied. Individuals who self-actualise are actually involving themselves in an activity which is not only important to them, but they must love doing it.

The teacher is a person. The type of person that he is will determine his performance as a teacher. The teacher has to believe in himself if he wants to make a positive impact on his students. Students, generally, do not like to take the advice of a 'non-entity'. The teacher needs to have a positive self-concept. He must see himself as "...having actualised or realised himself" (Vrey, 1979: 202). The positive teacher must accept points of view, which are different from his own. He must be able to accept criticism that is valid, without becoming defensive.

The personality of the teacher has an effect on his teaching effectiveness. Research indicates that effective teachers have a sense of humour, are fair, empathetic, more democratic than autocratic, and are able to relate more easily and naturally to students on either a one-to-one or group basis (Vrey, 1979: 207). The teacher should be empathetic towards his students and he should not ridicule or embarrass them. The personality of the teacher must foster an environment of trust and confidence in his students.

A pre-requisite for teaching is the possession of adequate knowledge of the subject matter. The teacher who lacks the relevant knowledge of the subject matter will be incompetent. Teachers are expected to impart the knowledge which they possess. A skilled teacher keeps abreast of his subject matter. The teacher who knows his subject matter well, will display confidence in the classroom, and not open himself to ridicule from his students.

"The life experiences of most teachers demonstrate their allegiance to the ethic of vertical mobility, self-improvement, hard work, deferred gratification, self-discipline, and personal achievement" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 29). A teacher can only actualise his potential within the context of the teaching-learning process. In the quest to establish a self-concept, the teacher forms meaningful relationships with others in his surrounding.

Education is based on achievement. Teachers, themselves, are achievement oriented. Most of them take pride in their social and economic development and see potential for future status advancement for themselves and their students (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 30). This

includes their system of ideas, attitudes, values and whatever they commit themselves to. When an individual progresses to a point where he grows physically and psychologically, and is in a position to control his emotions, he attains self-actualisation or self-realisation. The self-actualisation of the teacher is essential to a meaningful life-world.

Self-actualisation depends on meaningfulness. A teacher self-actualises when a life-work is meaningful to him. In order to actualise his potential, the teacher needs to initiate relationships which give him increased control of his world. However, before he can self-actualise, his primary needs must be met. A few important needs are: need for achievement (competence), need for love and esteem, need for understanding and the need to belong, as portrayed by Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (refer to Figure 2.1).

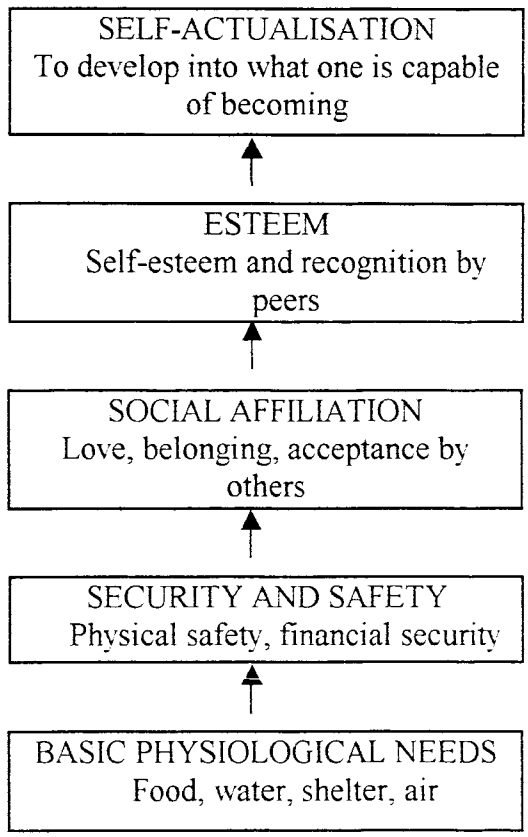

Figure 2.1: Hierarchy of needs as used in Maslow's theory of motivation (Owens, 1998: 143)

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is a powerful way of understanding human motivation (Owens, 1991: 107). Maslow believed that it is the inner being of individuals, which drives them to realise their full potential. This potential is achieved when one ultimately reaches self-actualisation.

2.2.2 Needs of the teacher

Kydd, Crawford and Riches (1997: 18) identify the following as the needs that are most likely to be prevalent in a teacher. These are, the need to be:

- supported,
- heard,
- noticed,
- encouraged,
- trusted,
- informed,
- appreciated and valued,
- challenged and extended,
- helped to clarify ideas, and
- helped to develop skills and abilities.

Once these needs are satisfied, teachers tend to work harder, with more commitment and a purposeful sense of direction.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is based on "...an orderly, sequential hierarchical pattern that takes us towards continued growth and

development" (Owens, 1998: 142). The lower order needs must be fulfilled first before one is motivated by a higher need. This is known as prepotency. The lower order needs can be more easily satisfied whereas the higher order needs are linked to job performance. The five needs, as depicted in figure 2.1, are described below:

(1) Basic physiological needs

Maslow believed that the lowest order of human needs consisted of those things which were needed for survival, such as air, food, water, and shelter. Primitive societies were less complex and could fulfil these needs easily. In present society, individuals need to earn money in order to pay for all the basic necessities, such as buying food and paying the rent. This causes individuals to become involved in organisational life (Owens, 1991: 107).

The basic needs of most teachers are often fulfilled. Teachers who are permanent employees of the Department of Education, receive a regular salary which may be adequate to take care of their basic needs. Fringe benefits, such as a housing and medical aid subsidy, help to fulfil some of their basic needs.

(2) Safety and security

The need for safety and security is one step higher in the hierarchy of needs. This need materialises after the basic physiological needs have been adequately fulfilled. Security could mean different things to different people. For example, for some it could mean job security and

for others it could mean safety from the criminal element.

For teachers, safety and security could mean a safe work environment, a secure job, a decent salary, or opportunities for promotion. Presently, teachers are faced with threatening situations on a daily basis, such as errant students, aggressive parents, and fear of a possible lawsuit. The teaching job is not secure anymore because teachers face rationalisation and redeployment. Teachers' salaries are not commensurate with their qualifications. Opportunities for promotion are few (Niehaus & Myburgh, 1997: 161).

(3) Social affiliation

The next need in the hierarchy is the need for social affiliation. Once the security needs have been met, individuals seek to interact with others. They seek to fulfil their need to belong and to be respected by others.

Teachers, generally, enjoy socialising. They form cliques within the staff. The members of such cliques usually display admirable qualities of loyalty towards the other members of their group.

(4) Esteem

Having fulfilled the need to belong and to be accepted by others, individuals now seek recognition, prestige and status. Individuals seek to fulfil their need for self-esteem and their need for recognition by their peers. Teachers have a need to belong and to be recognised as

professionals. They have a need to be respected by the school community and by the society at large.

Recently, the teaching profession has been subjected to a fair amount of negative publicity by the media. Such publicity has a negative impact on the self-esteem of teachers. Teachers are faced with a variety of responsibilities, some of which do not befit their professional status. Many parents show no respect towards teachers. The effort and achievements of teachers are very often not appreciated or go unrecognised (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 39).

(5) Self-actualisation

This is the highest level of need in the hierarchy. According to Owens (1991: 108) self-actualisation is "...the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming". Different people may reach this stage at different times. Not everyone reaches this stage. Individuals seeking self-actualisation are strongly motivated by values, ethics and beliefs.

The first four needs in the hierarchy are referred to as deficiency needs. When an individual has a deficiency of a particular need, he seeks to fulfil this deficiency by fulfilling this need. Until this deficiency has been addressed, he would find it difficult to respond to a need, which is of a higher order. For example, teachers who feel unsafe in their work environment, are not likely to seek social affiliation, unless their security needs have been satisfied.

The highest need is referred to as a growth need. This need is never completely fulfilled because, as the need for self-development increases, there is a corresponding need to search for knowledge and understanding. "Responding to growth needs leads to increased growth; the cycle of personal growth is seemingly endless" (Owens, 1991: 143).

Owens (1991: 112-113), describes the research that was conducted by Sergiovanni and associates on the operating need levels of teachers. Their results have shown that teachers were not strongly motivated by job security, salaries and benefits. Instead, they found that teachers were motivated towards achieving competence, respect and self-worth as professionals. Teachers were found to be driven by a sense of achievement towards greater competence.

Figure 2.2 shows Porter's model of a hierarchy of work motivation. Porter adapted Maslow's hierarchy of needs by including a new level in the hierarchy, that is, autonomy. Autonomy refers to the individual's need to participate in decision-making processes which affect him, as well as to "...exert influence in controlling the work situation, to have a voice in setting job-related goals, and to have authority to make decisions and latitude to work independently" (Owens, 1998: 144). Teachers often complain that they get very little autonomy at school. This is probably due to the fact that schools are hierarchical by nature.

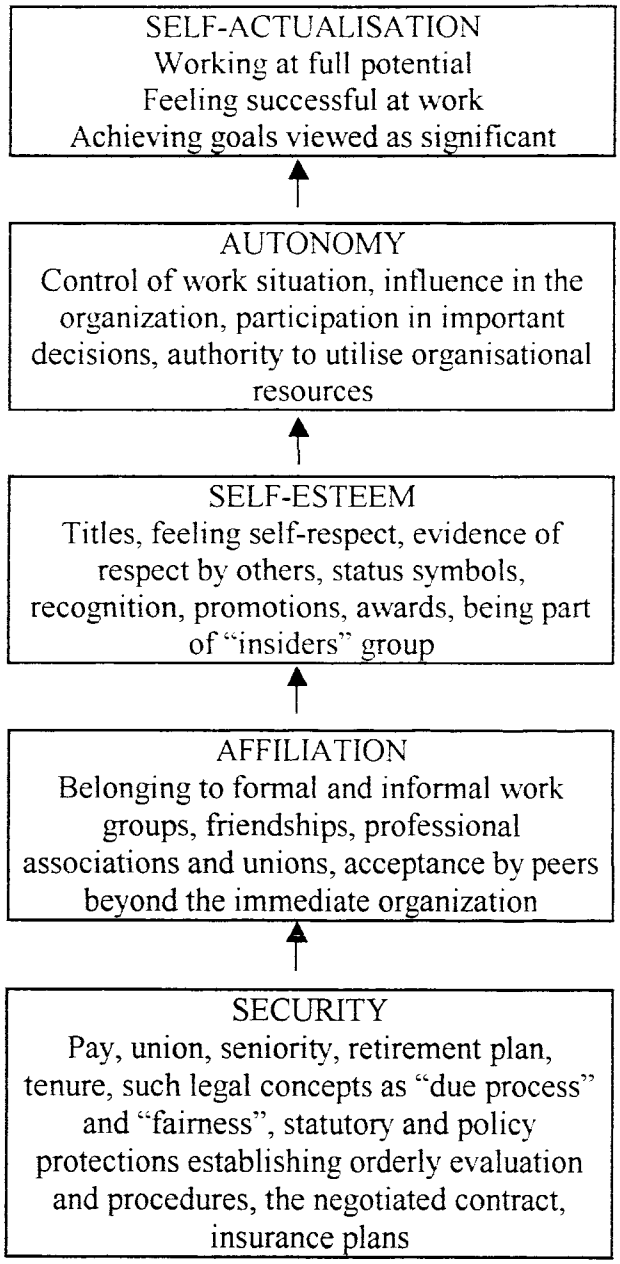

Figure 2.2: Porter's model of a hierarchy of work motivation (Owens, 1998: 145)

2.2.3 Motivation

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993: 69) assert that there is a relationship between teachers' motivation and commitment to work, and student achievement. Motivation explains the behaviour of people. It is an internal feeling which has an effect on behaviour. According to Owens (1991: 102) motivation is an "...inner state that activates or moves

individuals". Motivation provides a purpose for a teacher to behave in a particular way.

Motivation is usually rooted in human needs. When a need arises, a teacher attempts to satisfy it. He does this by behaving in a particular manner. The relationship between human needs and behaviour patterns is a complex issue. Behaviour is the means by which an individual seeks to satisfy his needs.

Much of human motivation is cognitively generated. Hence, teachers are motivated by thoughts in their minds. Firstly, they form beliefs about their capabilities. Next, they anticipate what outcomes their actions are likely to generate. Finally, they set goals for themselves and plan their courses of action. According to Bandura (1993: 128) "Forethought is translated into incentives and appropriate action through self-regulatory mechanisms".

(1) Theories of motivation

There are three theories of motivation: attribution theory, expectancy-value theory, and goal theory.

(a) Attribution theory

Causal attributions influence motivation through personal beliefs. Those teachers who perceive themselves to be highly competent, blame their failure on insufficient effort on their part. Those who perceive themselves to be highly incompetent, attribute their failure to a low ability level.

(b) Expectancy-value theory

According to this theory, motivation is dependent on the expectation that behaviour will produce certain outcomes and the value of those outcomes. Teachers act on the belief of their capabilities, as well as on their belief about the likely outcomes of their achievement. Thus, motivation is governed partly by self-beliefs of capability.

(c) Goal theory

In this theory, motivation is based on "...the capacity to exercise self-influence by personal challenge and evaluative reaction to one's own attainments" (Bandura, 1993: 130). A teacher's behaviour is guided by cognised goals which operate in the present. Goals have the capacity to motivate because they operate through self-influence processes. Goals give direction to behaviour by creating incentives for the teacher to persist in his efforts until his goals are fulfilled. A pre-condition for this is, teachers must believe that the work they do in order to accomplish their goal, will actually result in goal fulfilment (Painter, 2000: 376).

The basis for understanding what motivates a teacher lies in understanding the needs of the teacher. Since the 1920s, social scientists have studied human behaviour with a view to determining what motivates them. Through their investigations, scientists have discovered that rewards and incentives play an important role in motivating people (Owens, 1991: 106).

(2) Rewards and incentives

Rewards and incentives are "... inducements that participants receive in return for being productive members of the organization" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996: 315). Theorists believe that rewards can motivate work behaviour. Examples of rewards are: praise, money, sense of accomplishments, and social relationships.

According to Seyfarth (1996: 95) some psychologists are of the view that the use of rewards and incentives as motivators raises ethical questions. They feel that rewards function in the same way as punishments do, that is, their effect only lasts for a short while. Another objection which such psychologists have is that people use incentives to control the behaviour of others, an aspect which these psychologists are unhappy about.

There are three types of incentives: material, solidary and purposive. Material incentives are physical rewards such as money. Solidary incentives arise out of close association with members of a group, for example, assistance and support from peers. Purposive incentives are rewards that are associated with the purpose for which an organization exists, for example, creating opportunities for professional growth and development (Seyfarth, 1996: 95-96).

Rewards and incentives could either be intrinsic or extrinsic (Hoy & Miskel, 1996: 316). Intrinsic rewards are feelings of satisfaction, which emanate from within an individual. Examples of intrinsic rewards are feelings of accomplishment, achievement, competence, efficacy, self-esteem, and self-actualisation. According to Imants, Van Putten and

Leijh (1994: 9) sense of efficacy is an important intrinsic motivational factor for teachers. Extrinsic incentives are those rewards, which are provided by sources other than the individual himself. Such examples are money, promotion, recognition, and social interaction with colleagues. An important consideration is that work outcomes must be attainable for the incentives to be able to serve their purpose. At the same time, incentives should not be offered for outcomes which are expected of all employees as part of their normal duty.

In education, rewards and incentives would play an important role in motivating teachers. Teaching can become monotonous or stressful after some time. The offering of rewards and incentives would give teachers something to look forward to. However, if incentives are to have the required outcome, they must be valued by teachers.

Unfortunately, the teaching profession provides very few rewards or incentives for teachers. The profession no longer provides job security and stability. Teachers are often dissatisfied with aspects of their jobs. Teachers' salaries are not linked to the rate of inflation and are usually much lower than their counterparts in the corporate sector. Opportunities for advancement are few and wide. This could result in teachers being disillusioned with their work situation.

2.2.4 Relationships

According to De Klerk (1998: 21) teachers need to display maturity, self-mastery and self-discipline in order to maintain effective relationships with others. The teacher's experiences take place within his relationship with others (Gouws & Kruger, 1994: 5). Experiences

become meaningful only when the individual pays attention to them. Such experiences are then stored in the brain of the individual. What is stored is an integration of the meaning which he had assigned to the situation and the affective experience of it (Vrey, 1979: 40). The life-world of the teacher consists of his relationship with:

- students,
- parents,
- stakeholders,
- superiors and colleagues,
- the environment, and
- concepts.

(1) The teacher's relationship with students

A special relationship co-exists between teachers and students. According to Masutha and Ackermann (1999: 243) teachers have a major role to play in the development of their students. The teacher is responsible for adequately preparing the student for his growth towards adulthood so that he can realise his full potential. During this discourse, he has to help, support and encourage the student. The student's task is to participate in this discourse and to gain maximum benefit from it. By virtue of his vocation, the teacher has to teach subject matter to the student so that the student can achieve self-actualisation in society (Vrey, 1990: 205).

The teacher and student are involved in a mutual relationship from which each of them benefits (Steyn, Behr, Bischoff & Vos, 1987: 765).

The relationship between the teacher and student is based on trust. The student is uncertain about his future and he searches for certainty in his interaction with the teacher. The student must be able to trust the teacher so that he can assign meaning to this interaction (Du Plooy, Griessel & Oberholzer, 1992: 95).

The relationship between teachers and students affects not only the social and emotional climate in the classroom, but is crucial for achieving a high work output and maximum use of students' abilities. Teachers have personal needs and goals which determine their attitude and behaviour towards their class as a whole and towards individual students. Teachers can exert an indirect influence on the teaching-learning situation by praising or encouraging their students' behaviour, by using jokes to release tension, or by building on the ideas of students through appropriate questioning and discussion.

In accepting the student, the teacher accepts him as he is, what he wants to be, and what he should be. The student should not be viewed in a cold and unsympathetic manner, but should be treated with respect (Kruger, 1992: 54). The teacher should regard the student as a person with dignity and should have special regard for his dignity (Myburgh & Smith, 1990: 157-158). The student must be able to trust his teacher as someone who welcomes him on the grounds of his indisputable human dignity (Du Toit & Kruger, 1991: 12).

The teacher's task is to educate students so that they can take their place in society. He can do this by helping, supporting, accepting, and encouraging his students. According to Vrey (1984: 22-24) the teacher must know his students. He must lead rather than drive. There must be

a blend of leadership, authority and teamwork. He should be able to understand the student's extent of educability, and who he actually is. Conversely, the student should know his teacher well enough to know what to expect of him.

The subject matter is the medium through which the student realises his potential to achieve self-actualisation. The teacher needs to be familiar with the subject matter if he is to meet this end. However, factors such as a poor attitude towards learning, the personality of the teacher, or laziness on the part of the student, can hinder this process of education. A teacher who meets the aggressiveness of a student with domination or coercion, is likely to stimulate rather than allay aggressive tendencies. On the other hand, integrative behaviour on the part of the teacher is likely to promote co-operativeness in his students. The age of the student also has an effect on the teacher's interaction with him. The teacher must know his students well enough to understand their behaviour patterns. In so doing, he will be in a position to empathise with them whenever such an occasion arises.

Although Du Toit and Kruger (1991: 90) agree that discipline is essential, they feel that it is not necessary to exercise rigidity and excessive strictness in the name of authority. Such authority may cause the student to rebel against it because he may regard it as suppressing his personality or ability.

(2) The teacher's relationship with parents

Parents have a vital role to play as the primary educators of their children (Munnik & Swanepoel, 1990: 3). They are responsible for

guiding their children to adulthood. Topping (1986: 12) is of the view that it is the task of parents to help their children learn to read, write and do mathematics.

Parents also have a role to play at school. They form the third corner of the education triangle, the other two corners being formed by the teachers and the students. Parents can help the school by participating in various ways, for example, in sports, in administration, and in maintenance of the school.

The South African Schools Act No. 84 (Government Gazette No. 17579, 1996) gives parents greater powers. Parents must now be seen as partners at school (Heystek & Louw, 1999: 21). School governing bodies, which comprise largely of parents, have greater decision-making powers with regard to school finances, fund-raising activities, employment of teachers, and the management of services, buildings and facilities at school (Loock & Grobler, 1997: 35).

In most schools the relationship between teacher and parents is not close enough. The only real contact between teacher and parents occurs on parents' evenings or open days, but these functions tend to be stereotyped, formal, and low in communication value. If parents wish to discuss their child with the class teacher, they will as a rule, have little more than a few minutes allotted to them.

Few parents pay visits to the school in connection with their children's progress or behaviour. Many parents, particularly in the lower income groups, and especially if they have experienced school failure themselves, view schools as hostile and forbidding institutions.

Sometimes the relationship between teacher and parent is a delicate one. This occurs when there is a disagreement between teacher and parent in regard to the child's ability, motivation, behaviour, and so on. It is under such circumstances that the teacher's professional status requires him to act with tact and discretion.

Teachers need to interact regularly with parents. It is important for teachers to forge a healthy working relationship with them. Some parents can be an asset to the school by coming in to assist in various ways, while others can hinder the progress of the school by interfering with the teacher's work. The work of the teacher can become complicated when parents have certain expectations of them (Niehaus, Myburgh & Kok, 1996: 106). Teachers need to be wary of such parents.

(3) The teacher's relationship with stakeholders

Schools have become community-based organizations. West (1993: 15) asserts that schools are centres for the hopes and aspirations of entire communities. Consequently, there are various groups within the community which have a role to play at school. Schools have to interact with the different cultural groups as well as sports bodies within its surrounding. More recently, there has been an increase in the involvement of the business sector at schools. Teachers need to play the role of public relations officers in order to establish and maintain links with these stakeholders.

(4) The teacher's relationship with superiors and colleagues

The teacher's relationships, both formal and informal, with his superiors and colleagues, do not only influence his personal life, but have a considerable bearing on his classroom behaviour. Superiors, who are experienced teachers themselves, are expected to advise younger and less experienced teachers on how they can improve their teaching. Good principals are those who keep abreast of educational innovations, assess their value and keep teachers informed about them.

The principal is the person in authority over everyone else in the school, and is thus a person in whom considerable power is vested. His management style should be one that encourages inclusion and participation of staff (Singh & Manser, 2002: 56). When a principal displays a balanced and flexible concern for both the needs of the individual members of his staff, and the goals of his school, a happy atmosphere prevails (Seyfarth, 1996: 14). The morale of the teachers and their standard of performance will be high. The principal can choose to delegate certain tasks to teachers. When it comes to colleagues, it inevitably happens that informal social groups are formed among the teachers in a school. The factors which contribute to the formation of such groups are age, gender, marital status, and common interests.

(5) The teacher's relationship with his environment

The teacher has to constantly interact with others in his environment, such as colleagues, students and parents. The manner in which he interacts with others in his environment is an important consideration

(Ashton & Webb, 1986: 11). This interaction should be mutually acceptable. He should respect the views of others. His interaction should be dignified and acceptable to others. However, some relationship within the environment in which the teacher works could become strained. One such example is when parents begin to interfere in the teacher's work. Such parents become a threat to the teacher, who in turn, may begin to feel inadequate or incompetent. This can cause anxiety in the teacher.

(6) The teacher's relationship with concepts

The dynamic teacher, who is interested in and enthusiastic about his subject, invariably promotes interest and enthusiasm in his students. Teachers need to have adequate knowledge of their subject matter for effective teaching to take place. Information changes all the time, and much of it becomes outdated after some time. The teacher needs to keep himself regularly updated. Information is readily available and can be accessed in various ways, such as through the medium of television or through the internet. However, not all information is important, and teachers have to select only that information which will be meaningful to the students. The teacher must be able to "...separate and select essentials in the relevant structures" (Vrey, 1979: 204). He must attribute meaning to concepts in order to actualise himself.

2.3 TEACHER EFFICACY

2.3.1 Teachers' sense of efficacy

Teachers' sense of efficacy refers to teachers' belief that they can produce an outcome by successfully performing necessary behaviours (Allinder, 1994: 86). Imants, Van Putten and Leijh (1994: 9) state that teachers' sense of efficacy is "...the extent to which teachers believe that they can affect student learning". An efficacious teacher believes that he has the power and ability to produce a desired effect (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993: 69). According to Ashton and Webb (1986: 3), the construct of teachers' sense of efficacy refers to the situation-specific expectation that teachers have of helping students learn. Dembo and Gibson (1985: 569) identify teacher efficacy as a variable accounting for individual differences in teaching effectiveness.

Research findings show that there is a direct relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and student learning (Imants, Van Putten & Leijh, 1994: 9). In a class of students with mixed abilities, teachers usually devote more attention to high achievers. The reason for this is that high achieving students do not usually pose a threat to teachers' sense of professional competence and self-esteem. As a result, less time is spent in teaching low achieving students. This compounds the problem of low achievement in students. Very often, these students become bored and disrupt the class.

Research shows that teachers who have a strong sense of efficacy "...persist longer when questioning individual students during

instruction, are more pragmatic about teaching, and are more receptive to implementing new practices" (Allinder, 1994: 86-87). Teachers who have a strong sense of efficacy believe that they are capable of having a positive effect on student performance (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 3). Teachers' sense of efficacy is a belief that teachers can help even the most difficult or unmotivated students (Gibson & Dembo, 1984: 569). Such teachers usually choose those tasks which they find challenging. In the classroom, they are highly motivated and become engrossed in their work. They are not easily deterred when faced with obstacles, but rather approach them with a rational mind.

Teachers with a high sense of efficacy tend to use praise and nonverbal signs of acceptance such as nodding positively or smiling at their students when their students provide favourable responses. They are effective in leading their students to correct responses through their questioning. Such instructional strategies help to motivate their students further. High efficacy teachers also tend to avoid those behaviours that create a tense or negative climate, such as screaming at students or punishing them (Selaledi, 1999: 267).

Teachers with a low sense of efficacy tend to adopt instructional strategies which contain and control the situation in the classroom (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 81). They view their work as a control mechanism rather than as teaching and learning. They do not spend much time in trying to teach low-achievers because they believe that such students cannot and would not learn. They criticise students when they provide incorrect answers (Selaledi, 1999: 267). By adopting such instructional strategies, teachers with a low sense of efficacy try to maintain their self-esteem.

Ashton and Webb (1986: 3) believe that "...teachers' efficacy expectations influence their thoughts and feelings, their choice of activities, the amount of effort they expend and the extent of their persistence in the face of obstacles". Teachers' sense of efficacy is linked to their motivation, commitment to work, and student achievement (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993: 69). This means that teachers who have a low sense of efficacy would doubt their ability to influence their students to learn. As a result, such teachers would be reluctant to undertake activities that they feel may be beyond their capabilities. Instead, they ponder on thoughts of their perceived inadequacies. Such thoughts have a negative effect on their teaching capabilities in the classroom because they spend much of their time reflecting on their perceived personal incompetence. This is likely to raise their level of stress.

Figure 2.3 illustrates the relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy, and teaching and learning behaviours.

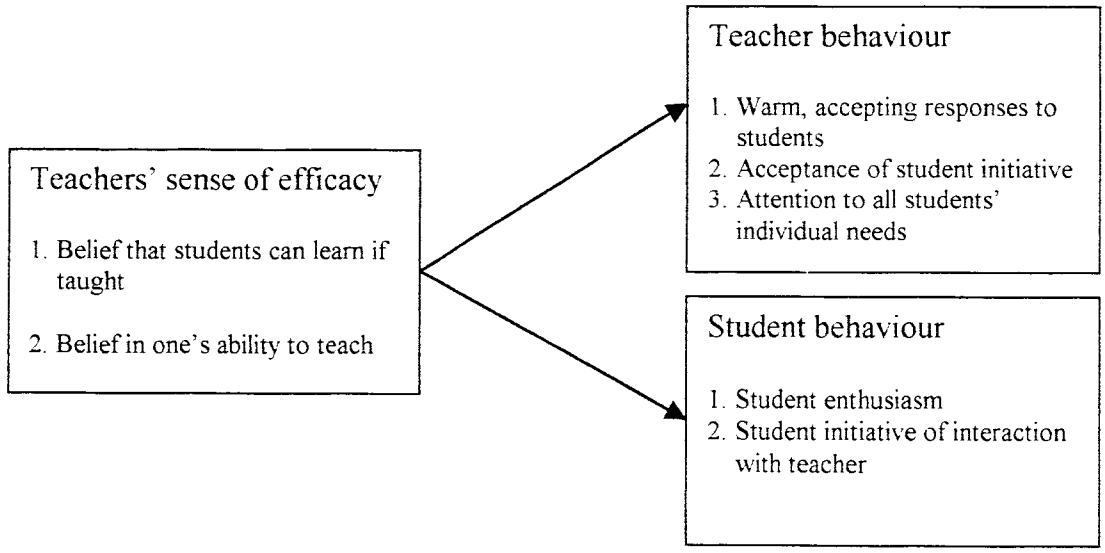

Figure 2.3 Relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and teaching and learning behaviours (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993: 70)

Selaledi (1999: 266), Allinder (1994: 86), Imants, Van Putten and Leijh (1994: 9), Ashton and Webb (1986: 3) and Dembo and Gibson (1985: 175) distinguish between two distinct and independent dimensions of teachers' sense of efficacy: sense of teaching efficacy and sense of personal teaching efficacy. Both of these dimensions have an effect on teachers' thoughts and feelings, choice of activities, amount of effort exerted, and extent of their persistence when faced with obstacles.

It is important to know which dimension of teachers' sense of efficacy is low in order to effect any change in their perceptions. If teachers' sense of efficacy is based on the belief that "...students cannot learn, changing their expectations requires evidence that, in fact, they can positively affect the performance of their low-achieving students" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 6). If teachers' sense of personal efficacy is low because they believe that they lack the necessary skills to teach low-achieving students, they need to be developed professionally to acquire the skills that are necessary to bring about a positive change.

(1) Sense of teaching efficacy

This dimension relates to teachers' beliefs that teaching can influence student learning (Allinder, 1994: 86). Selaledi (1999: 266) states that teacher efficacy refers to "...the teacher's beliefs about the general relationship between teaching and learning". This construct emphasises that the teacher has specific expectations for specific students in specific situations. The extent to which teachers believe that teaching can have an effect on student learning varies. Teachers who have a low sense of efficacy share the view that low-achieving students will

continue to perform poorly, irrespective of any intervention by the teachers to improve their performance. They believe this to be a reality that will not change. Conversely, teachers who have a high sense of efficacy believe that all their students are capable of learning.

Teachers who experience a low sense of teaching efficacy go on to experience feelings of universal helplessness (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 6). They "...do not exert much effort or persist for an extended period because they do not think students are learning or can learn" (Allinder, 1994: 86). Such teachers believe that their low-achieving students cannot be helped, irrespective of how much they try to improve the situation. Universal helplessness causes teachers to have negative expectations and doubts of their ability to motivate certain students (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 175). These teachers give up easily on low-achieving students without even attempting to improve the situation. Because these teachers expect students to perform poorly, they do not feel disillusioned when their students do perform poorly, nor do they become stressed since they believe that no other teacher will be able to motivate such students. The effects of a low sense of teaching efficacy are illustrated in figure 2.4.

Ashton and Webb (1986: 6) conducted a research on the relationship between motivation and teachers' sense of efficacy. During the course of their interviews, a teacher with a low sense of teaching efficacy stated that she was not troubled by the failure of her low-achieving students. She was not affected by their poor performance because she expected her low-achieving students to perform poorly. Such perceptions helped her to maintain her sense of professional self-esteem.

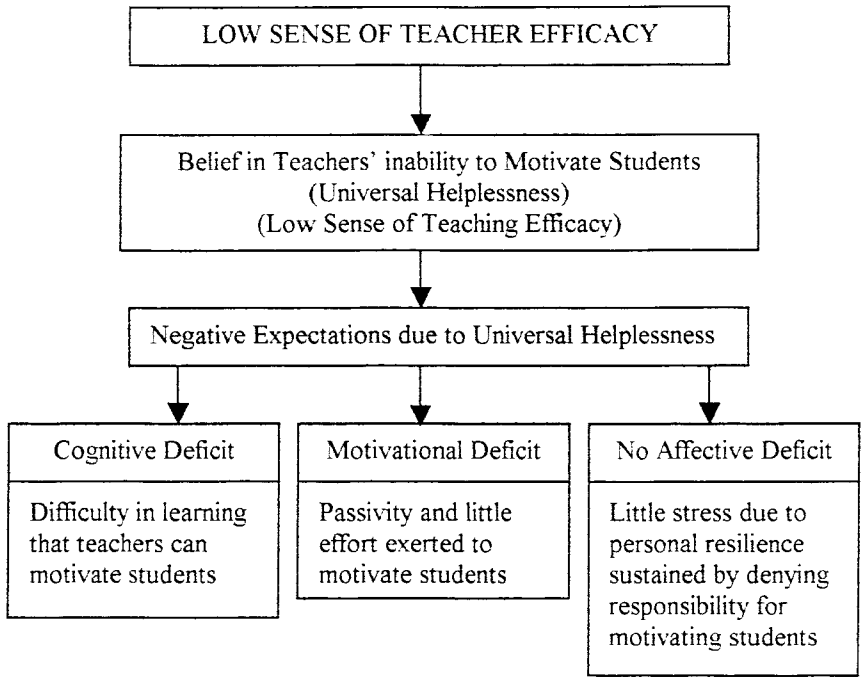

Figure 2.4: Teachers' sense of teaching efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 7)

Teachers' sense of teaching efficacy is an expectancy construct. This means that teachers expect certain learning outcomes to be achieved from teaching their students. This, in turn, has an effect on the performance of their students. The reason for this is that the teachers' specific outcome expectations regarding the efficacy of teaching are filtered through their judgements of their own ability to influence student achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 7).

(2) Sense of personal teaching efficacy

This dimension refers to teachers' beliefs in their own ability to affect student learning (Allinder, 1994: 86). Personal efficacy is concerned with "...the conviction that one can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce the outcomes" (Gibson & Dembo, 1984: 570). According to Selaledi (1999: 266) personal teacher efficacy refers to

the individual teacher's assessment of his own teaching competence. The perceptions that teachers have of their own teaching capabilities have an influence on their work performance. Teachers with a low sense of personal teaching efficacy will usually avoid situations in which they lack the confidence in their ability to perform successfully. Teachers who perceive themselves to be incompetent spend so much of time worrying about their incompetence that they are unable to perform well in the classroom. Such feelings of doubt could cause them to become stressed.

Teachers who experience a low sense of personal teaching efficacy are most likely to experience feelings of personal helplessness (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 6). Feelings of personal helplessness are likely to produce in teachers, high stress, guilt and shame (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 175). Teachers lack the confidence in their ability to teach low-achieving students and blame themselves when their students fail. They do not hold the students responsible for their poor performance. They may believe that "...although students can learn, they themselves do not have the skills or resources to teach them" (Allinder, 1994: 86). Such teachers believe that low-achieving students would learn if they were better teachers who were "...more knowledgeable, talented and dedicated" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 6). Teachers with a sense of personal helplessness usually avoid the task of teaching low-achieving students because it may cause them to suffer a high degree of stress and a loss of professional self-esteem. The effects of a low sense of personal teaching efficacy are illustrated in figure 2.5.

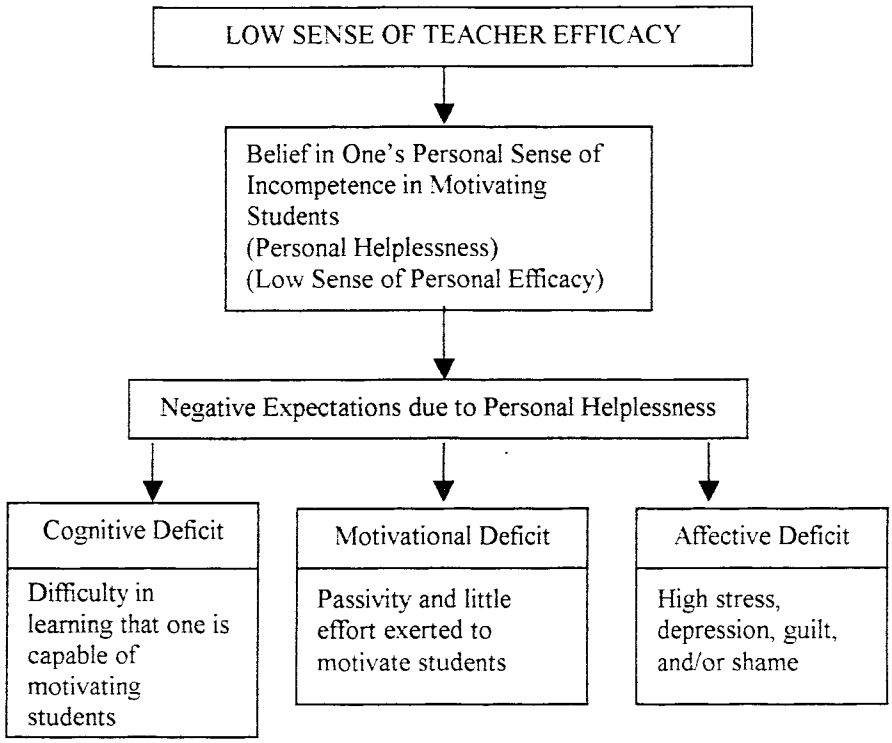

Figure 2.5: Teachers' sense of personal teaching efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 7)

Allinder (1994: 86-95) examined the relationship between instructionally relevant behaviours and attitudes in teaching children with learning disabilities. The results indicate that teachers' personal efficacy had a bearing on their instructional strategies. Teachers who had greater belief in their ability to teach were more likely to experiment with different ways of teaching, be business-like in working with students by being organised in their instruction, be firm but fair when dealing with students, and be confident and enthusiastic about teaching.

In the interview of teachers conducted by Ashton and Webb (1986: 6), a teacher with a low sense of personal teaching efficacy expressed her feelings of inadequacy and depression when her students failed to learn.

Teachers' sense of personal teaching efficacy is an "...integrating construct that mediates the relationship between teachers' expectations about the efficacy of teaching specific students and teachers' classroom interactions with those students" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 7). For example, if teachers are of the view that female students find it difficult to learn mathematics, this will influence their expectation of effectiveness in teaching specific mathematical concepts to the girls in their class.

Teachers who are unsure of their instructional efficacy, devote little time towards academic activities, do not spend extra time on weaker students, and do not hesitate to criticise their students when such need arises (Bandura, 1986: 431). Such attitudes are detrimental to the development of cognitive skills in students.

Fuller, Wood, Rapoport and Dornbusch (1982: 9) distinguish between organisational efficacy and performance efficacy. Organisational efficacy refers to an individual feeling efficacious when he achieves a valued outcome by influencing another individual in a different level of the organisation. Performance efficacy refers to an individual feeling efficacious when performing his own work tasks. Feelings of performance efficacy are independent of social interaction with other members of staff.

2.4 EFFICACY THEORIES

Teachers' sense of efficacy is defined as "...the extent to which the teacher believed he had the capacity to affect student performance" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 8). Efficacy involves the cognitive, social and

behavioural subskills, which when put into action, serve various purposes. Simply possessing the different subskills is insufficient. According to Hoy and Miskel (1996: 113) efficacy is not concerned with the skills that one possesses but rather with the judgements of what one can do using one's skills. A teacher should be able to judge the extent of his ability to attain a certain level of performance. Of concern, is the ability of the teacher to make use of these subskills appropriately and sufficiently under different circumstances.

Different performance tasks can vary in the level of difficulty and the subskills that are required to complete each task. Different tasks "...make different demands on cognitive and memory skills, on manual facility, strength, endurance, and stress tolerance" (Bandura, 1986: 397). Depending on the circumstances, even the same activity may require different abilities. For example, delivering a prepared speech requires less generative and memory skills than producing a speech spontaneously. Tasks which are ambiguous and not clearly defined will cause a discrepancy between the self-efficacy judgement and performance. The same will happen when the circumstances under which the tasks are performed are not clearly defined. The teacher needs to make use of appropriate subskills when executing particular tasks.

People who possess similar skills may perform differently. Even the same person may perform differently under different circumstances. Teachers' sense of efficacy depends on their self-concept. The self-concept of teachers refers to attitudes towards their 'self' (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 30). In formulating a conceptual framework, a study of the cognitive learning theory is pertinent to the study of teachers' sense

of efficacy. In this regard, a study of the concept of self-efficacy theory is appropriate.

2.4.1 Self-efficacy theory

Self-efficacy refers to "...self-referent thought in psychosocial functioning" (Bandura, 1986: 390). The conceptions which teachers have of their personal efficacy influences their daily lives. Selaledi (1999: 266) mentions that teacher self-efficacy is the extent to which teachers believe that they have the capacity to affect student performance. He believes that self-efficacy is a more specific construct than self-concept or self-esteem, because it describes the teacher's estimates of personal effectiveness. Self-efficacy beliefs "...indicate teachers' evaluation of their abilities to bring about positive student change" (Gibson & Dembo, 1984: 570).

Teachers who have the necessary knowledge to perform a particular task often do not perform optimally. The reason for this is that "...self-referent thought mediates the relationship between knowledge and action" (Imants, Van Putten & Leijh, 1994: 9). Self-referent thought is initially derived from action and from observing the experiences of others. The concern here is with how teachers judge their capabilities and how their self-percepts of efficacy affect their motivation and behaviour.

Much research was conducted on how self-referent thought influences psychological functioning, that is, the influence that personal efficacy has on controlling events that affect people's lives. Perceived self-efficacy is developed through actions that "...must be perceived as part

of oneself. The self becomes differentiated from others through differential experience" (Bandura, 1986: 414).

Self-efficacy refers to a teacher's overall judgement of his perceived capacity for performing a task. Self-efficacy helps teachers to set goals in terms of the effort and the time required to perform certain activities. The extent to which a teacher persists in his efforts will depend on how strongly he believes in his capabilities. It is only natural for teachers to prefer tasks which they feel are within their capability and avoid those tasks which exceed their capability. According to Hoy and Miskel (1996: 113-114) "...people who have the same skills but different levels of personal efficacy may perform at different levels because of the way they use, combine and sequence their skills in a changing context".

Self-efficacy beliefs influence how teachers feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave (Bandura, 1993: 118). Self-efficacy judgements are cognitive processes. The way in which people think is a cause of much human distress. Teachers, who consider themselves inefficacious, often dwell on their inadequacies. They view activities which they cannot cope with, as threatening. The more they dwell on their inadequacies, the more threatened they feel. They may even mentally exaggerate the strength of these threats. This causes them to experience a high level of cognitively generated distress (Bandura, 1986: 441). Such experiences will result in teachers having a strong sense of coping inefficacy.

2.4.2 Self-efficacy and cognitive processes

Much of human behaviour is influenced by self-appraisals of capabilities. Teachers with a strong perceived self-efficacy, set high goals for themselves. Most courses of action are initially shaped in the mind (Bandura, 1993: 118). The efficacy beliefs which teachers have, influence these thought processes. Teachers with a high sense of efficacy, visualise successful scenarios with positive thoughts. Those with a low sense of efficacy visualise failure and negativity.

According to Bandura (1993: 118-132) cognitive functioning is influenced by conception of ability, social comparison influences, framing of feedback, perceived controllability, and causal structure.

(1) Conception of ability

Some individuals believe that ability is an inherent quality while others believe that it is an acquirable skill that can be increased by gaining knowledge and competencies. Ability is a generative capability in which cognitive, social, motivational, and behavioural skills must be organised and effectively used to serve numerous purposes.

There is a huge difference between possessing the relevant knowledge and skills and being able to use them well when required to do so. Simply possessing skills is not sufficient. Teachers who perform poorly may do so because they lack the skills or they have the skills but lack the sense of efficacy to use them well.

(2) Social comparison standards

Teachers often assess their capabilities in relation to the achievements of others. Such comparisons influence how teachers judge their ability. Social comparative standards affect the self-esteem of a teacher, as well as the amount of satisfaction he obtains from his accomplishments. Comparative evaluations affect the efficacy of a teacher. When a teacher sees himself gain progressive mastery, this strengthens his personal efficacy, fosters efficient thinking, and enhances his performance attainments. By contrast, teachers who see themselves surpassed by others, undermine their personal efficacy and this impairs their performance attainments.

(3) Framing of feedback

In various ways, teachers strive for certain goals or levels of competence and receive social feedback from time to time concerning their performances. They reach these desired accomplishments gradually. The manner in which a teacher's progress is socially evaluated, can influence his self-efficacy appraisal, thereby altering the course of his attainments.

(4) Perceived controllability

Individuals have certain perceptions about the extent to which the environment can be controlled. There are two aspects to the exercise of control. The first aspect concerns the extent of personal efficacy required to produce changes by perseverance and the creative use of both ability and resources. The second aspect concerns the extent to

which the environment can be modified. Teachers who doubt their capability, see their efforts to change their situation as futile. They produce little change even if the environment has much potential. Conversely, those who have a strong belief in their efficacy find ways of exercising some control, even in environments containing limited opportunities and many constraints.

(5) Causal structure

Initially, teachers rely heavily on their past performance in judging their efficacy and setting their aspirations. Once they gain sufficient experience, their performance attainments become stronger because of their personal efficacy beliefs.

2.4.3 Self-efficacy and motivation

Self-efficacy beliefs contribute to motivation in various ways. They determine the goals people set for themselves, how much effort they expend, how long they persevere in the face of difficulties, and their resilience to failures. Teachers who harbour self-doubts about their capabilities, slacken their efforts when faced with obstacles and failures. Those who have a strong belief in their capabilities, exert more effort when they fail to master the challenge. Strong perseverance generally pays off in performance accomplishments.

Fuller, Wood, Rapoport and Dornbusch (1982: 8-9) think of efficacy and motivation as concepts which overlap, yet are distinct from one another. Efficacy emphasises the importance of personal effort. The relationship between efficacy and motivation becomes explicit when a

teacher expects valued outcomes without expending any effort. In this way, he is motivated without doing any physical activity.

Teachers motivate and guide their actions through a process of pro-active control. This, they do, by setting themselves challenging goals that create a state of disequilibrium. They then mobilise their skills and effort to accomplish their task. After attaining the goal which they have set for themselves, teachers with a high sense of efficacy move on to set even higher goals for themselves (Bandura, 1993: 132).

Perceived self-efficacy can affect the level of motivation in a teacher, depending on the existing sub-skills which he possesses. Perceived self-efficacy also aids the development of sub-skills to the extent of introducing new behaviour patterns. However, certain conditions bring about constraints in the performance of a teacher. One such factor is the lack of incentives. Teachers who perceive themselves to be efficacious, as well as those who possess the necessary sub-skills to execute a task, may choose not to do so because of the lack of incentives. Another factor is the lack of adequate resources to carry out a particular activity. The lack of resources limits the performance of a teacher (Bandura, 1986: 395).

Teachers are usually prepared to go to great lengths to achieve things, which they value. Fuller, Wood, Rapoport and Dornbusch (1982: 9) believe that the teachers' choice to maximise efficacy, results from incentives and social norms. Such strivings are fostered partly by extrinsic incentives such as social recognition, privileges, power, and money. These outcome expectations are dependent on perceived self-efficacy.

2.4.4 Self-efficacy and outcome judgements

There is an important relationship between self-efficacy and outcome judgements. Judgements of perceived self-efficacy are different from response-outcome expectations. "Perceived self-efficacy is a judgement of one's capability to accomplish a certain level of performance, whereas an outcome expectation is a judgement of the likely consequence such behaviour will produce" (Bandura, 1986: 391). An efficacious technique is not an outcome expectation but simply a means for producing the desired outcomes. Sometimes, an outcome is confused with an activity. An outcome is the result of an activity, not the activity itself.

Teachers who are convinced that a particular action will produce a certain outcome, may not embark on that action because of being uncertain of their capability. In environmental transactions, actions often lead to outcomes. In interactions of a social, intellectual and physical nature, highly efficacious teachers expect highly favourable outcomes concerning their actions. Those teachers who are uncertain of their capability, usually expect mediocre or poor outcomes.

Teachers have to ensure that they choose the right course of action because outcomes indicate the success of performances. Teachers therefore, have to rely on their self-judged efficacy to decide which courses of action to pursue.

Outcome expectations can function quite independently from self-efficacy judgements under certain circumstances. One such circumstance arises when it is not possible to determine which action

will produce a desired effect. Another such circumstance arises when social bias causes similar performances to produce unequal outcomes.

2.4.5 Assessments of self-percepts or performance

Efficacy judgements differ in level, in generality and in strength. The level of efficacy in different teachers will vary. In some teachers, the level may be restricted to simple tasks, and in others it may include more difficult tasks. The perceived self-efficacy of teachers may differ in generality. This is when teachers regard themselves as efficacious only in certain areas of functioning, or they may regard themselves as being efficacious across a wide range of functioning. In terms of strength, teachers who have weak perceived self-efficacy are easily discouraged by poor performance. On the other hand, those "...who have a strong belief in their own competence will persevere in their coping efforts despite mounting difficulties" (Bandura, 1986: 396). The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the more likely are teachers to select challenging tasks, the longer they persist at them, and the more likely they are to perform them successfully. Poor measures of perceived self-efficacy or poor measurements of performance would result in discordances.

Perceived self-efficacy is concerned with generative capabilities, not with component acts. Self-percepts of efficacy are usually measured in terms of variable use of the subskills one possesses under different situational demands. For example, in measuring driving self-efficacy, the motor components of driving, such as starting the car, pressing the hooter, etcetera, are trivial activities and are not measured, but the

generative capability of manoeuvring the car through traffic is measured.

2.4.6 Obscure aims and performance ambiguity

"Self-percepts of efficacy do not operate in a vacuum" (Bandura, 1986: 398). Teachers need to have a clear idea of what they are doing and the kind of performance they are seeking to attain. If they do not know this, then they will not know how much effort to utilise, how long to sustain it, and when to make corrective adjustments in their strategies. When teachers are not aiming for anything in particular, or they cannot monitor their performance, there is little basis for converting perceived efficacy into appropriate quantities of effort. Performance ambiguity results when a teacher does not personally observe his performance, and is not in a position to make an assessment of it.

2.4.7 Thought patterns and emotional reactions

Judgements of capabilities have an effect on thought patterns and emotional reactions. Teachers "...who judge themselves inefficacious in coping with environmental demands dwell upon their personal deficiencies and cognise potential difficulties as more formidable than they really are" (Bandura,1986: 394). Such thoughts are damaging to teachers' self-esteem and can undermine their competencies to the point of causing them stress. By contrast, teachers who judge themselves efficacious in coping with environmental demands, are not deterred by obstacles.

2.4.8 Faulty self-knowledge

Self-appraisals of efficacy are usually quite accurate. However, there are various sources which could cause faulty self-judgements. For example, in a new undertaking, a teacher may have insufficient experience to assess the validity of his self-appraisal. As a result, he makes reference to his performance capabilities from his knowledge in other situations. This inference can be misleading to him. Self-appraisals can also be misjudged when personal factors distort self-appraisal processes.

2.4.9 Effort and perseverance

Efficacy judgements are an indication of how much effort will be expended on an activity. They also determine how long an individual will persist in a particular activity when faced with unforeseen obstacles. Self-efficacy is directly proportional to effort and perseverance. Stronger self-efficacies will lead to greater effort. Conversely, perceived self-inefficacy is personally limiting since it leads to individuals giving up easily.

2.4.10 Sources of self-efficacy

Self-efficacy can develop from a variety of sources. However, Hoy and Miskel (1996: 114-115) and Bandura (1986: 399-401) have identified four primary sources from which self-efficacy develops. They are: mastery experience or enactive attainment, modelling or vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. According to Imants, Van Putten and Leijh (1994: 12) verbal persuasion and

physiological arousal are less powerful as sources of information than vicarious experience and performance accomplishments. At any given time, one or more of these sources of efficacy information may be at play.

(1) Mastery experience

Research indicates that teachers with a strong sense of efficacy are more receptive to implementing new practices such as mastery learning (Allinder, 1994: 87). Mastery experiences refer to the actual experiences which an individual undergoes, and as such, are the most influential sources of efficacy information. According to Moloi, Grobler and Gravett (2002: 89) teachers who strive towards mastery are usually those who are committed to their work. The way in which teachers perceive organisational efficacy arises from their actual experience of the social influence of the organisation (Fuller, Wood, Rapoport & Dornbusch, 1982: 11).

The successes and failures which a teacher experiences in completing certain tasks, have an influence on the extent of his self-efficacy. Successes will enhance a teacher's self-efficacy, whereas failure will reduce it. Repeated successes will build a strong sense of self-efficacy. When a teacher has a strong sense of self-efficacy in accomplishing certain tasks, occasional failure is not likely to impact negatively on his judgement. Hoy and Miskel (1996: 114) believe that "...efficacy is facilitated as gradual accomplishments build skills, coping abilities, and exposure needed for task performance". A new experience will have to be integrated with the teacher's existing self-perception, if it is to have any effect.

Factors other than ability level can have an effect on the level of performance. Appraising one's self-efficacy involves a weighing of one's ability and non-ability factors with regard to successes and failures. Factors which affect changes in the perceived efficacy which one possesses include "...the difficulty of the task, the amount of effort one expends, the amount of external aid one receives, the circumstances under which one performs, and the temporal pattern of one's successes and failures" (Bandura, 1986: 401).

Tasks, which are easily accomplished, do not enhance one's self-efficacy. The mastery of tasks which are considered challenging to a teacher, enhances his efficacy appraisal by introducing him to new efficacy information. Furthermore, tasks which are accomplished with the use of outside assistance are considered to be of lesser efficacious value than when no assistance is used.

The expenditure of effort can have an effect on personal efficacy judgements. Challenging tasks, which are accomplished through the expenditure of little effort, indicate a high ability level, and as such, raise the level of perceived efficacy judgements. On the other hand, tasks which are accomplished through hard labour, are less likely to raise the level of perceived efficacy judgements because they denote a lesser ability. Low self-efficacy is also inferred when simple tasks are completed under favourable conditions.

(2) Modeling

A teacher's own beliefs about self-efficacy can be influenced by drawing a comparison with others. By watching an expert complete a

particular task, gives confidence to a teacher, thereby enhancing his level of self-efficacy. By watching others successfully completing tasks, raises one's own beliefs about self-efficacy. "Individuals convince themselves that if others can do it, they can at least achieve some improvement in their performance" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996: 114). Conversely, by observing others fail, although they may be perceived to be competent, can undermine one's own judgement about one's capabilities.

When it comes to modeling, there are several factors which have an influence on one's self-efficacy. One such factor is being uncertain of one's capabilities. According to Bandura (1986: 399) "...perceived self-efficacy can be readily changed by relevant modeling influences when people have had little prior experience on which to base evaluations of their personal competence". Modeling influences, which are seen as effective, can play a role in boosting the self-efficacy of teachers. Another factor which influences one's self-efficacy concerns the criteria by which ability is evaluated. Activities that produce clear external information about the level of performance provide a factual basis for judging one's capabilities. Furthermore, although modeling experiences are weaker than direct experiences, they can produce significant changes on one's self-efficacy if one performs well.

When considering the capabilities of others, it is best to consider those people whose ability level is slightly higher than one's own capabilities. Considering ability levels which are grossly superior or much lesser than one's own ability levels does not provide information of a comparative nature. Generally speaking, "...modelled successes

by similar others raise, and model failures lower, self-appraisals of efficacy" (Bandura, 1986: 402).

Personal sense of efficacy can be greatly increased by observing different people master difficult tasks, rather than watching the same person perform different tasks. The reason for this is that the observer is exposed to a variety of mastery techniques. When a teacher uses social comparisons to judge his personal efficacy, he could consider the past performances of the model which were successful. In any event, models whose personal characteristics are assumed to predict performance capabilities, are chosen to appraise one's self-efficacy. Social comparisons are used not only to appraise ability levels, but also to improve the standard of one's ability. However, teachers should be guarded against making unrealistic comparisons with greatly superior performers. Such comparisons could lead to disappointment and feelings of insecurity (Bandura, 1986: 404-405).

(3) Verbal persuasion

Verbal persuasion is used when talking to people and trying to make them believe that they have the necessary ability to successfully complete a task. A teacher's self-efficacy is increased if he is made to believe that he has the capacity to achieve what he wants to accomplish. Verbal persuasion may be limited in its power, depending on the influence of the persuader. Persuasion has the ability to convince a self-doubting person of his inert capabilities. Persuasory efficacy contributions have the greatest impact on people who have some reason to believe that they can produce effects through their actions. However, the persuader needs to be cautious against

attempting to raise unrealistic beliefs of personal competence in an individual.

In evaluating certain ability levels, teachers may have limited knowledge and thus have to rely on the opinions of others. The opinions of others need to be carefully screened before selection takes place, to check for validity, reliability and competence. "Mixed experiences with persuasory efficacy appraisals are common because they are used for flattery, encouragement or manipulative reasons, as well as for realistic assessments of how well recipients can manage prospective situations" (Bandura, 1986: 406). For this reason, it is important for persuaders to possess the necessary knowledge and credibility so that their impact on the self-efficacy of others is not skewed. In any event, teachers can only be persuaded by others, if they have confidence in the opinion of the others.

(4) Physiological arousal

The physiological state of a teacher can have an effect on his ability level. Factors such as general health, mood and personality of the teacher, can have a debilitating effect on his performance. It stands to reason that the general well-being of a teacher must be enhanced to avoid aversive arousal of self-efficacy. Fear reactions can arouse further fear. Teachers who are fearful of their ineptitude, can arouse in themselves, feelings of distress, which have an impact on their performance.

Information which is elicited through physiological arousal affects the cognitive process through the formation of judgements. The meanings

given to physiologically aroused factors will determine the arousal of the perceived self-efficacy. Physiological arousal affects people differently. High achievers view arousal as a facilitator whereas low achievers regard it as a debilitator (Bandura, 1986: 407). The state of the mind can also affect perceived self-efficacy judgements through physiological arousal. If the arousal is in tune with the mood that one is in, it would have a positive outcome. The more intense the mood, the stronger will be the effect on the individual.

2.4.11 Related views of self-efficacy

For some time, human behaviourists have shown a keen interest in the function of self-referent thought in psychosocial functioning. However, the origins and nature of self-percepts, and the processes by which they affect behaviour are viewed differently by the theorists. The related views of personal efficacy are discussed below.

(1) Self-concept

Self-concept refers to the opinion that individuals have of themselves. "The self-concept is a composite view of oneself that is formed through direct experience and evaluations adopted from significant others" (Bandura, 1986: 409). An examination of the self-concept helps to understand how teachers develop attitudes towards themselves. These self-attitudes could affect their perceptions towards life. Teachers who have a positive self-concept make use of problem-oriented coping strategies (Niehaus, Myburgh & Kok, 1996: 104).

(2) Self-esteem

As a part of self-referent thought, self-esteem is quite different from perceived self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1986: 410) self-esteem refers to the evaluation of self-worth, which depends on how the culture values the attributes one possesses, and how well one's behaviour matches personal standards of worthiness. Perceived self-efficacy is concerned with how teachers judge their personal capabilities. Teachers could derive little or no pride from an activity in which they are highly efficacious. On the other hand, being inefficacious at a certain activity, may not lower their self-esteem. Both self-esteem and self-efficacy contribute to the quality of life in their own way.

(3) Effectance motivation

"An effectance motive is conceptualised as an intrinsic drive for transactions with the environment" (Bandura, 1986: 410). It is presumed that effectance motivation develops from the knowledge and skills that are derived from interacting with the environment.

Effectance motives develop gradually after a long period of time through interactions with the environment. Self-efficacy judgements enable teachers to carry out tasks which are within their self-perceived capabilities. Judgements of capabilities are made in advance. Effectance theory focuses on the results of one's own actions. Perceived self-efficacy draws vicariously from various sources of information. In effectance theory, interactions with the environment arouse pleasurable feelings. Perceived self-efficacy is not necessarily

enhanced by the performance outcome. It is presumed that the effectance motive is aroused at a point when the teacher is not occupied in any activity. This is not so with self-efficacy.

(4) Outcome-expectancy theory

"According to expectancy-valence theories, performance level is a multiplicative function of the expectancy that behaving in a particular way will lead to a given outcome and the value of that outcome" (Bandura, 1986: 412). It is through life experiences that individuals "...develop a generalised expectancy about action-outcome contingencies, as well as a more specific belief in their own coping abilities, or self efficacy" (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 174). A teacher's behaviour is determined by his belief that behaviour will lead to desirable outcomes, as well as by his belief that he has the requisite skills to bring about the outcome.

By engaging in a great deal of self-reflective thought, a teacher's effort could either be enhanced or reduced by beliefs about his capabilities. Self-referent thought provides a teacher with the expectation of an outcome by regulating his behaviour. Teachers who believe that they cannot perform a particular activity, will not initiate the activity, or if they do, they will not persist at it (Gibson & Dembo, 1984: 570). Generally, teachers become more active if they believe that their behaviour determines their outcomes.

2.5 INFLUENCES ON TEACHERS' SENSE OF EFFICACY

Self-efficacy is a situation-specific determinant of behaviour. This means that self-efficacy must be studied by analysing the contextual factors that affect teachers' sense of efficacy. Ashton and Webb (1986: 9) identify some of the following contextual factors that have an influence on teachers' sense of efficacy:

- Teachers' subjective perceptions.
- Indirect influence.
- Reciprocal influence.
- Influence of the environment.
- Classroom behaviour.
- Opportunities for participation.

2.5.1 Teachers' subjective perceptions

The study of teachers' sense of efficacy requires an exploration of the subjective perceptions of teachers. The perceptions which teachers have of themselves are largely determined by their beliefs. Beliefs are the products of teachers' personal discovery of meaning (Niehaus, Myburgh & Kok, 1996: 104). The beliefs which teachers have, determine their goals, the things they do, and their judgements.

Traditional research on teacher effectiveness may differ considerably from the subjective perceptions that teachers have of their work. The reason for this is that researchers have studied the relationship between the behaviour of teachers and the outcomes of such behaviour without considering the reasons for such behaviour. Ashton and Webb, (1986: 9) caution that a serious problem with this approach is that teachers are evaluated in terms of criteria of effectiveness that may not correspond to their own criteria. Researchers generally assess the effectiveness of teachers by examining their students' test scores, whereas teachers may not necessarily agree with this view. Another problem that exists between the perception of teachers and the view of researchers is the meaning that is attached to behaviour. Specific behaviour can convey different meaning to different people. A further problem associated with the differing perceptions between researchers and teachers is that teachers behave as they do because they believe that their behaviour is appropriate. To make the teachers change their beliefs, appropriate evidence has to be presented to them, convincing them of a different point of view. However, before any attempt is made to change the ineffective behaviours of teachers, their motivation for such behaviour must firstly be examined.

2.5.2 Indirect influence

Teachers' sense of efficacy is affected by direct and indirect influences. Direct influences include the students in the classroom, and the principal. Indirect influences include the students' families, the school organisation, the community, and the school culture (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 13). The indirect effects of the home, community, and culture play an important role in school life. These affect both the

teacher and students in various subtle and complex ways. Fuller, Wood, Rapoport and Dornbusch (1982: 11) state that when the interests of two organisational actors differ, it could lead to organisational instability. For example, if parents try to make changes to the way a teacher works, this could result in a conflict situation, and pose a threat to the teacher's performance efficacy.

2.5.3 Reciprocal influence

Teachers' sense of efficacy is reciprocally determined because "...it affects teachers' behaviour and is, in turn, influenced by the teachers' perceptions of the consequences of that behaviour" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 13). Teachers' sense of efficacy is likely to affect student achievement, and, in turn, student achievement is likely to influence teachers' sense of efficacy (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 177). Teachers with a high sense of efficacy have high expectations of student achievement and work harder with their students. As a result, their students perform better, and this affects the teachers' sense of efficacy positively. Teachers' perceived efficacy influences student achievement and, in turn, student performance has an influence on teachers' sense of efficacy.

2.5.4 Influence of the environment

Research has indicated that the environment in which the teacher works has an influence on his sense of efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 11). As rational professionals, teachers have to constantly make judgements and carry out decisions in uncertain complex environments (Rigby & Bennett, 1996: 52).

The classroom context plays an important role in teachers' perceptions of their effectiveness. There are various environmental features which affect the behaviour of teachers, such as, class size, personality of students, school curriculum and the activity structure of the lessons. These features are discussed in more detail in section 2.6.

2.5.5 Classroom behaviour

Research on teacher effectiveness indicates that the amount of time spent on direct instruction is related to enhanced student accomplishments (Gibson & Dembo, 1984: 570). Teachers with low teaching efficacy spend more time in small group instruction while high-efficacy teachers spend more time in whole-group instruction. Low-efficacy teachers are more likely than high-efficacy teachers to give the answer rather than to allow students an opportunity to respond (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 176).

2.5.6 Opportunities for participation

Schools should create opportunities for teachers to participate in the different structures that are present. Participation in such structures enhances efficacy in teachers. Beckman and Blom (2000; 2) provide the following reasons for teacher participation:

- It shows tolerance and respect for others.

- It fulfils the teacher's need for self-actualisation through recognition and participation in decision-making.

- It is linked to fair outcomes.

2.6 TEACHING ENVIRONMENT

Imants, Van Putten and Leijh (1994: 12) are of the opinion that a sense of teaching efficacy depends more on the school context than on a sense of personal efficacy. They believe that there are many factors in the educational environment which affect teachers' sense of efficacy. Ashton and Webb (1986: 13) identify the following structures that are prevalent in the educational environment:

- The microsystem.
- The mesosystem.
- The exosystem.
- The macrosystem.

2.6.1 The microsystem

The classroom is referred to as the microsystem. The teacher spends most of his time in the classroom, which has a number of variables which will influence his sense of efficacy. Among these variables are "...enthusiasm by teachers and students, characteristics of the organisation, variation in materials and activities, business-like approach when dealing with students, and high levels of instructional clarity" (Allinder, 1994: 87). These variables have a direct impact on teachers' sense of efficacy, and consequently, on student learning.

(1) Teacher characteristics

Teachers' characteristics comprise their expertise, gender, personality and ideology. The knowledge and expertise which teachers possess have a direct bearing on their sense of personal teaching efficacy. Possessing relevant knowledge and expertise is most likely to enhance teachers' sense of personal teaching efficacy. Conversely, those who do not possess the knowledge or skills to deal with the situations they face, develop feelings of inadequacy (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 178). For a teacher to maintain education of a good quality, his work must be meaningful to him. This can only be achieved through his intense involvement in his work.

The gender of the teacher may exert an influence on teachers' sense of efficacy. Early research has shown that women were less confident than men about their ability to perform tasks that they were asked to complete, thereby suggesting that "...female teachers are more likely than male teachers to succumb to a low sense of teacher efficacy" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 15). However, this is in direct contradiction with the ideology of women empowerment. If given equal opportunities, women will perform as well as their male counterparts in most areas.

The personality of the teacher is an important consideration because it can direct his behaviour in the classroom. Teachers need to display a certain amount of patience and empathy when dealing with students. The personality of a teacher influences his conduct and performance as a teacher. At the core of his personality is his self-concept. Therefore,

the self-concept of the teacher will inevitably have an influence on his professional performance.

A teacher needs to portray a high self-esteem in order to make a positive impact on his charges. Students must see their teacher as being somebody who they can look up to with respect and dignity. He must be an entity in the eyes of his charges. Students are generally concerned with the person of the teacher and not with his academic qualifications. They expect him to be sufficiently qualified by virtue of the position which he holds and as such, they take for granted that he is adequately qualified to educate them. A teacher needs to believe in himself as being adequate, that is, he must see himself as having self-actualised. This means that one of the personal attributes of a successful teacher is that he must have a positive self-concept (Vrey, 1990: 202).

The responsibility for creating conducive learning environments rests to a large extent with the teacher. Teachers who are self-efficacious, use their talent to attempt to enhance the development of cognitive skills in students. Such teachers attempt to promote learning even in students who are difficult to work with. Research has shown that teachers "...who are highly assured of their instructional efficacy, devote more classroom time directly to academic learning, stick with students when they fail to help them succeed, and then praise them for their accomplishments" (Bandura, 1986: 431).

(2) Student characteristics

Certain student characteristics have an effect on their performance, as well as on teacher expectations and sense of efficacy. Student characteristics include student ability, classroom conduct, gender, race, appearance and socioeconomic class. For example, teachers tend to attribute the failure of girls to a lack of ability and the failure of boys to a lack of motivation. The ability and performance of the students have a powerful influence on the behaviour of the teachers. If the teachers' expectation of their students' ability to learn is low, this will cause the teachers to have a low sense of efficacy. This will in turn contribute to the teachers putting in less effort in teaching such students.

Over the years, many students have developed a negative attitude towards school, mainly due to the social and political factors in the community (Mashile & Mellet, 1996: 223). Student conduct has an effect on teachers' behaviour and sense of efficacy. Teachers generally try to ignore students who are uncooperative, to avoid problems. In so doing, teachers give up their role as adult facilitators because they are not sure of their ability to control such students (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 14). When dealing with uncooperative students, teachers experience a low sense of efficacy. As a result, teachers would prefer to spend the time controlling the behaviour of such students rather than to teach them to learn. Teachers become negative towards students who display hostile and disruptive behaviour. When teachers feel that they can no longer control the behaviour of such students, they reach a state of powerlessness.

(3) Role definitions

According to Vrey (1990: 11) the role of the teacher is to inculcate certain norms and values in the student and to prepare him to become a responsible adult. Research has shown that the role behaviour of teachers' is related to their sense of efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 16). Allinder (1994: 92) concurs that teachers' sense of efficacy is "...related to how teachers perceive their roles". The role definition of the teacher has an influence on student achievement (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 174). Teachers who are successful in the classroom, believe that their fundamental role is to instruct students in the curriculum.

Teachers can assume one of various roles, depending on their competence and self-esteem. Increasingly, teachers have to be social workers, doctors, nurses, priests, mothers, and fathers. Teachers who assume an incorporative role, will focus primarily on the imparting of knowledge to their students. Those who assume a developmental role, will attempt to stimulate the interest of their students. Teachers who are authoritative, force their students to work by using strict disciplinary measures and threats. Teachers who assume a *laissez-faire* approach may not be very successful in getting their students to learn because a certain amount of discipline is necessary in the classroom.

(4) Class size

Class size is always a thorny issue when it concerns teacher effectiveness and student learning. Every student is unique and it is difficult for a teacher to control a large number of students. A smaller

class size is didactically sound because it allows for individual attention and greater achievement. Teachers have a belief that with smaller class sizes, they can be much more effective. This belief influences their sense of efficacy. Unfortunately, the class sizes at most public schools are usually large and this makes it difficult for teachers to work effectively.

(5) Type of activity

The type of activity or task is most likely to have an effect on teachers' sense of efficacy. Some teachers may prefer smaller group work while others may prefer to impart instruction to a larger group. This depends on the teachers' perception of their effectiveness. Gibson and Dembo (1984: 569-580) examined the relationship between teacher efficacy and observable teacher behaviours. Their results indicate that low-efficacy teachers spend more time in small group instruction and high-efficacy teachers spent more time in large group instruction.

2.6.2 The mesosystem

The mesosystem is comprised of the interrelations among the teachers' major settings. There are many variables which contribute to school effectiveness and student achievement. These variables affect student achievement through the mediating influence of teachers' sense of efficacy. Ashton and Webb (1986: 18) identify the following mesosystem variables that have an influence on teachers' sense of efficacy: school size and demographic characteristics, principal-teacher relations, school-home relations, decision-making structures, collegial relations, and school norms.

(1) School size and demographic characteristics

Research has shown that in larger schools, there was an increase in teachers' impersonal treatment of students and in their resistance to innovations. Such an attitude has an impact on teachers' perceptions of their effectiveness. Thus, teachers are reluctant to consider new approaches.

In schools where a large number of students come from low socioeconomic status homes, teachers are likely to find it more difficult to teach such students. It is frustrating for the teacher to teach students who come to school ill prepared for the day. In many instances, students come to school without having completed the previous day's homework because of a lack of appropriate resources at home. In other instances, students come to school feeling tired because they either walk a long way to school, or they work after school to supplement the family income. School management may perceive the poor results of students as being due to a lack of motivation in the teachers. This results in a new set of rules and procedures being instituted by the school management. This new set of rules and procedures could cause teachers to become demoralised. In such instances, the teachers' sense of efficacy may be affected.

A further demographic characteristic which has an effect on teachers' sense of efficacy is their ability to control their students' behaviour. Teachers who have a doubt on their ability to control their students' behaviour may become authoritarian in their style.

(2) Principal-teacher relations

Research on school effectiveness indicates, "...an effective principal is a strong instructional leader" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 19). The nature and the quality of leadership provided by principals has a direct influence on perceived effectiveness of instruction (Seyfarth, 1996: 14-15). This is done by reinforcing social norms, raising the professional aspiration levels of teachers, and providing for teacher participation in important curriculum decisions.

Research also indicates that principals have a limited impact on teachers' instructional behaviour. The bureaucracy within which schools operate restricts principals from guiding their teachers' "...professional expectations and behaviours in preferred directions" (Imants, Van Putten & Leijh, 1994: 12). However, within the scope of these limitations, principals can play an active role in contributing to teachers' sense of efficacy. One of the roles which the principal can assume is to recognise teachers' worth and to support them. Kirby and Bogotch (1996: 8) assert that "...principals who use facilitative power as an alternative to authoritative power acquire and arrange material resources and information to allow teachers greater control over their work". Teachers who elicit the recognition and approval of their principal, experience a high level of job satisfaction. This enhances the teachers' sense of efficacy.

In terms of their goals, effective principals focus on the achievement of their students. They do this by improving the overall school programme, thereby setting high expectations for the teachers and students. Effective principals consult their teachers on decisions that

affect their work and foster cooperative working conditions among the teachers and the community. These dimensions of effective principals "...affect school effectiveness through the moderating influence of teachers' sense of efficacy" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 20).

(3) School-home relations

The South African Schools' Act No. 84 of 1996 (Government Gazette No. 17579, 1996) makes provision for parents to have a greater say in the education of their children. Schools are not just centres for the education of children, they are also centres for the "...hopes and aspirations of whole communities" (West, 1993: 15). It is therefore incumbent on teachers to maintain a healthy and interactive relationship with the parents of their students. Positive relationships between the school and the home are important for student achievement (Ashton and Webb, 1986: 20). Teachers need to be aware of the expectations of parents concerning the education of their children. It is frustrating for teachers when parents do not show sufficient interest in the progress of their children, especially parents of low-achieving students (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 181).

Students who come from homes where their parents have had very little schooling may be at a disadvantage because their parents usually use modeling as their predominant instructional mode at home and are less likely to use the problem-solving, information-processing interactional patterns which are used in school. This could disadvantage students in accomplishing school tasks (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 21).

(4) Decision-making structures

Teachers frequently possess good leadership qualities and would benefit their school if they share in the decision-making structures (Steyn, 1998: 131). Research on job satisfaction has consistently shown that workers' satisfaction is positively associated with the extent to which they participate in decision-making (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 20). Teachers feel satisfied with their jobs if they share in the decision-making processes. However, sharing in decision-making may not be without problems. Some decisions impose certain restrictions on teachers and if they are party to such decisions, they are compelled to abide by these decisions without much grounds for recourse. Sharing in decision-making may mean that teachers may have to forego some of their autonomy. In any event, appropriate participation in decision-making at school usually has a positive influence on teachers' sense of efficacy because it enhances their professional self-esteem.

(5) Collegial relations

The way in which a teacher interacts with others in his environment, is an important consideration. He should respect the views of others. His interactions should be dignified and respectable. The integrity of others must not be compromised should they be regarded as a threat (Vrey, 1990: 203).

Teachers, by nature, "...tend to have strong social needs" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 19). The non-fulfilment of these needs could cause teachers to feel alienated and dissatisfied with their profession. Schools in which opportunities exist for strong collegial relationships, have a

positive effect on the attitudes of teachers and ultimately on the performance of students. Strong collegial support may influence teachers' sense of efficacy positively so that they may be more effective in their teaching.

(6) School norms

In most schools, the attitudes which teachers have towards certain students, can become a school norm. For example, teachers at a particular school may jointly agree that certain students are ineducable. In such schools, even the new teachers are expected to accept this norm. This impacts on the teachers' behaviour in the classroom, and thus, has an influence on teachers' sense of efficacy.

2.6.3 The exosystem

The exosystem refers to the formal and informal social structures that influence the teachers' immediate setting. Teachers' sense of efficacy is frequently influenced by the social structures, both formal and informal, which are external to the school environment. These include: the nature of the school district, the home environment, the state and national legislative agencies, and the mass media (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 13).

(1) Nature of the school district

Some of the characteristics of the school district which may exert an influence on teachers' sense of efficacy are: the location of the community, size, socioeconomic and ethnic composition, the role of

the teacher organisations in the district, relationship between school management and teachers, and involvement of parents in decisions which affect the school. Research has shown that the school district does exert an influence on the attitudes of teachers and on the performance of students (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 22). School district decisions can also influence the level of stress in teachers. If a decision is in conflict with the belief of the teachers, this may cause serious tension amongst them. Such a situation is most likely to have an effect on teachers' sense of efficacy and on student achievement.

(2) Home environment

Factors such as home environment, family background and parental influence, which are external to the school, limit the teacher's ability to bring about change (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 174). According to Natriello (1986: 71) students who come from a low socio-economic background are more likely to drop out of school. The time that a student spends in the home environment is far greater than the time that he spends at school. Thus, the student's home environment has a large influence on his achievement.

There may be socio-economic and racial differences between teachers and parents. This may present a potential for teacher-parent conflict. If teachers are not in a position to deal with these cultural differences, they may feel less effective in their school setting. This could cause them to develop a low sense of efficacy in their dealings with students and parents whose background is different from their own. In order to avoid a threat to their self-esteem, teachers may avoid contact with the

home. Such faulty relationships with parents are a serious threat to teachers' sense of efficacy (Ashton and Webb, 1986: 22).

(3) Legislative and judicial mandates

Legislation has a distinct role to play in education, and makes it mandatory for teachers to behave in a particular way. Educational policies which are legally mandated may not necessarily find favour with teachers. For example, when a legally mandated policy contributes to a loss of teacher autonomy, or if it perpetuates a bureaucracy, it would most likely be regarded in a poor light by teachers. This could be seen as a threat to teachers' sense of efficacy.

(4) Mass media

The mass media can be regarded as a major contributor to the decline in the professional self-esteem in teachers. With the recent focus on education, the media has contributed heavily to a decline in the status of education and in teachers' morale (Sunday Times, 2000: 1).

2.6.4 The macrosystem

"The macrosystem consists of the predominant cultural beliefs and ideologies that have an impact on teacher thought and behaviour or on the various other systems impinging on teachers" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 14). Much of the cultural beliefs which we hold have an effect on teachers' sense of efficacy. One such belief is the conception which we have of the nature of the student and another is our conception of the role that education plays in society.

(1) Conceptions of the student

According to our cultural belief, intelligence is a stable trait which varies among individuals. As a result of this belief, we can attribute school success and failure to ability. Even the psychological conceptions which we have of ability portray ability as a stable trait. Such cultural beliefs and psychological theory help teachers when they have to teach low-achieving students by attributing the students' low-achievement to their lack of ability. "This attribution is then translated into a low expectation for the students' academic success and a low efficacy belief that affects the teachers' future interactions with their students and with their students' subsequent achievement behaviour" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 23).

Another cultural belief is that individuals are to be blamed for their own failure. Because of this cultural belief, teachers attribute the failure of students to the personal inadequacies of these students. In our culture, failure indicates incompetence on the part of the student or a weakness in his character. As a result of such cultural beliefs, teachers do not accept responsibility for their students' failure. By attributing failure to the students' lack of ability or motivation, the professional self-esteem of the teacher does not suffer. By blaming their students, teachers can maintain their sense of efficacy and avoid debilitating stress and self-doubt.

Teachers blame students for their failure because they believe that their students lack the necessary ability or motivation. Conversely, students perform poorly because of their refusal to try to improve for fear that it may reveal their inadequacies. If students fail after trying, it shows

their inability. If they do not try, they save themselves the embarrassment of accepting a low-concept of their ability. Students who believe that they have limited opportunities in the future, see no point in trying to improve at school. They believe that by trying, they may risk both academic failure and loss of social status among their peers.

(2) Conceptions of the role of education

Schools can be viewed as "...educational organisations whose purpose is to educate and socialise students" (Rochelle, 1982: 9). Children attend school to acquire knowledge and to learn problem-solving techniques. The role of the school, therefore, is to develop the cognitive competencies in children (Bandura, 1986: 416). The basic assumption underlying any educational system is that "...education offers success and advancement for all individuals with the ability and motivation to take advantage of the opportunities it provides" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 24). When individuals fail, it is assumed that they lack the ability or motivation. This means that the individual student has to accept responsibility for his failure, thus relieving teachers of their sense of inefficacy.

2.7 PREVAILING PROBLEMS

Teachers have a vital role to play in society. Teaching is plagued by various problems that are endemic to the profession. The various problems which teachers face could pose a serious threat to their professional self-esteem. Consequently, this could have a negative effect on their sense of efficacy and their commitment to teaching.

The following are some of the problems that teachers experience:

2.7.1 Uncertainty

The greatest uncertainty facing teachers today is job security. Teachers' roles are not clearly defined, and the variables that exist, are growing more complex from one day to the next (Niehaus, Myburgh & Kok, 1996: 104). Teachers have to be different things to different people, all at the same time. Since 1998, teachers have had to cope with rationalisation and redeployment. The introduction of a new curriculum means changing mind-sets, and requires the re-training of teachers.

Ashton and Webb (1986 :42) state that teachers face a high degree of uncertainty because they deal with human beings, who are a complex subject matter. For example, teachers have to make hundreds of decisions in a day, without realising whether or not they had made the correct decision. They receive very little feedback on whether or not their decisions had been wise and effective. For example, there are no assurances that the progress that students are making is the result of their teachers' teaching, or some other factor. There may be any number of factors which could contribute to their good progress.

Being human, teachers are constantly faced with having to make decisions on what type of action to take in particular situations. Some of these decisions require making personal efficacy judgements. Teachers usually do not attempt tasks which they feel are beyond their capability. They prefer to take on those tasks which they are capable of

handling. Positive self-percepts of efficacy enhance the growth of competencies in individuals.

Teachers come to work "...with high achievement aspirations" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 44). These aspirations are soon altered because the nature of their work prevents them from achieving their goals. As a compromise, teachers begin to adjust their attitudes with regard to student educability. This may result in a decline in teachers' sense of personal teaching efficacy. Research conducted by Buchner and Hay (1999: 320) revealed that beginner teachers experience such enormous changes in job expectations that at least 30% of them leave the profession after two years and up to 40% leave within five years.

It is important for teachers to appraise their own capabilities reasonably accurately to avoid being disappointed with the outcome of their actions. It is dangerous to grossly overestimate one's capabilities because the outcome is sure to fail. As a rule, it is recommended that judgements of efficacy exceed the requirements for the task at hand. This will motivate individuals to develop their capabilities in a progressive manner.

2.7.2 Teacher isolation

One might expect that the common problems that teachers face would promote unity and co-operation amongst them. However, this is generally not the case at schools. Teachers prefer to form small cliques in which they feel comfortable. It is often found that teachers are united against the management of the school, but they otherwise work in isolation and receive little recognition or assistance from colleagues.

In seeking performance efficacy, teachers prefer to remain isolated in their classrooms where they find their valued outcomes more rewarding (Fuller, Wood, Rapoport & Dornbusch, 1982: 9). Teachers are usually inhibited "...from seeking guidance from colleagues, since to ask for help would be to admit to a degree of incapacity" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 45). In most schools, teachers prefer to perform their work in isolation from their colleagues, and maintain a low sense of inter-dependence (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 180).

2.7.3 Teacher powerlessness

Powerlessness is a type of alienation which Ashton and Webb (1986: 48) describe as "...the perceived lack of freedom and control on the job". Although accountability restricts teacher autonomy, they still enjoy a certain amount of autonomy within the boundaries of their classroom. Outside the classroom, there are many issues on which teachers are powerless to decide.

Powerlessness also indicates a degree of loss of status. In every school, there would be a small group of teachers who enjoy power due to the knowledge or information which they possess. Such teachers are considered to be powerful by their colleagues who look up to them. Teachers who doubt their professional competence, social status and self-worth, display a tendency of powerlessness. Such feelings of powerlessness impact on teachers' sense of efficacy.

2.7.4 Teaching low-achieving students

Teachers often have to contend with students who display poor attitudes towards learning. Nothing is as de-motivating to a teacher than to face a group of students who are unwilling to learn.

Teaching low-achieving students can be very frustrating for teachers. It is difficult for teachers to maintain a sense of professional accomplishment, even under the best of circumstances. Low-achieving students are often disruptive and difficult to control. They seem to direct their energy which they do not use in their ability to learn, in other ways. They are easily susceptible to bouts of anger, and are reluctant to participate fully in class activities. "Reluctant learners are threatening to the self-esteem of the teachers as well as their competence" and pose a threat to teachers' sense of efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 66).

2.7.5 Low status

The status of the teaching profession has declined in recent years, thereby impacting negatively on the professional self-esteem of teachers. Teachers are faced with increasing pressure of accountability from principals, the department of education, and parents. Parents hold high expectations for teachers, but the working conditions of teachers make it difficult for them to fulfil the demands of parents. The media is usually uncompromising when it comes to highlighting the inadequacies of teachers (Sunday Times, 2000: 1).

2.7.6 Lack of recognition

The efforts and achievements of teachers are rarely appreciated and often go unrecognised by the public and school management. It is quite easy for the public or the media to criticise teachers, but compliments are not easy to come by. The demands made on teachers are limitless and never enough. "What is once offered is forever expected, and what is expected seldom merits the special attention and gratitude" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 39).

2.7.7 Low salaries and promotion opportunities

The salaries of teachers are lower than most other professionals with similar education and responsibilities. Very often, teachers possess higher academic qualifications than many people in other professions. The salary increases of teachers are not commensurate with the rate of inflation. In the teaching profession, chances of vertical mobility are slim because of the procedure which is used to promote teachers.

2.7.8 Extra-mural activities

Besides doing their normal work, teachers have to undertake extra-mural activities with no extra remuneration. These activities take place after school hours and on weekends. This places an additional burden on teachers.

2.7.9 Student indiscipline

According to Mabeba and Prinsloo (2000: 34-35) learner indiscipline refers to disruptive behaviour that has an effect on the fundamental rights of an individual to feel safe, to be treated with respect, and to learn. Teachers often have to deal with disruptive behaviour such as noise, verbal abuse, physical violence, disrespect, threat, theft vandalism, graffiti and boisterousness. Such kinds of disruptive behaviour make it extremely difficult for teachers to teach effectively.

2.8 TEACHING CLIMATE

The work environment of teachers plays a significant role in their feelings of effectiveness. Ashton and Webb (1986: 91) believe that teachers' sense of efficacy may contribute to the relationship between the school organisation and school achievement. The school organisation can either foster or destroy teachers' belief in their own effectiveness.

The following variables can contribute to teachers' sense of efficacy:

2.8.1 School climate and culture

Each school has its unique climate and culture which may have an effect on teachers' sense of efficacy in various ways.

(1) School climate

School climate is the culture, atmosphere or feel of a school. The internal characteristics of a school distinguish it from other schools, and have an influence on the behaviour of the people in it (Musaazi, 1982: 69). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993: 82) define school climate as "...the perceived subjective effects of the formal system, the informal style of managers and other important environmental factors as the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation" of the people who work at that school. School climate involves all the activities of the school, which include the physical layout, the work patterns, the form of communication and the attitudes, dedication and loyalty of the staff.

The climate of a school is unique in that it describes the psychological character of that particular school which distinguishes it from other schools. The school climate influences the efficacy of the teacher. Teachers in high-achieving schools spend a great deal of time on instruction and show more concern for their students' achievement (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 174).

The type of school climate affects the quality of education at schools. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993: 86) mention that the type of work relationships that exist at schools have an influence on the school's ability to improve. Factors such as trust, good communications, and support, increase the job satisfaction of teachers and improve their performance at school. Studies have shown that the climate at successful schools is one in which the teachers worked harder, had a positive attitude towards teaching and ensured that their students achieved the required outcomes.

There are different types of school climate. Halpin (1966: 166-181) describes the following types of school climate:

(a) Open climate

The open school climate is characterised by an integration of the goals of the organization with the needs of teachers and students. Teachers obtain immense job satisfaction. They are motivated to work things out and to keep the school moving. They are happy to be associated with the school. The principal shows compassion in satisfying the social needs of individual teachers. There is a good balance between task achievement and social needs satisfaction.

The distinctive feature of the open climate is its high degree of "...thrust and espirit and its low disengagement" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996: 142). This combination indicates a mutual cooperation between the principal, staff and students. A high staff morale is maintained. Teachers are happy to work together and show commitment to their work. This type of climate enhances teachers' sense of efficacy.

(b) Closed climate

In such a climate, there is much apathy on the part of both the principal and teachers. No one works towards either goal achievement or personal needs satisfaction. The principal is ineffective as a leader. He does not direct the activities of the teachers, nor is he prepared to take care of their personal needs. The morale of the staff is quite low. The school is not moving and the climate is repressive.

The closed climate is characterised by a low thrust and espirit and a high disengagement. There is a frequent change-over of staff. Members of staff appear to simply go through the motions expected of them without showing any enthusiasm. Job satisfaction is low. This type of climate is conducive to a low sense of teaching efficacy.

(c) Autonomous climate

In this climate, the teachers frequently take the lead. The principal has little influence over his staff. The emphasis is less on accomplishing organisational goals and more on satisfying social needs. Teachers have much freedom in finding ways to satisfy their social needs. They are free to develop their own programmes. Emphasis is more on satisfying social needs than on achieving tasks. This type of climate may contribute to a positive sense of teaching efficacy.

(d) Controlled climate

This climate tends to be impersonal, highly task-oriented, and highly controlled. Emphasis is placed more on the achievement of tasks rather than on satisfying social needs. The principal is highly authoritative and allows little flexibility within the organization. This climate lacks openness. The school is run for achievement alone. This type of climate may stifle teachers' sense of efficacy.

(e) Familiar climate

In the familiar climate, the satisfaction of social needs is extremely high, and there is little emphasis on the achievement of goals. The

principal is mainly concerned with helping the teachers to satisfy their personal needs rather than motivating them to achieve goals. He wants everyone to live as a nice happy family. He does not place emphasis on work production. A few rules and regulations are established to suggest to the teachers how things should be done. This type of climate may hinder a high sense of teaching efficacy.

(f) Paternalistic climate

This climate may be regarded as the most extreme form of closed structure. It is characterised by the principal attempting to initiate all leadership himself. He discourages teachers from carrying out acts of leadership. He also seeks to buy teachers' loyalty and commitment in return for favours. Teachers are split into factions. The principal takes care of everything and does not delegate tasks to the staff. The morale of the staff is quite low. Teachers get little satisfaction from either goal achievement or personal needs satisfaction. This type of climate is conducive to a low sense of teaching efficacy.

It must be noted that schools do not fall rigidly into either of the above types of climate (Musaazi, 1982: 71). In schools where there is strong collegiality among teachers, where teachers believe that students' performance can be improved, and where teachers possess the ability to communicate high performance expectations to their students, there is an improvement in the ethos of the school and in student achievement. "If aspects of the organisation sustain teachers' sense of efficacy, then teachers may be more motivated to teach and the students may be more motivated to learn" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 95).

(2) School culture

School culture can be defined as the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, rules, assumptions, beliefs, rituals, expectations, emotions, attitudes and norms that knit the school community together (Grobler & Steyl, 2000: 83; Owens, 1998: 167). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993: 92) define culture as "...a set of understandings or meanings shared by a group of people. Typically these meanings are tacitly held and serve to define the group as being distinct from other groups".

Every school has a unique culture, which is the product of a developmental process that takes place over a period of time. The school exhibits both a visible and an invisible dimension. The invisible dimension concerns the norms and values which a school subscribes to. Since the culture develops over a period of time, it is not easily changeable. Any attempt to change the existing culture could evoke feelings of antagonism, resistance and enmity from those involved. A change in the school culture "...may create instability and conflict" (Fuller, Wood, Rapoport & Dornbusch, 1982: 11). Because everything in the school is done in a particular way, it provides safety and security to its staff.

School culture could either be positive or negative. The positive aspect includes the dynamic power which it gives to the school and the stable and established practices and work methods whereby personal security is increased. The negative aspect can be found in the fact that the school culture can become sterile because certain practices, norms and assumptions become obsolete and outdated. Such school culture does not make an allowance for personal initiative and creativity.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993: 93) distinguish four levels of culture: artifacts, perspectives, values and assumptions.

(a) Artifacts

The artifacts of culture are the most observable of the levels. They are manifested in what people say, how people behave and how things look.

(b) Perspectives

Perspectives refer to the shared rules and norms, how people define the situations they face and the extent of acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. School culture influences behaviour through the norms and standards that it enforces in the form of unwritten rules. These are the rules of behaviour which have been accepted by the members of staff as being legitimate.

(c) Values

Values provide the basis for people to evaluate the situations that they face, the worth of their actions, activities, their priorities, and the behaviour of people with whom they work.

(d) Assumptions

Assumptions are more abstract than the other levels because they are typically implicit. Assumptions are tacit, unconsciously taken for granted, rarely considered or talked about, and accepted as true and

non-negotiable. The cultural norms in a school arise directly from the underlying assumptions which people have of the school.

2.8.2 Job satisfaction

According to Ashton and Webb (1986: 95) there is a reciprocal relationship between teachers' general satisfaction with teaching and their sense of efficacy. Teachers who feel incompetent will most likely be dissatisfied with their jobs as teachers. Conversely, if teachers are dissatisfied with their work, they may begin to question their professional competence. Efficacy appears to be related to "...job commitment and satisfaction, performance on work tasks, and low employee turnover" (Fuller, Wood, Rapoport & Dornbusch, 1982: 12). The uncertainty which is endemic to teaching must be considered in the light of job satisfaction and teachers' sense of efficacy.

Job satisfaction has been conceptualised as "...a consequence of the interaction between the worker and his work environment" (Rohman, 1985: 19). Researchers have been studying job satisfaction for many years. They view job satisfaction as a multi-dimensional concept which encompasses a person's general attitude towards work, or towards specific facets of the work. This attitude results from the person's cognitive, affective and evaluative perceptions of his work and entails pleasurable or unpleasurable feelings that the person has towards the work (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 37-38). Hoy and Miskel (1996: 252) define job satisfaction as "...an emotional reaction to a job that results from the employees comparing actual outcomes to desired, expected or deserved outcomes". Job satisfaction is the feeling of pleasure resulting from an individual's perception of his work.

Recent research results support the view that the performance of a teacher can lead to his job satisfaction (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 37-38). Even the early proponents of the human relations approach were convinced that there was a direct relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. Job satisfaction has been known to affect teachers' productivity, absenteeism, longevity, mental health and other factors (Rochelle, 1982: 12). Researchers believe that a happy teacher is a productive worker. When a teacher finds that his work fulfils the values which are important to him, he feels satisfied. Job satisfaction includes an individual's values and perceptions. Values refer to the desire which one has to obtain something. Different people regard different values as being important to them. Job satisfaction is the result of a combination of physiological, psychological and environmental factors.

It is not easy to measure the extent of job satisfaction because feelings and attitudes are both abstract concepts. However, the level of pleasure which a teacher experiences in his job indicates whether or not he feels satisfied. Psychologists have concluded that the levels of satisfaction depend on the needs of humans (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 37). Included in these needs are incentives, which play an important role in job satisfaction.

In any organization, the type of leadership, decision-making, and communication processes will have an effect on job satisfaction. Teachers prefer a participative climate at school. Cooper and Payne (1988: 327) stress that "...increased worker participation leads to higher job satisfaction, motivation and productivity". Therefore, greater participation in decision-making at school enhances job

satisfaction for teachers. Good communication processes also contribute to enhanced job satisfaction. Clear communication channels are invaluable in keeping the employees timeously informed of important issues. Teachers, generally, need to be kept informed of the latest developments in education as well as in professional matters.

Teachers' collective sense of efficacy may be increased if the school organisation encourages collegial interaction among teachers (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 96). Teachers who have the necessary confidence to do a job properly, will generally gain a high level of satisfaction from the job they are doing. A motivated worker is most likely to be satisfied with his job. Evidence also indicates that rewards bring about greater satisfaction in teachers than performance successes.

Researchers have proposed various theories of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

(1) Theories of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction

(a) Hoy and Miskel models

Hoy and Miskel (1996: 253) present two models which have a bearing on job satisfaction for teachers: the discrepancy model and the situational model.

(i) The discrepancy model

This model posits that job satisfaction results from a discrepancy between the motivation of the teacher and the incentives offered by

the school. This means that the perceived difference between what is regarded as a fair return by the teacher and what is actually experienced in the work situation, is related to the level of job satisfaction. This relationship is presented pictorially in Figure 2.6.

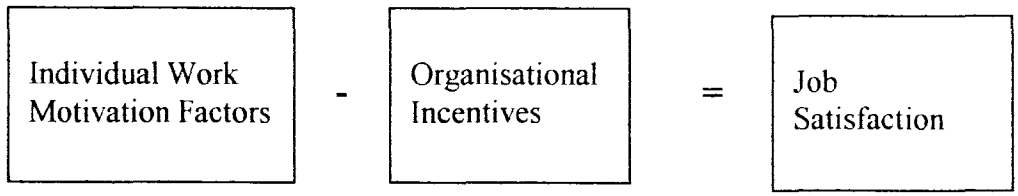

Figure 2.6: Discrepancy model of job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1996: 253)

(ii) The situational model

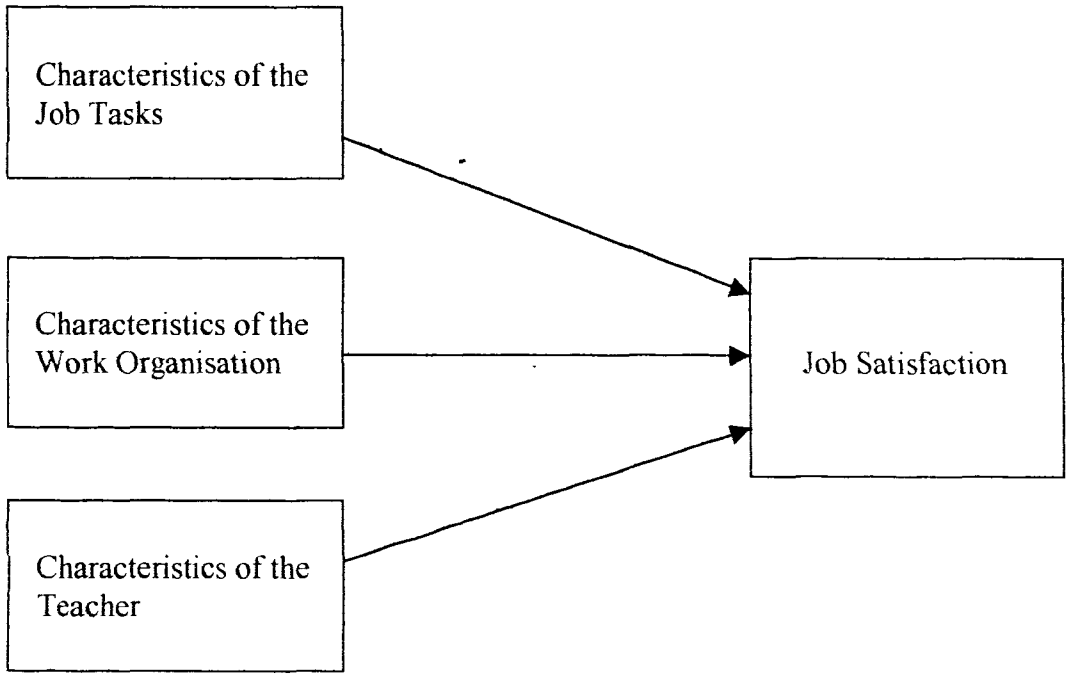

Figure 2.7: Situational model of job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 1996: 253)

This model is presented pictorially in Figure 2.7 and refers to the relationships which are formed between job tasks, work organisation and personal characteristics of the teacher. Characteristics of job

tasks may include remuneration packages, autonomy, routine work patterns, and other benefits. Characteristics of the work organisation may include work climate and culture, professionalism, centralisation, and supervision. Characteristics of the teachers may include age, gender, educational qualifications and personality traits.

(b) Steyn and Van Wyk model

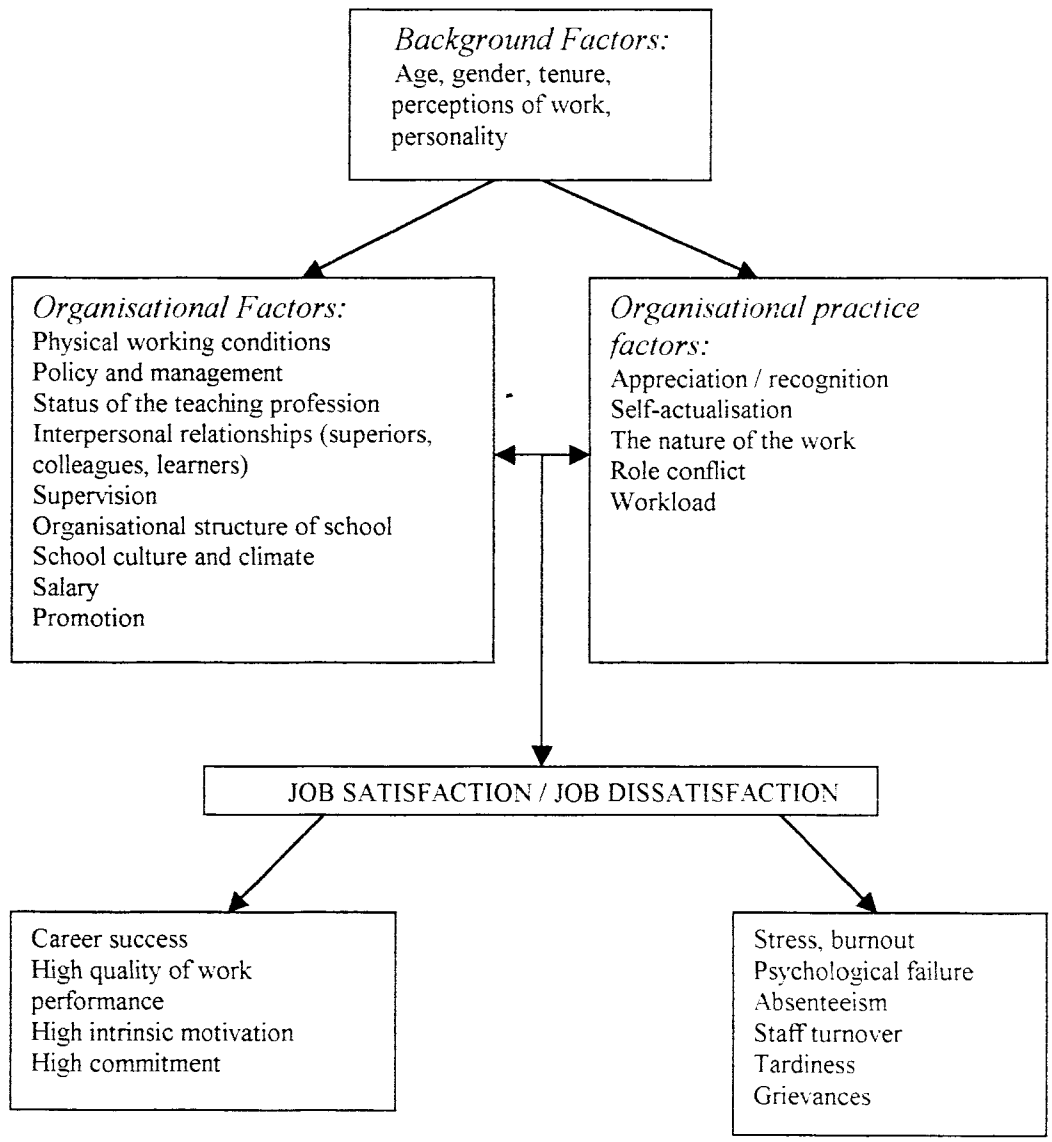

Figure 2.8: Determinants of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 38)

Steyn and Van Wyk (1999: 38), categorise the factors which influence the job satisfaction of teachers into background factors, organisational factors, and organisational practice factors. Background factors refer to the personal factors of the teacher, such as age and length of service, which are found within his work situation. Organisational factors are those factors, which involve the job performance and role of the teacher, for example, his work conditions. The organisational practice factors are those factors which relate to the job performance of the teacher, and arise from his professional activities, such as his teaching workload. All of these factors, as depicted diagrammatically in figure 2.8, can either cause a teacher to be satisfied or dissatisfied with his job.

(c) Two-factor theory of motivation

The proponent of the two-factor theory of motivation is Frederick Herzberg. Herzberg researched the factors at work with which people were satisfied and dissatisfied. The results of his research have indicated that there is one group of factors that is associated with motivation and satisfaction at work, and another similar group of factors that is associated with dissatisfaction and apathy (Owens, 1991: 114).

Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation posits that because motivation is not a single dimension, it comprises two separate and independent factors (Owens, 1991: 114-116). They are:

- Motivational factors (motivators) – can lead to job satisfaction.

- Maintenance factors (hygienes) – determine whether or not motivational factors should come into play. If there are sufficient maintenance factors present, motivational factors can come into play. If there are insufficient maintenance factors present, motivation can be blocked. This can lead to job dissatisfaction.

Traditionally, the opposite of job satisfaction was believed to be job dissatisfaction (as depicted in figure 2.9). This meant that a teacher could make his job motivating and satisfying by getting rid of the sources of dissatisfaction from his work. Herzberg disagrees with this view. He does not regard satisfaction and dissatisfaction as opposites. He believes that there are different aspects of a teacher's attitude to work.

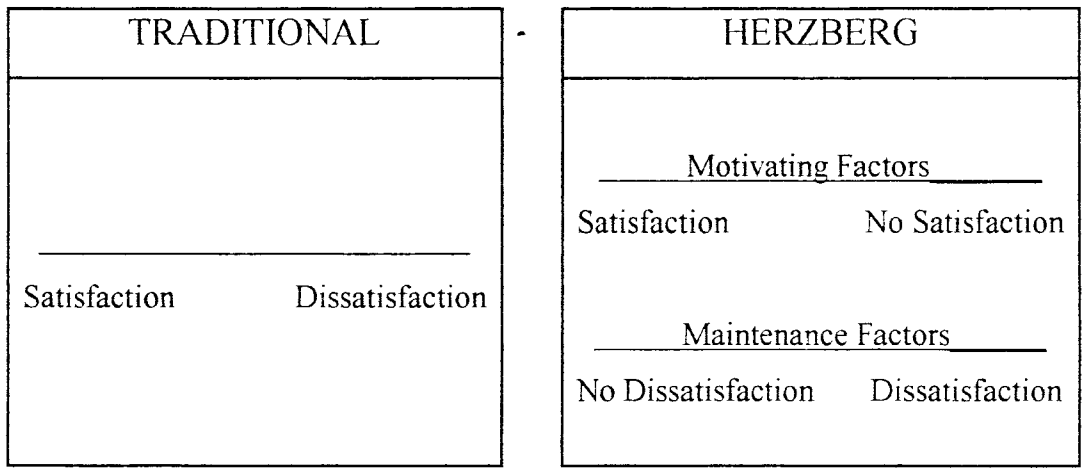

Figure 2.9: Traditional versus Herzberg's theory of job satisfaction (Owens, 1991: 114)

Herzberg posits that "...the presence of certain factors act to increase a teacher's job satisfaction, but absence of these factors does not necessarily produce job dissatisfaction" (Hoy & Miskel, 1996: 320). Herzberg believes that individuals start from a neutral zone, and as such, do not look at a job with a positive or negative attitude. When

motivational factors are gratified, they increase job satisfaction beyond the neutral point. On the other hand, when maintenance factors are not gratified, they produce attitudes of job dissatisfaction (Figure 2.10).

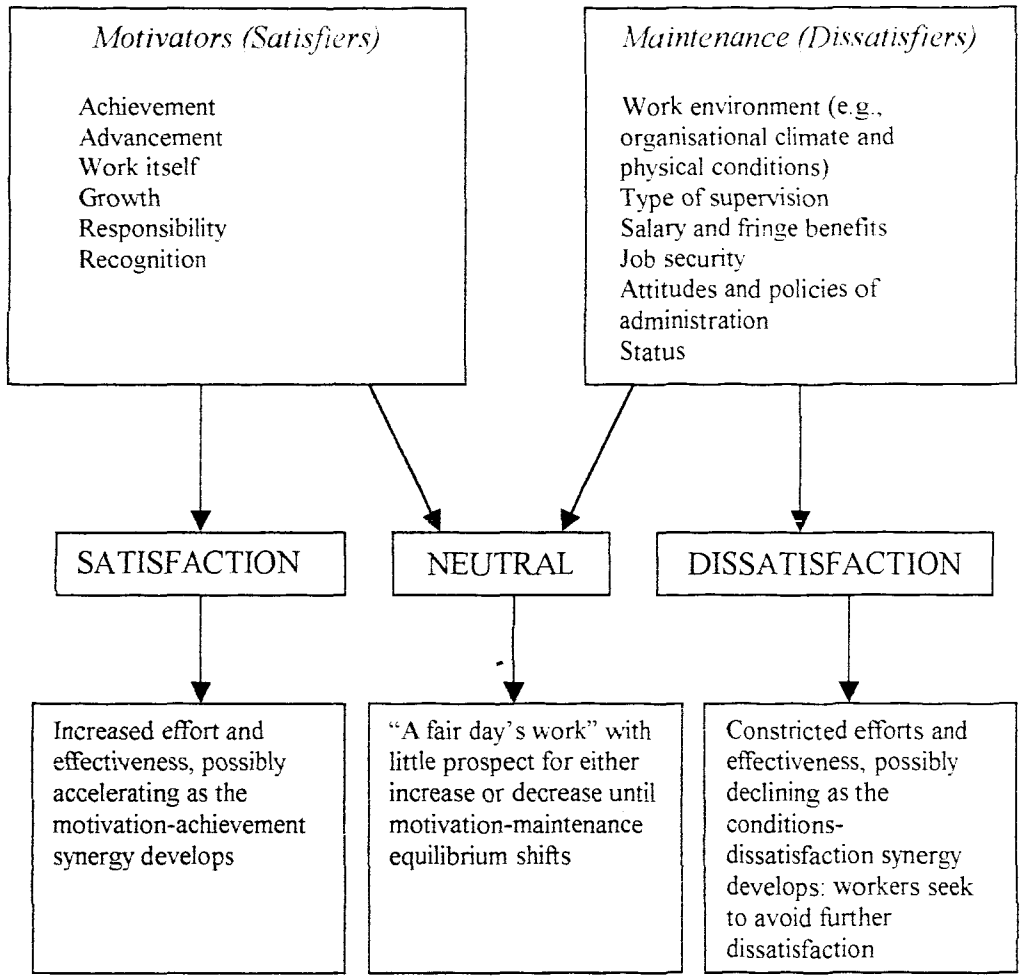

Figure 2.10: Model of Herzberg's motivator-maintenance theory (Owens, 1998: 149)

Leask and Terrell (1997: 115) identify Herzberg's motivators as:

- Achievement
  - to attain the goals set for quality of learning
  - to use one's full range of talents and to achieve more
  - to try to test new ideas

- Responsibility
  - to make one's own decision
  - to control the quality of one's own work

- Recognition
  - to receive positive feedback from students, teachers and managers
  - to identify and share problems and concerns

- Advancement
  - to be promoted in terms of status and position

- Work content
  - involvement in work that is interesting and personally challenging

- Personal growth
  - learning and maturing

In addition, they identify the following as maintenance or hygiene factors:

- Organisational policies and administration.

- Management.

- Working conditions.

- Interpersonal relationships.

- Money, status and security.

(d) Expectancy theory

The proponent of this theory is Vroom. Expectancy theory is based on the belief that teachers are motivated by incentives, which have some value to them (Seyfarth, 1996: 93). Vroom concluded that the most significant factors contributing to job satisfaction include "...high pay, substantial promotional opportunities, considerate and participative supervision, an opportunity to interact with one's peers, varied duties, and a high degree of control over work methods and work pace" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 95). Vroom's model of expectancy motivation comprises 3 concepts: valence, instrumentality and expectancy.

(i) Valence

Valence refers to the feelings that a person has, which are brought about by work outcomes (Seyfarth, 1996: 93). Feelings could either be positive or negative. For example, teachers experience positive valence when their students perform well. Conversely, they experience negative valence when they are faced with the possibility of performing tasks, which they dislike.

(ii) Instrumentality

Instrumentality refers to "...the perceived connection between a work outcome and some object or event that has a positive valence

for an employee" (Seyfarth, 1996: 93). This means that, for an employee to be motivated, he must be confident that his work effort will lead to a desirable result. To a teacher, instrumentality means that he must be confident that his work is related to an incentive for which he has some value. Such an incentive could be the principal's approval for a task well done.

(iii) Expectancy

According to Painter (2000: 371) expectancy theory posits that "...individuals are motivated to engage in a particular behaviour when they value the outcome of the task, and they believe that, performing the task, will produce the desired result". The task is valued when the goals are personally challenging (Rigby & Bennett, 1996: 52). Expectancy refers to "...the employee's perception of the probability of successfully achieving a work outcome" (Seyfarth, 1996:93). A teacher may be motivated to undertake a task if he perceives that he may achieve a successful end result. The teacher is motivated by unambiguous and predictable tasks (Fuller, Wood, Rapoport & Dornbusch, 1982: 12). For example, a teacher who is asked to serve on the school governing body, may decline this offer if he believes that he will not be available to attend meetings of the school governing body, thus doing an injustice to the position. This means that the teacher has a low expectancy of performing the task satisfactorily.

Expectancy theory is illustrated in the flow chart in Figure 2.11. This flow chart indicates how a task can either cause a teacher to be motivated or unmotivated. When considering the work outcome, the

teacher has to first ascertain whether or not he can achieve the outcome (expectancy). At this stage, he would consider other factors such as whether or not he has the time to perform the task. If the answer is negative, he will not be motivated to perform this particular task. If the answer is in the affirmative, he moves to the next decision block (valence). Here, he considers whether the incentive is something which he values. If the answer is negative he will not be motivated. If the answer is in the affirmative, he will be motivated to perform the task.

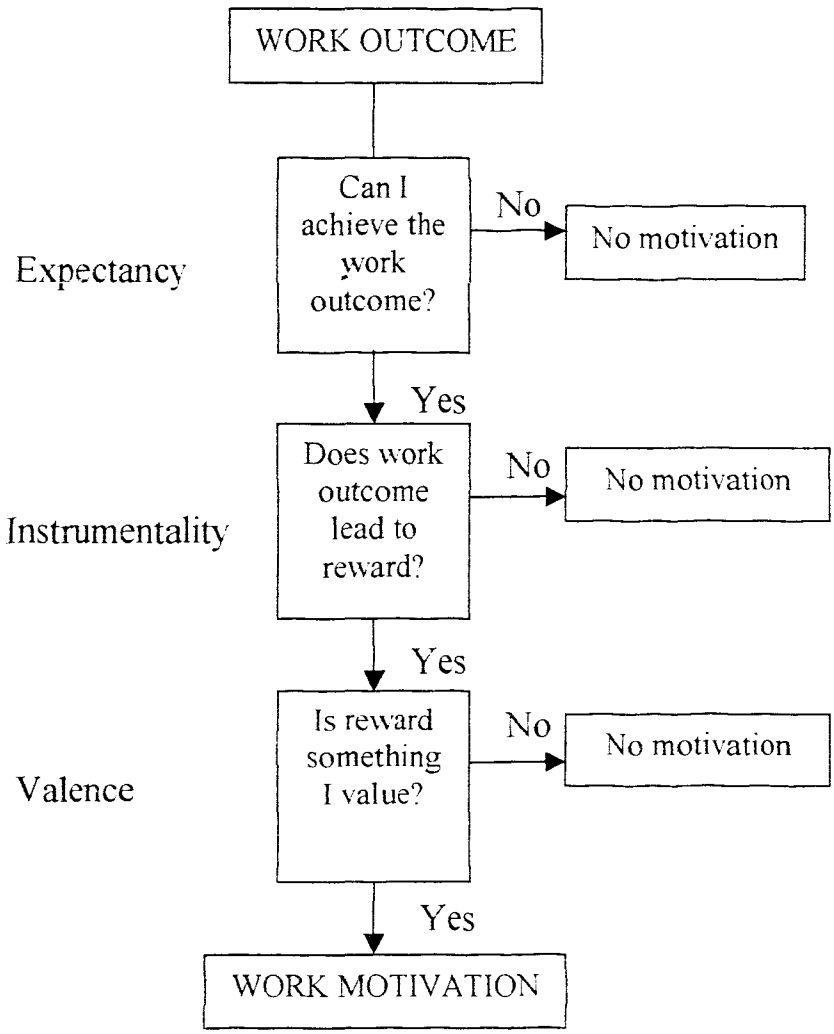

Figure 2.11: Flowchart illustrating expectancy theory (Seyfarth, 1996: 94)

(2) Sources of job dissatisfaction

There are various sources of job dissatisfaction which teachers face on a daily basis. Steyn and Van Wyk (1999: 41-42) and Seyfarth (1996: 102-103) identify the following sources of job dissatisfaction amongst teachers:

- Lack of opportunities to participate in decision-making.

- Poor dissemination of information due to the lack of proper communication channels. Teachers need to be constantly informed about the latest trends in education because of the rapid changes in education.

- Boredom. Teachers often suffer from work fatigue or burnout because of the repetitive nature of their work. The nature of some subjects results in the teacher getting bored in the early stages of his teaching career.

- Interruptions and distractions. One of the common complaints of teachers is that they are constantly disturbed by visitors and uncontrolled intercom messages. These interruptions distract the teacher from his teaching.

- Lack of educational resources. Nothing can be more frustrating to the motivated teacher than not having the necessary resources to teach his lesson. The present cutbacks in education have left many schools without the much needed resources.

- Lacking the relevant qualifications. In many schools, teachers are asked to teach subjects for which they are not qualified. An unqualified teacher will not be competent in the classroom. This is a source of frustration for the teacher as well as for the students. Such a teacher may feel incompetent in his work.

- Non-responsive students. Another major source of frustration for the teacher is to have students who are non-responsive in his class. Students often come from different backgrounds. Their socio-economic background has an effect on their progress at school. Some students may be experiencing a language problem at school. All of this could cause the teacher to be burdened with extra work. Besides the responsibility of teaching, the teacher may have to provide extra help and assistance to such students. The task of the teacher then becomes extremely difficult. This can result in the teacher becoming dissatisfied with his job.

- Absenteeism of students. Many students reside in townships. The violence in the townships often prevents students from attending school. Those students, who live in informal settlements, also absent themselves frequently because of circumstances which are beyond their control. Student absenteeism retards the progress of the teacher in the classroom because he may often have to repeat work, which can become frustrating to him.

- Personal threats. Many teachers work in poor socio-economic neighbourhoods. Teachers are often faced with aggressive parents and students who reside in areas where there is much faction fighting. The situation is worse in secondary schools

where some students carry dangerous weapons to school. In some instances, teachers have been violently threatened by students and members of the community. An unsafe work environment is not conducive to job satisfaction.

- Workload of teachers. Teachers frequently suffer from an overload of teaching and administrative duties. They are often required to fulfil multiple roles because of their wide range of responsibilities. Besides these duties, teachers also have to perform extra-curricular duties after school hours and on weekends, without being remunerated for it.

- Teaching environment. The socio-economic environment in which teachers work influences their morale. Poor physical conditions at school can have a negative impact on the teacher's job satisfaction. The thought of being redeployed or losing one's job brings about feelings of despondency. Teachers need to be respected as professionals. If they do not enjoy the respect and status of the community, they could feel alienated, and this could, in turn, impact on the quality of education.

If teachers were satisfied with their jobs, it would have a reciprocal influence on their sense of efficacy. The problems of teaching confront all teachers and they have to deal with it the best they can. Those teachers who are able to successfully overcome the problems which are endemic to the profession, maintain their satisfaction with their jobs. Teachers who feel incompetent in their jobs, are unlikely to feel satisfied. Consequently, teachers who are dissatisfied with their work,

may have doubts on their professional competence (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 95).

2.8.3 Teacher stress

Teachers' beliefs in their capabilities affect how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations. It also has an effect on their level of motivation. Perceived efficacy plays an important role in the arousal of anxiety. Teachers who believe that they can handle threatening situations do not become anxious when such situations do arise. Conversely, those teachers who are unsure of how to handle threatening situations, can conjure up disturbing thought patterns which arouses their anxiety. Such individuals "...dwell on their coping deficiencies, magnify the severity of possible threats and worry about things that rarely happen" (Bandura, 1993: 132). Such thoughts of inefficacy cause them to become distressed and this impairs their level of functioning at school.

Research has shown that the profession which is most vulnerable to high levels of stress is the teaching profession. Stress is a condition that is experienced by all teachers to a varying degree. Squelch and Lemmer (1994: 161) define stress as "...the mobilisation of our bodily resources in response to some kind of stimulus. These bodily responses may include various physical, emotional and chemical changes". Stress is an alteration of psychological homeostasis resulting from aspects of the teacher's job that are perceived as threats to his well-being or self-esteem (Rigby & Bennett, 1996: 38). Van der Westhuizen (1991: 329) mentions that stress is "...the physical, mental or emotional reaction

resulting from an individual's response to environmental tensions, conflicts, and pressures".

Stress affects not only the teacher, but also the students, the school, the teaching profession and the education system as a whole. For many years, stress has had a negative impact on education. Teaching is stressful due to the many demands made on teachers. Some teachers have the ability to cope with stressful conditions better than others. In education, change is inevitable due to the implementation of a wide range of new legislation (Newton & Terrant, 1992: 6). Change generally causes tension among teachers, especially when "...the information issues involve balancing constructivist ideas with pre-existing knowledge" (Kirby & Bogotch, 1996: 6).

There are certain unavoidable conditions that make the teaching profession stressful. According to Squelch and Lemmer (1994: 168) the following may be identified as some of these unavoidable conditions:

- A teacher's work is never accomplished because of the immense workload that he has to carry. The duties and responsibilities of a teacher are not clearly defined. Besides the task of teaching and preparing for it, the teacher also has to perform other tasks such as co-curricular and extra-curricular duties as well as other, often mundane, administrative duties.

- Teachers are often frustrated with the way in which their school is administered. The problem is compounded by the fact that

they do not have a sufficient say in important decisions that affect them.

- On an average, teachers are involved in making over four hundred routine decisions concerning their students daily. These decisions have to be the right decisions and as such, place a heavy burden on the teachers.

- Teachers have a huge responsibility towards educating their students. The large number of students in their class constantly places them under severe pressure. In such cases, it becomes extremely difficult for teachers to pay much attention to the individual needs of students.

- Educating can become a dangerous vocation for the practitioner. Teachers have to often deal with discipline problems at school. Handling some of these problems can pose a threat to the teacher. Teachers have often been threatened with violence by parents and others in the community. The numerous media reports of violence on teachers bear testimony to this.

- It has been said that 'teaching is a thankless job'. No matter how hard a teacher works, he will not be in a position to please everyone. Parents often demand a lot from the teacher. The community sometimes displays a negative attitude towards teachers.

(1) Types of stress in schools

There are various types of stress that teachers are faced with at school. Seyfarth (1996: 200) mentions the following four types of stress that are prevalent at schools:

- Time stress. This occurs when insufficient time is allowed for the completion of a task. The deadlines that are set may be unreasonable. Teachers have to work very hard to meet the deadlines, which places them under unnecessary duress.

- Situational stress. This arises when a teacher is placed in a situation where he cannot act to solve a problem because of the position that he holds. He may have feelings of guilt, anger and frustration at his powerlessness to correct the situation.

- Encounter stress. This is experienced when a teacher encounters others who refuse to listen to reason and who may be irrational in their behaviour. Teachers are often faced with abusive parents who may display intimidating tendencies towards them.

- Anticipatory stress. This occurs when a teacher experiences anxiety over something. For example, a teacher may experience anxiety before being interviewed for a promotion.

(2) Causes of stress in schools

Since the eighteenth century, extensive research has been conducted on stress amongst teachers. Individuals with a low sense of efficacy often

experience bouts of depression and anxiety. Bandura (1993: 132) asserts that there are two routes to depression. One route is through unfulfilled aspiration, where individuals set standards for themselves, which they cannot achieve. The other route is through a low sense of social efficacy.

Stress in schools is caused by a variety of factors. According to Squelch and Lemmer (1994: 159) the most common causes of stress for teachers is student discipline and apathy, a lack of personal support, poor financial rewards, lack of community support, and low status of the profession. A cause of dissatisfaction among many teachers is an inefficient and inadequate system of promotion. Teachers who have served the profession diligently for many years become frustrated when they are overlooked for promotion. Inspections and evaluations also cause high levels of anxiety and stress in many teachers (Wilcox & Gray, 1996: 7).

Teachers have to cope with the rapid social and political changes in the country, which have a tremendous impact on education and on their work as teachers. The teacher's work is constantly criticised and scrutinised by parents, the media, and also by politicians. Thus, teachers have to adapt to this new reality. According to Squelch and Lemmer (1994: 167) teachers are forced to cope with "...new forms of parent involvement, large culturally diverse classes, and increasingly rigorous academic demands". Van der Westhuizen (1991: 327) asserts that "...the increasing demands made on the school and teachers have led to an alarming escalation of stress".

Van Zyl and Pieterson (1999: 74) attributed work stress experienced by teachers to biographical factors such as age, marital status, and gender, as well as to the organisational climate within which these teachers worked. Teachers are regularly exposed to a variety of stressors within their work situation. Some of these stressors are: the threat of redundancy, frustrating work conditions, lack of relevant resources, stifling bureaucratic administration, pressure of work, student indiscipline, non-participatory decision-making, and a lack of incentives.

(3) Symptoms of stress

Stress may be regarded as a 'silent killer' because it is not easily identifiable in most cases. However, the most common symptoms of stress are: feelings of fear, anxiety, depression, and anger (Seyfarth, 1996: 200). The symptoms of stress, especially those concerning the physiological conditions, are very seldom detected in its early stages. Diagnosis is usually made when the level of stress is quite high. In many instances, once the diagnosis is made, it is not possible to reverse the damage that has been caused to the teacher's health.

(4) Effects of stress

Stress could lead to any number of things, depending on the extent of the stress and the ability of the teacher to cope with it. Stress can cause physiological effects such as high blood pressure, heart problems and skin problems. Stress easily affects the teachers' cognitive processes. "A feeling of acute frustration often occurs, followed by extreme aggression" (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 331). Some effects of stress

may be of a short-term nature, such as feelings of anxiety, fatigue, depression and withdrawal symptoms. Other effects could be quite serious, and in some cases, even fatal. Stress affects the work performance of the teacher. Research indicates that a third of teacher absenteeism is directly related to stress (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994: 166; Gold & Roth, 1993: 79).

Judgements of capabilities influence the way that people think and the way they react emotionally. Teachers who judge themselves as being incompetent in fulfilling the demands made on them could find themselves pondering over their personal deficiencies and cognise potential difficulties as more formidable than they really are. Such self-referent misgivings create stress and undermine effective use of the competencies that teachers possess by diverting attention from how best to proceed, to concern over personal failings and possible mishaps (Bandura, 1986: 394).

Teachers who regard themselves as inefficacious try to get out of tasks, which they regard as difficult. When faced with difficulties, they give up quite easily. Such individuals spend much of their time dwelling on their incompetence. They reduce their aspirations, and mentally suffer much anxiety and stress. Anxiety brings about fear in an individual. Intense fear can cause an individual to become stressed.

Teachers who have serious doubts about their capabilities, suffer much stress and spend much time and effort engaging in defensive action. They shun things which may remotely seem threatening to them. They may even be suspicious of tackling tasks which may be easily manageable to them, if they see these tasks as leading to more

threatening activities. Their lives could become restricted by defensive avoidance of all activities, which may pose a threat to them.

Ashton and Webb (1986: 96-97) identify the degree to which teachers perceive that they are unable to meet the demands made on them as a crucial factor that contributes to their stress. This, they believe, is conceptually similar to teachers' sense of efficacy. Teachers who are unable to deal with the stresses of teaching, experience a lowering of their sense of efficacy.

However, stress can also have positive effects. A positive form of stress is called eustress. Eustress becomes the "...driving force behind success" (Rigby & Bennett, 1996: 38). Some teachers work best whilst under pressure. According to Van der Westhuizen (1991: 330) "...stress can be a powerful generator of productivity, motivation and creativity whereby professional practitioners can deliver their best". He also states that a world free of stress would be a world without achievement. He believes that a teacher, who is completely satisfied with life, and was free of stress, would not be motivated to greater achievement. Seyfarth (1996: 199) is of the opinion that any job without stress would be very dull. The implication here is that stress has the potential to induce excitement in individuals.

Stress inevitably has a profound effect on the teacher's inter-personal relationships at school and at home. The ultimate effect of stress on the teacher is a condition known as burnout, which usually occurs after a long period of feeling anxious, frustrated, angry, disappointed and guilty.

Seyfarth (1996) defines burnout as a feeling of alienation which results from the feeling that one's work has become meaningless and that one is powerless in changing this situation. Van der Westhuizen (1991: 333) defines professional burnout as "...a practitioner's reaction to what is experienced as an unendurable work situation". When a teacher experiences severe strain in his work, he gradually distances himself from this work and exhibits negativism towards it. The teacher is likely to become inflexible and rigid in his attitude.

Researchers such as Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen and Wissing (1999: 192) and Van der Westhuizen (1991: 342) have concluded that burnout is caused by the following organisational and personal factors:

- Work overload.
- Unsatisfactory classroom climate.
- Low decision-making powers.
- Little support from colleagues.
- Problems with students.
- Lack of management sensitivity.
- A low self-esteem.

2.9 SUMMARY

This chapter examined the meaning of efficacy as well as the various dynamics which affect the efficacy of teachers. Results have shown that teachers with a high sense of efficacy are generally strongly motivated and satisfied with their jobs, persevere when faced with obstacles, maintain good classroom discipline, and attempt to bring out the best in their students. Conversely, teachers with a low sense of efficacy give up easily when faced with obstacles, are afraid to accept challenges, feel inadequate in the classroom, and harbour feelings of guilt and trepidation when their students perform poorly.

The next chapter will be devoted to the planning of the empirical research to investigate the ways and means in which teacher efficacy could be promoted.

CHAPTER 3

PLANNING THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH PAGE

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3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapter, the efficacy of the teacher was discussed. The literature study revealed that there are various factors in the work environment of teachers which have an effect on their efficacy. Certain factors enhance their efficacy whilst others do not. This chapter will describe the research methodology which is used to investigate the ways and means in which teacher efficacy could be promoted.

3.2 PREPARATION FOR AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

3.2.1 Permission

A letter (Appendix B) was prepared and forwarded to the Regional Chief Director of the North Durban Region. This was to request permission to visit schools in the region, with a view to administering the questionnaire to level 1 teachers. A copy of the questionnaire (Appendix A), together with a letter from the promoter to confirm the student status of the researcher (Appendix C), was also enclosed with this letter of request for the perusal of the Regional Chief Director, as is the requirement in such matters. On receipt of the necessary permission from the Regional Chief Director (Appendix D), a letter addressed to school principals was prepared (Appendix E).

By appointment, the researcher then visited principals of the selected schools with the letter of approval from the Regional Chief Director (Appendix D). Copies of the questionnaire for the respondents (Appendix A) as well as the letter addressed to the teachers at these schools (Appendix F) were personally delivered to schools. Arrangements were made for administering the questionnaire to level 1 teachers. A date for the collection of the completed questionnaires was negotiated with each principal.

3.2.2 Population

In social research, the term population refers to the aggregate of units which pertain to the survey results and not to a population of human beings. A population refers to the total set from which the individuals or units of the study are chosen. The study of a population is the study of the whole (De Vos, 1998: 190). Babbie (1992: 107) states that the population for a study is "...that group (usually of people) about whom we want to be able to draw conclusions".

Moser and Kalton (1971: 271) assert that a distinction must be made between the target population and the population which is actually covered in the survey. Under ideal circumstances, the two should be the same. In practice however, there will always be differences between the target population and the population which is actually covered in the survey.

The population chosen for this study is schools in the City of Durban district. This district is one of six districts in the North Durban Region and comprises five circuits: Durban Central, Merewent, Umgeni North,

Umgeni South and Port Natal. Altogether, these circuits contain a total of 92 public primary schools and 42 public secondary schools. The target population would have comprised all 134 schools. This was not possible for practical reasons. It was, however, possible to include a sample of the population in this survey.

3.2.3 Sampling

Sampling is an alternative to a complete collection. The term 'sample' implies the existence of a larger population from which a smaller section is chosen. The sample is the element of the population that is considered for actual inclusion in the study (De Vos, 1998: 190). Researchers agree that it is usually not practical to study all the members of the population that interest us (Babbie, 1992: 107). It is therefore necessary to choose a sample of subjects for study. Flick (1998: 62), asserts that "...the issue of sampling is connected to the decision about which persons to interview (case sampling) and from which groups these should come (sampling group of cases)".

As compared to a complete collection, sampling is advantageous in that it saves money, time and effort (Sax, 1979: 180). It is often not feasible to identify all the members of a population of interest due to time and cost considerations (De Vos, 1998: 191). Besides being a tedious and time-consuming exercise, the study of an entire population would produce a massive amount of data, which would be difficult to process, analyse and interpret. In addition, sampling allows for greater focus and often permits greater accuracy than a complete collection.

The size of a sample often plagues novice researchers (Cohen & Manion, 1994: 89). Generally, the size of a sample would depend on the size of the population. De Vos (1998: 191) is of the view that "...the larger the population, the smaller the percentage of that population the sample needs to be". If the population is relatively small, the sample should comprise a substantially large percentage of the population. The sample size is also affected by the degree of homogeneity or heterogeneity of the population (De Vos, 1998: 191). It is recommended that the sample be large enough to cater for a certain percentage of non-responses.

From the 134 schools in the district, 35 had to be eliminated on the grounds of inaccessibility, either because they could not be readily reached by the researcher (situated in deep rural areas, long distances away, untraversable roads, adverse weather conditions) or were not regarded as safe for researchers to visit. This process led to a total of 99 schools remaining. Through a process of random sampling, 10 schools were selected from this group.

A total of 185 questionnaires were forwarded to the principals of selected schools for distribution to teachers. However, due to the non-cooperation of some teachers, only one hundred and fifty completed questionnaires were returned. This 81% return is considered to be adequate for making valid inferences about the 10 schools in the final sample.

3.3 CHOICE OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

There are many methods of obtaining data involving people. In research, it is often good practice to combine different methods in order to make use of their different strengths. Considering the nature of the research topic, it was decided to use the following research tools: a study of related literature, and a questionnaire.

3.3.1 Literature Study

It is often possible to answer some of the questions that a survey is intended to cover by studying the available literature on the topic. A review of the related literature can be an extremely valuable source of data because it forms the basis for the research. Sources of literature used in this research include related publications such as books, journal articles, and unpublished dissertations.

3.3.2 The questionnaire as a research instrument

The questionnaire is a form of structured interview in which the respondent is required to answer a series of pre-established questions "...with a limited set of response categories" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994: 363). Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994: 504) define a questionnaire as a set of questions or statements, which deal with some topic or related group of topics, that are administered to a selected group of individuals, for the purpose of gathering data on an area under investigation. Jorgenson (1989: 89) states that a questionnaire is a self-administered device that can be completed by respondents without the assistance of or face-to-face contact with the researcher. The

questionnaire enables the researcher to collect information without having actually to be present.

Questionnaires are used widely to collect data (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991: 186; De Vaus, 1990: 80). The questionnaire is used to "...elicit the feelings, beliefs, experiences, or activities of respondents" (Sax, 1979: 244). In social research the questionnaire is a popular research instrument. Babbie (1992: 152) asserts that "...questionnaires are essential to and most directly associated with survey research".

Ackroyd and Hughes (1981: 100) assert that questionnaires are the most frequently used social research technique. Questionnaires consist of questions or statements which express an attitude or an opinion. Nachmias and Nachmias (1982: 179) regard the questionnaire as "...an impersonal survey method". According to Marshall and Rossman (1995: 95) researchers administer questionnaires to some sample of a population to learn about the distribution of characteristics, attitudes, or beliefs. In completing the questionnaire, it is important for participants to be honest and accurate in their responses.

Huysamen (1989: 2) cautions that a questionnaire which is poorly designed, could invalidate the research results, notwithstanding the merits of the sample, the field workers and the statistical technique used. Conversely, Schumacher and Meillon (1993: 42) state that a questionnaire which is well-designed, could enhance the validity and reliability of the data to acceptable tolerances.

The method of distribution of the questionnaire is either personally by the researcher, or through the mail. It is usually distributed by the

researcher with prior arrangement with the respondent. In many instances the questionnaire is sent by post. The respondent completes the questionnaire without any assistance other than by following the instructions that are given in the questionnaire.

3.3.3 Construction of the questionnaire

Cohen and Manion (1994: 92-93) state that the ideal questionnaire is clear, unambiguous and purposeful. Its design must ensure that potential respondent errors are minimised. Furthermore, since the completion of the questionnaire is voluntary, it must be constructed in such a way that it sustains the interest of the respondent, thereby encouraging him to complete it purposefully. The design of the questionnaire should be simple with clear instructions.

In discussing the construction of the questionnaire, Babbie (1992: 152-157) distinguishes between the questionnaire format, the questions or statements, and the instructions.

(1) General questionnaire format

An important aspect of the construction of the questionnaire is its format. If the layout of the questionnaire is confusing, it could cause the respondents to overlook certain questions or statements. The questions or statements should not be cluttered. Questions or statements should be separated and only one question or statement should be inserted on a line. As far as possible, abbreviations should not be used in the questions or statements as they could be misinterpreted.

The appearance of the questionnaire is equally important (Cohen & Manion, 1994: 96). The questionnaire must look easy and attractive to the respondent. A questionnaire with a poor or compressed layout can be uninviting to the respondent. Questions or statements should be properly spaced out. It is recommended that little boxes, which are adequately spaced apart, be inserted for responses which require a cross or a tick. Adequate lines should be provided for responses which require elaboration.

(2) Contingency questions or statements

It has been noted that researchers sometimes include questions or statements which are irrelevant to some of the respondents. Babbie (1992: 154) posits that the use of contingency questions or statements can avoid this problem of irrelevancy. The proper use of contingency questions or statements can enhance the standard of the responses. They can also facilitate the task of the respondent in completing the questionnaire.

(3) Order of questions or statements

The order of the questions or statements is an important consideration because it can affect the responses. It is recommended that the more interesting questions or statements are placed at the beginning of the questionnaire to encourage the respondent to continue answering. The initial questions or statements "...may pre-dispose answers to later ones" (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1981: 107). Questions and statements of a general type should be placed before those of a specific type.

(4) Instructions

All instructions must be clear and precise to achieve the desired result. Respondents must know exactly what is expected of them. Instructions which are ambiguous or unclear could cause respondents to provide inappropriate answers or to lose interest in completing the questionnaire. All instructions must be placed at the beginning of the questionnaire or at the beginning of a section. When open-ended questions are used, some guidance should be given about the length of the response.

(5) Types of questions or statements

Ackroyd and Hughes (1981: 106) assign much importance to the way in which questions or statements are worded. Questions or statements must be unambiguous, clear and precise. A single question or statement should express a single idea. The researcher should avoid using loaded questions, unless such questions are deliberately inserted with the intention of expressing a strong point of view with which the respondent can concur or not (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1981: 106). Leading questions also produce biased answers and should be avoided (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991: 187).

It is important that questions or statements are short, specific and to the point so that they can be easily understood. The researcher must ensure that the way in which the questions or statements are worded and presented does not lead the respondent into giving an unrealistically narrow answer. Questions or statements which are poorly worded will either be misunderstood by the respondents, or will produce a limited

range of responses (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991: 187). The researcher should avoid using questions or statements which are complex, irritating, open-ended, or those that use negatives (Cohen & Manion, 1994: 93).

In this investigation, the questionnaire contained a series of statements which were relevant to the area of interest. The questionnaire was re-drafted a number of times before being finalised after the pilot study. When formulating the statements, the researcher endeavoured to avoid any ambiguity, vagueness, prejudice or technical language. The aim of this was to minimise misinterpretation of the statements, thereby allowing for honest answers. The statements were precise, simple to comprehend and straightforward.

The aim of the questionnaire (Appendix A) was to obtain information with regard to promoting efficacy in teachers. The statements were formulated to establish how teachers saw their work in relation to their life-world.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections:

- Section one dealt with general information regarding the respondents (level 1 teachers).

- Section two focussed on the work of the teacher in relation to his life-world and the promotion of his efficacy.

The statements in section two of the questionnaire were formulated with the aim of establishing the following:

- Life-world of the teacher (Part A, Items 1-12).

- Contextual effects on teachers' sense of efficacy (Part B, Items 1-3).

- Educational environment and teachers' sense of efficacy (Part B, Items 4-9).

- Problems prevalent in the teaching profession (Part B, Items 10-12).

- Work environment and teachers' sense of efficacy (Part B, Items 13-24).

3.3.4 Characteristics of the questionnaire

The questionnaire contains a series of questions or statements. The respondent usually has a limited set of response categories, except in the case of an open ended question, which is infrequent. The pace of the interview is controlled by the interviewer "...by treating the questionnaire as if it were a theatrical script to be followed in a standardised or straightforward manner" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994: 363). The questions or statements, as well as their order, are straight forward and identical for all respondents. The questions or statements usually have structured response categories (Marshall & Rossman, 1995: 96).

3.3.5 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

As a research tool, the structured questionnaire may be used to collect information in the following ways (Kidder & Judd, 1986: 221):

- Written questionnaires, which are either mailed or hand delivered.

- Structured interviews, which are personal interactions with the respondents.

- Telephonic interviews, which are conducted over the telephone.

Each one of the above modes has its advantages and disadvantages. After consideration, the researcher decided to use the written questionnaire in this research.

(1) Advantages of the written questionnaire

The use of a questionnaire facilitates the collection of information which is of a uniform nature (Jorgenson, 1989: 90). Use of the questionnaire makes it possible for the researcher to reach more people in a lesser amount of time. Compared to other research tools, the questionnaire is a fairly economical way of obtaining data (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1981: 101). A unique feature of the questionnaire is that it can be sent almost anywhere (Sax, 1979: 244). According to Dane (1990: 133-134) the questionnaire provides greater privacy for the respondent and it is the least expensive, least time-consuming, and most effective

administration method. Also, it is conducive to producing results which are more reliable and comparable (Sax, 1979: 245).

The questionnaire allows for uniform measurements because the questions and their order are identical for every respondent. This provides for easy analysis of the data. Furthermore, respondents do not need to rush through the questionnaire because they can complete it in their own time, in a more relaxed environment.

Nachmias and Nachmias (1982: 180) state that the use of the questionnaire has the following advantages:

- It is cheaper than personal interviewing because it does not need a trained staff of interviewers. It is also the least expensive way of collecting data.

- It reduces bias which could very easily exist in a personal interview situation. In a personal interview situation, the way in which the interviewer asks the questions, or even the appearance of the interviewer, could influence the way in which the interviewee responds.

- It ensures the anonymity of respondents, a factor which is crucial when dealing with sensitive issues. By allowing for anonymity, the questionnaire ensures that respondents are not afraid of giving candid answers, thus enhancing the quality of the responses.

- It is convenient for questions which require a considered, rather than an immediate answer.

- It is easily accessible to a larger sample of respondents at a minimal cost.

According to Marshall and Rossman (1995: 96) the questionnaire has the following advantages:

- Accuracy of measurement. Because the questionnaires are uniform, there is hardly any chance of deviating from the most suitable response.

- Administrative convenience. No special training is required to code, analyse and interpret data.

- Avoidance of ethical or political difficulties in the research process.

- Generalisability, where the survey results can be generalised to a larger population within known limits of error.

(2) Disadvantages of the written questionnaire

The use of a questionnaire poses some significant disadvantages. Dane (1990: 133), Mahlangu (1987: 84-85), Nachmias and Nachmias (1982: 180) and Sax (1979: 245-246) outline the following disadvantages of the questionnaire (it is assumed that the respondents are literate):

- There is no guarantee that sufficient consideration will be given to the answers.

- Unlike the personal interview, the questionnaire lacks the personal touch.

- It is difficult to ascertain how motivated the respondents were when completing the questionnaire.

- The questions or statements must be simple enough to be comprehended by the respondent without any other assistance except from the printed instructions.

- There is no way of determining how many questionnaires would be completed and returned by the respondents since this is voluntary. The non-return of questionnaires affects sampling.

- Mailed questionnaires can be a costly exercise with money being spent unwisely.

- Although the anonymity of the respondents is maintained when a questionnaire is used, there is no guarantee that the questionnaire will be completed by the person for whom it was intended.

- Questionnaires increase the likelihood of misunderstood items or incomplete responses.

- There is no opportunity to check up on a response which may seem inconsistent because the respondent is anonymous.

- If the questions or statements are not straight forward enough they could be misconstrued by the respondent, thus resulting in an incorrect answer.

3.3.6 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

In social science research, the issue of validity and reliability is of paramount importance in order to maintain accurate measurements (Huysamen, 1989: 1-3). When designing a questionnaire, researchers have to be conscious of this issue. The difference between validity and reliability is that "...validity coefficients require some criterion external to the test itself, whereas reliability coefficients always reflect the correlation of an examination with itself" (Sax, 1979: 220). The validity of a measure is not totally independent of its reliability, nor does high reliability guarantee validity.

Questionnaires are supposed to serve the purpose for which they are intended, and that is, to gather data from a sample population. In order to ensure that the questionnaire measures precisely and dependably what it is intended to measure, it is essential to assess its validity and reliability as a research instrument (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988: 198).

(1) Validity of the questionnaire

According to McDaniel (1994: 68) and Dane (1990: 257) validity refers to "...the extent to which a measure actually measures what it is supposed to measure". Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991: 46) state that validity tests whether our measurements and observations are a true representation of reality. Babbie (1992: 132) defines validity as "...the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration". This means that the measurement under consideration is compared with a commonly accepted measure of the same concept to check for consistency. The validity of the questionnaire indicates whether or not the questionnaire reflects the truth. When the administration of the questionnaire produces similar results, this is an indication that the instrument is valid.

Testing for validity is an examination of the extent to which a test correlates with some criterion external to the test itself (Sax, 1979: 220). If the research measurement provides data which relate to the commonly accepted measure, then the research measurement is considered to be valid. A measurement is valid only if it measures what it is expected to measure, and not something else (Katzer, Cook & Crouch, 1998: 101).

There are various techniques for determining validity. Katzer, Cook and Crouch (1998: 101-102), McDaniel (1994: 69-74), Dane (1990: 257-259), Mulder (1989: 215-217) and Sax (1979: 220-228) present the following techniques:

(a) Construct validity

Construct validity is the extent to which a test measures a theoretical concept. It refers to the extent to which a measure represents concepts it should represent and the extent to which it does not represent concepts it should not represent. It involves making a comparison between a new measure, and an existing, valid measure of the same concept, and contrasting the new measure with existing, valid measures of a different concept. It also involves testing the extent to which comparisons and contrasts are affected by the method used for the measure.

Construct validity may either be convergent or divergent. Convergent validity refers to the extent to which a measure correlates with existing measures of the same concept. That is, the data collected, should show a high correlation among the tests. It involves comparisons with more than one existing measure. Divergent validity refers to the extent to which a measure does not correlate with measures of a different concept.

(b) Face validity

Face validity is also known as expert validity or validity by consensus because the validity of a measure is determined by those who possess the knowledge to make such a decision. Such a notion places limitations on the test of validity. Should a researcher not be in a position to prove that his claim of validity is based on the opinion of experts, he would find it difficult to convince others of the validity of his measure.

(c) Concurrent validity

Concurrent validity involves comparing a new measure to an existing measure which is valid. This is unlike face validity, where the consensus of experts is required as a test for validity. In concurrent validity, the new measure is validated against a valid measure which is immediately available, rather than waiting for a future measure.

(d) Predictive validity

Predictive validity is probably the most important kind of validity. It is established by comparing a new measure with the future occurrence of another, highly valid measure. In predictive validity, the test is given on one date, and used to predict a later performance. This means that the new measure can only be validated against a future measure. It is easier to predict events in the immediate future than it is to predict events which are further away.

In this investigation, the instrument was subjected to a test of construct validity. The draft questionnaire was submitted separately and independently to the supervisors. After some changes, the supervisors agreed that the instrument measured the construct 'teacher efficacy' and that valid inferences could be drawn from its application. This was a form of expert or face validity. The supervisors agreed that the empirical procedures were based on a theory about what teacher efficacy entailed. They were satisfied that on the basis of this theory, the researcher would be able to distinguish between, for instance, respondents with strong or weak efficacy beliefs.

(2) Reliability of the questionnaire

A reliable measurement is dependable because it yields the same or similar results every time (Katzer, Cook & Crouch, 1998: 98). According to Babbie (1992: 129) "...reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same result each time". This does not mean that reliability ensures accuracy. It is simply a test of determining how consistent or stable a measure is (McDaniel, 1994: 44; Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991: 46). Dane (1990: 252-253) asserts that "...a variety of techniques are designed for such purposes, and all of them rely on the extent to which one version of the measure is related to another version of the measure". It is important to note, however, that no measurement has perfect reliability (McDaniel, 1994: 44).

Babbie (1992: 129) asserts that in social science measurement, the problem of reliability is a basic one. As a result, researchers have to develop techniques to overcome this problem. Dane (1990: 252) agrees that there are a variety of techniques which are designed to measure reliability and all of them are dependent on the extent to which one version of the measure is related to another version of the measure. He asserts that "...the extent to which two things are related can be measured through correlations-statistical procedures that estimate the extent to which changes to one variable are associated with changes in another" (Dane, 1990: 253). A positive correlation coefficient indicates a direct relationship between the two variables, a zero coefficient indicates no relationship, and a negative correlation means that there is an inverse relationship.

Sax (1979: 215-218) outlines the following factors which affect reliability coefficients:

- Group validity. The degree of reliability depends on the extent to which a group tends to be homogeneous or heterogeneous with regard to the trait being measured. The reliability coefficient is likely to be higher in more heterogeneous groups.

- Level of difficulty. A difficult test yields a low mean. Similarly, difficult questions will yield fewer responses.

- Number of items. Longer tests tend to be more reliable than shorter ones since the respondent has a greater choice of items in the longer test.

McDaniel (1994: 46-51), Babbie (1992: 130-132), Dane (1990: 253-256), Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988: 194), Kidder and Judd (1986: 47-48) and Sax (1979: 228) distinguish between the following types of reliability:

(a) Alternate forms reliability

This involves "...comparing two different but equivalent versions of the same measure" (Dane, 1990: 254; Sax, 1979: 228). There are two ways of administering this form of reliability. The first way is to give a group of people different versions of the measure at different times. The second way is to give the same measure to different groups of people. The required assumption is that the two different forms are different but also equivalent in that they measure the same concept

(Dane, 1990: 255). In order to analyse such results, distributional descriptors such as means or standard deviations would have to be used to determine the extent to which the two groups scored the same.

(b) Split-half reliability

The split-half reliability procedure divides the existing test into two halves (McDaniel, 1994: 50). When dealing with complex social concepts, it is a good idea to make more than one measurement (Babbie, 1992: 131). For reasons of practicality, the split-half technique can be used to test for reliability. Dane (1990: 255) describes split-half reliability as creating two scores for each participant by dividing the measure into equivalent halves and correlating the halves. Each half is then treated as a complete measure. However, this method can only be used if a measure can be split into equivalent halves. It is important to note that the half measures are not as reliable as the full measure (McDaniel, 1994: 50).

(c) Item-total reliability

This procedure involves estimating the consistency of one item with respect to other items on a measure (Dane, 1990: 256). For example, when a measure includes more than one measurement, it is necessary to ascertain the reliability of the individual items. If the individual items are reliable, then the entire measure can be regarded as reliable.

(d) Research-worker reliability

One cannot take for granted that the data generated by research workers, interviewers and coders, is absolutely reliable. It may therefore be necessary for the supervisor to call a sub-sample of the respondents on the telephone and verify selected pieces of information, to guard against interviewer unreliability.

(e) Test-retest reliability

This approach is used to determine whether the results would be similar if it is administered by the same rater to the same individuals at a later date. The procedure involves testing a group, and retesting the group a second time. The retesting could take place the next day or after a few weeks. However, the period between testing should not be so long that a change in circumstances could affect the result (Sax, 1979: 228).

(f) Using established measures

Another way of ensuring some measure of reliability when obtaining information from people, is to use measures that have proven their reliability in previous research. However, it is important to note that the excessive use of measures does not guarantee their reliability.

(g) Interrater reliability

This involves the consistency with which raters or observers make judgements (Dane, 1990: 253). A condition of interrater reliability is

that raters or observers must not collaborate with each other when making judgements. They must make independent ratings.

Several procedures were followed to ensure the reliability of the instrument. Firstly, a number of smaller changes were made on the basis of the pilot study. Secondly, use was made of interrater reliability. The independent ratings or judgements of the researchers involved in this project were largely congruent. Thirdly, reliability was increased by developing an instrument which contained many items. Fourthly, the fact that the respondents were granted anonymity, made it easier for them to provide frank and honest answers. Finally, one could assume that, because the respondents were all professionally qualified teachers, they would respond appropriately to the statements in the questionnaire.

3.4 THE LIKERT SCALE

The Likert Scale is popularly used in survey questionnaires and it is used to determine the strength of the attitude being measured. Likert devised a method of using a series of strongly favourable and strongly unfavourable statements about a topic. Respondents are required to indicate on a five-point scale, the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each statement (Beck, 1983: 390). In analysing responses, identical response categories are used for several items intended to measure a given variable (Babbie, 1992: 180). This helps to score each item in a uniform manner.

In this research, a Likert-type scale is used. The questionnaire contains statements to which one of the following responses would apply: 'agree', 'disagree' or 'uncertain'.

With three response categories in the questionnaire, scores of 1 to 3 are assigned. Each respondent would then be assigned an overall score which represents the sum of the scores that he received for his responses to the individual items.

3.5 PILOT STUDY

"A pilot study is an abbreviated version of a research project in which the researcher practices or tests the procedures to be used in the subsequent full-scale project" (Dane, 1990: 43). The pilot group should have characteristics which are similar to the target group of respondents (Sax, 1979: 179). It is advisable to undertake a pilot study before devoting oneself to the arduous and significant time-commitment of a research study (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994: 213). Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991: 187) assert that a pilot study enables the researcher to ascertain whether the questions are worded appropriately or whether there are differences in implication.

The pilot study investigates the feasibility of the planned project. It can be viewed as a 'dress rehearsal' of the main investigation (Sax, 1979: 179). By undertaking a pilot study, the researcher begins to establish a rapport with the participants. Furthermore, the time invested in conducting a pilot study can be valuable for a later stage in the study, because the pilot study can help to iron out some of the problems which could have appeared later in the study.

In the pilot study, the number of participants is usually considerably smaller than the total number of participants in the actual survey. However, the group selected to participate in the pilot study and in the final survey, must be from the same target population. For the purpose of this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study on teachers in a few selected schools in the City of Durban district.

According to Marshall and Rossman (1995: 42), Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 213), Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991: 187) and Dane (1990: 127) the pilot study forms an important part of the research survey because it enables the researcher to:

- Assess the feasibility of conducting the proposed study.
- Fine tune the research instrument.
- Focus on certain areas which may have been previously unclear.
- Test certain questions from the questionnaire.

The above-mentioned aspects correlated with the aims of the researcher in this survey in the following way:

- The pilot study provided the researcher with new ideas and approaches to the questionnaire.
- An indication of the time required to complete the questionnaire was established in the pilot study.

- The researcher discovered that some of the statements were a little ambiguous and had to be reformulated.

- The pilot study indicated that the statements in the questionnaire complied adequately with the requirements of the study.

3.6 PROCESSING OF DATA

Once the questionnaire had been returned, the responses were analysed. These responses were captured in a data format in order to allow for analysis and interpretation. Data is any kind of information which researchers can identify and accumulate to facilitate answers to their queries (Van Wyk, 1996: 130). The analysis and interpretation of the data involved a process of coding the 150 questionnaires which had been completed by teachers and returned to the researcher. The coded data was then placed on a spread sheet using the MS Excel computer programme. The results were interpreted by means of descriptive and inferential statistics.

3.6.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics is "...a method for presenting quantitative descriptions in a manageable form" (Babbie, 1992: 432). They serve to describe and summarise observations (Van Rensberg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994: 355). This involves a process of reducing data from details which are unmanageable to those which can be managed. Such data are described by the use of frequency tables, histograms and polygons, which help to form impressions about the distribution of data.

According to Schumacher and McMillan (1993: 192) and Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988: 65-76) frequency distribution is a method used to organise data obtained from questionnaires to simplify statistical analysis. A frequency table provides the following information:

- It indicates the number of times that a particular response appears on the completed questionnaires.

- It provides percentages that reflect the number of responses to a certain question in relation to the total number of responses.

- The arithmetic mean (average) can be calculated by finding the sum of all the scores and dividing this by the number of scores.

3.6.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics involve the study of a sample to make assertions about the larger population from which the sample has been selected (Babbie, 1992: 447). In many instances, social science research involves examining the data collected from a sample which is part of the larger population. By studying the sample, the researcher can use inferential statistics to estimate the qualities or quantities which are present in the larger population (Dane, 1990: 237-238). Some inferential statistics estimate the single-variable characteristics of the population, while others, referred to as the tests of statistical significance, estimate the relationships between variables in the population.

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Inferential statistics are used to make inferences and not simply to describe the data collected from the sample (Kidder & Judd, 1986: 263). An example of an inferential statistics test is the chi-square test. According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (1996: 305-317) the chi-square test can assess differences between two or more independent groups with frequencies ranging from moderately small to very large. It can perform operations with frequency data that are analogous in function and complexity to single-factor as well as multiple factor analysis of variance. The chi-square is commonly used as a test statistic for frequency differences (Venketsamy, 2000: 125).

3.6.3 Application of data

The questionnaire (Appendix A) was designed to determine the promotion of efficacy in teachers.. In order to obtain the information needed for the purpose of this study the questionnaire contained two sections:

- Section one contained general questions concerning the respondents.

- Section two focused on promoting efficacy in level 1 teachers.

3.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

This investigation was restricted by the following factors which may have had an influence on the validity and reliability of the questionnaire:

- Although respondents were assured of anonymity, it may have been possible that they might not have been frank and honest in their responses.

- The sensitive nature of some statements in the questionnaire may have elicited false or misleading responses, thereby influencing the reliability of the results.

- To restrict the investigation to manageable proportions, the researcher limited the study to level 1 teachers in 10 schools in the City of Durban district. The alternative would have been to conduct the research in all 134 schools in the district. This would have resulted in an unmanageable number of respondents for the statistical programme used by the researcher.

- In all probability, the questionnaire was completed by the level 1 teachers at school, either during the tea break or during their free time. It is possible that the respondents may have collaborated with their colleagues when completing the questionnaire.

3.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research design which was applied in the empirical investigation, was discussed. The focus was on the questionnaire as a research instrument. Aspects such as the advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire, as well as its validity and reliability, were comprehensively described. The results of the questionnaire will be analysed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA

PAGE

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PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the data obtained from the one hundred and fifty questionnaires which were collected from respondents. The information will be analysed and interpreted so that patterns and trends which are apparent, could be commented on. This will be followed by an examination of the responses to specific questions from the questionnaire. The analysis of the responses on the questionnaire involved coding the one hundred and fifty questionnaires which were received. The coded data was then transferred onto a computer spreadsheet, before being statistically analysed in order to test the relationship between the specific variables in section 4.3.2 statistically.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The purpose of research is to investigate a situation, phenomenon, community or person with the aim of gaining a better insight of it (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995: 42). Descriptive research attempts to describe the situation as it is, without any intervention by the researcher. In this study, descriptive statistics were used to describe the relationship between the teacher's experience of the teaching situation and his efficacy, that is, the power to produce the effect wanted.

4.2.1 Gender of respondents

Table 1: Frequency distribution according to the gender of respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Males	41	27.3
Females	109	72.7
Total	150	100

Graph 1: Gender of respondents

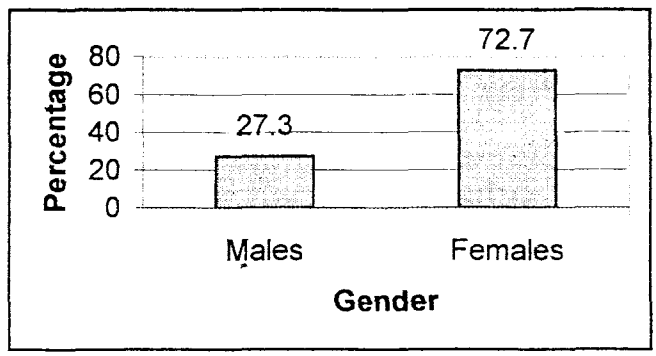


Table 1 shows that a large majority of females (45.4%) completed the questionnaire. The possible reasons for this could be that:

- The teaching profession has more females than males.
- Females have more patience and expertise when it comes to working with children.
- Females find the teaching profession to be a convenient vocation since it allows them time in the afternoon to attend to their

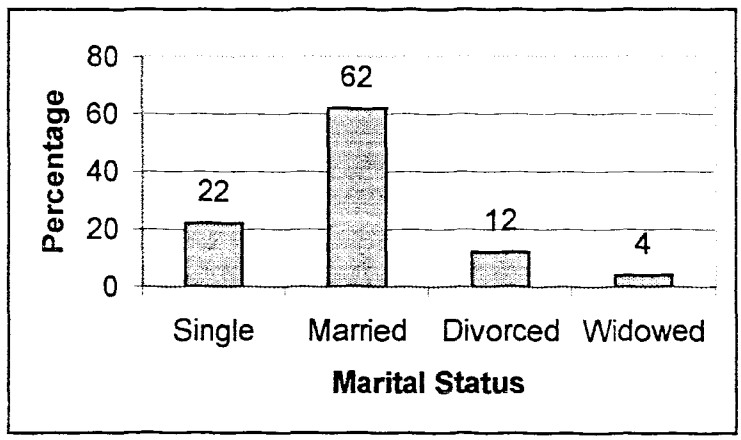
household chores. It also allows them to be at home with their children during school holidays.

4.2.2 Marital status of respondents

Table 2: Frequency distribution according to the marital status of respondents.

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	33	22
Married	93	62
Divorced	18	12
Widowed	6	4
Total	150	100

Graph 2: Marital status of respondents.



The table shows that 62% of respondents are married. This indicates that most teachers surveyed come from stable home backgrounds which reflect family values. This makes them ideal candidates to teach children, since they probably have the experience of working with children at home.

4.2.3 Age of respondents

Table 3: Frequency distribution according to the age of respondents.

Age Group	Frequency	Percent
20-25	8	5.3
26-30	26	17.3
31-35	19	12.7
36-40	41	27.4
41-45	22	14.7
46-50	20	13.3
51-55	8	5.3
56-60	4	2.7
61-65	2	1.3
Total	150	100

Graph 3: Age of respondents

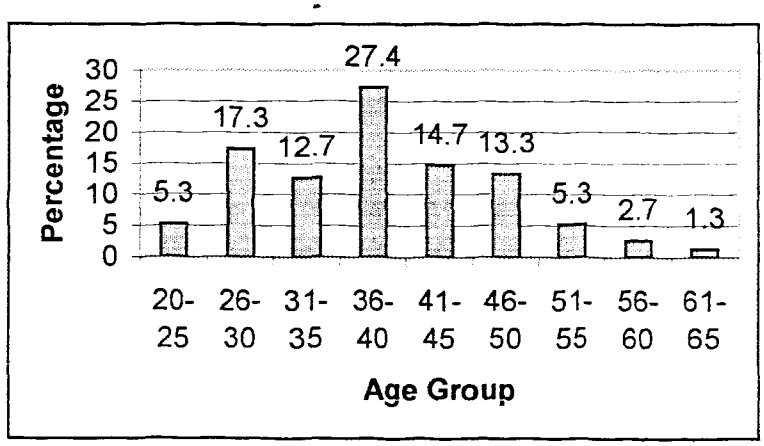


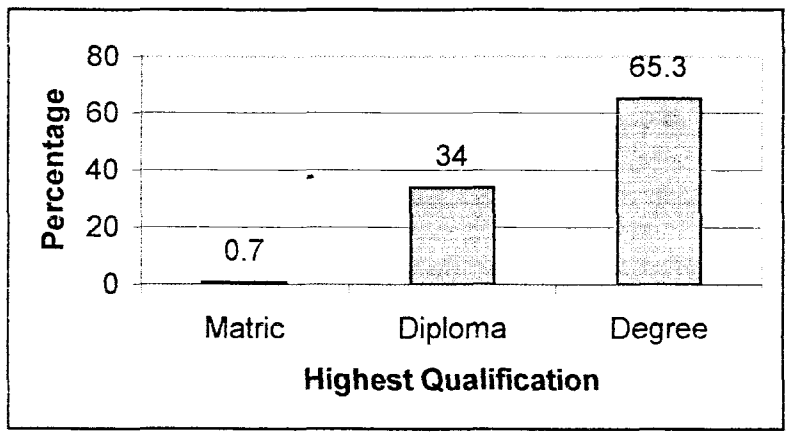
Table 3 indicates that the majority of respondents (27.4%) are from the age group 36 to 40 years. The overall age distribution shows that most teachers surveyed are within the ages 26-50 years. One can assume that the teaching profession presently has a mature group of teachers (85.4%).

4.2.4 Highest qualification of respondents

Table 4: Frequency distribution according to the highest qualification of respondents.

Highest qualification	Frequency	Percent
Matric	1	0.7
Diploma	51	34
Degree	98	65.3
Total	150	100

Graph 4: Highest qualification of respondents.



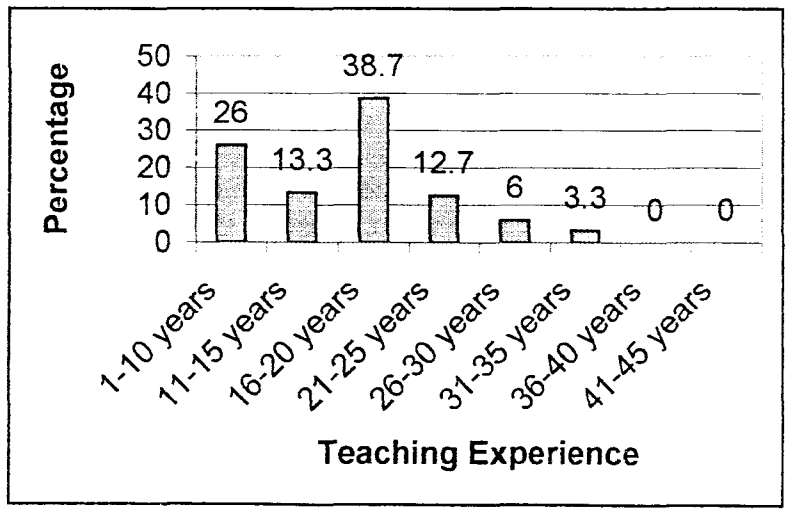
Almost all respondents are professionally qualified (99.3%), of which 65.3% have a degree to their credit. This indicates that most teachers surveyed are highly qualified with a high degree of expertise in the field of education.

4.2.5 Teaching experience of respondents

Table 5: Frequency distribution according to the teaching experience of respondents.

Teaching experience	Frequency	Percent
1-10 years	39	26
11-15 years	20	13.3
16-20 years	58	38.7
21-25 years	19	12.7
26-30 years	9	6
31-35 years	5	3.3
36-40 years	0	0
41-45 years	0	0
Total	150	100

Graph 5: Teaching experience of respondents.



Many respondents (38.7%) have a teaching experience of 16 to 20 years. A surprisingly high percentage of respondents (26%) have a teaching experience of 1 to 10 years. When comparing this with the

age of respondents in Table 3, one can infer that there are a number of teachers who have started teaching at a later stage in their lives.

The distribution in table 5 shows that most teachers surveyed (74%), have a vast experience in the field of teaching. The table also indicates that there are no level 1 teachers who have more than 35 years of teaching experience in the schools surveyed. A possible explanation for this may be that those teaching for a long period of time have either been promoted to higher posts, or have left the profession.

4.2.6 Life-world of the teacher

Table 6: Frequency distribution according to the items on the life-world of the teacher.

Question Number	AGREE Frequency Percentage	DISAGREE Frequency Percentage	UNCERTAIN Frequency Percentage	TOTAL
1	30	115	5	150
	20%	76.7%	3.3%	100
2	26	102	22	150
	17.3%	68%	14.7%	100
3	43	66	41	150
	28.7%	44%	27.3%	100
4	55	73	22	150
	36.7%	48.7%	14.6%	100
5	50	78	22	150
	33.3%	52%	14.7%	100
6	46	86	18	150
	30.7%	57.3%	12%	100
7	124	24	2	150
	82.7%	16%	1.3%	100
8	53	69	28	150
	35.3%	46%	18.7%	100
9	24	111	15	150
	16%	74%	10%	100
10	15	122	13	150
	10%	81.3%	8.7%	100
11	48	90	12	150
	32%	60%	8%	100
12	86	45	19	150
	57.3%	30%	12.7%	100

The responses in Table 6 can be explained as follows:

1 Most of the respondents (76.7%) disagreed with the statement that their salary was adequate for their basic needs. This indicates that the basic physiological need of most teachers surveyed is not fulfilled adequately (Owens, 1998: 143).

2 A large number of respondents (68%) indicated that teaching was not a secure job. This means that many teachers surveyed are uncertain about their future job prospects. This correlates with the view of Owens (1998: 143) that the safety and security needs of many teachers are not fulfilled.

3 Slightly less than half of the respondents (44%) indicated that they could not trust their colleagues. A further 27.3% of respondents were uncertain of whether or not they could trust their colleagues. From this, one could infer that the social needs of teachers surveyed, is lacking.

4 A total of 48.7% of respondents disagreed with the statement as opposed to 36.7% of respondents who agreed that their principals seek their opinion on professional matters. This shows that the majority of teachers surveyed are not consulted before decisions are made. As a result, the esteem needs of these teachers are not fulfilled (Owens, 1998: 143).

5 Slightly more than half of the respondents (52%) indicated that their work as teachers does not help them to realise their full potential. Only a third of the respondents (33.3%) felt that their

work helped them to realize their potential. This shows that in the majority of cases, the work of the teachers surveyed, does not help them to actualise their potential as educators (Vrey, 1990: 42).

6 More than half the respondents (57.3%) indicated their dissatisfaction with the teaching profession. At least 12% of respondents were unsure of whether they found their work rewarding or not. This has serious implications for the morale and job satisfaction of the teacher (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 95).

7 Most of the respondents (82.7%) agreed that they become annoyed with students who display a poor attitude towards their work. Such students are a major contribution to teachers' frustration and stress (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 39).

8 The majority of respondents (46%) indicated their dissatisfaction with the involvement of parents at school. However, a significant portion of respondents (35.3%) felt that parents should have more say in the running of schools. Many teachers find that parents can be a hindrance to their work at school. However, if parents restrict their involvement to those activities which do not interfere with the professional work of the teacher, they could be an asset to the school (Fuller, Wood, Rapoport & Dornbusch, 1982: 11).

9 A vast majority of respondents (74%) indicated that they did not enjoy a healthy relationship with parents. The relationship between teachers and parents should be one of mutual trust and

cooperation if parents are to be fruitfully involved with the school. Parents do have a role to play at school. There should be a strict code of conduct for parents and teachers during this interaction, to avoid any conflict (West, 1993: 15).

10 A large majority of respondents (81.3%) felt that they did not have much say at school. It is possible that such schools operate on bureaucratic principles. It would be very difficult for teachers to actualise their full potential in such an environment (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 29).

11 The majority of respondents (60%) have taught subjects for which they were not qualified. It is possible that the majority of teachers surveyed may have had to do extra work in their own time to ensure that they were equipped to teach the subjects for which they were not qualified. Teachers who are not qualified to teach certain subjects, can develop feelings of inadequacy (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 178).

12 The majority of respondents (57.3%) have indicated that they become annoyed when students fail to answer simple questions. Teachers with a low sense of teaching efficacy find it frustrating to teach such students. Situations such as these could raise the level of stress in teachers (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 66).

4.2.7 Efficacy of the teacher

Table 7: Frequency distribution according to the items on the contextual effects on teachers' sense of efficacy (Items 1-3).

Question Number	AGREE Frequency Percentage	DISAGREE Frequency Percentage	UNCERTAIN Frequency Percentage	TOTAL
1	84	60	6	150
	56%	40%	4%	100
2	52	77	21	150
	34.7%	51.3%	14%	100
3	141	6	3	150
	94%	4%	2%	100

The responses in Table 7 can be explained as follows:

1 The majority of respondents (56%) agreed that their attitude towards their students is dependent on the behaviour of their students. However, a significant portion of respondents (40%) disagreed with this statement.

2 Approximately half of the respondents (51.3%) recorded that their work environment is not conducive to a healthy work performance. This is a major cause of job dissatisfaction.

3 Almost all of the respondents (94%) agreed that it is difficult to teach large classes. Large classes make it difficult for teachers to pay individual attention to their students. It is also not easy to maintain discipline in large classes.

The above responses indicate that many teachers surveyed are faced with poor student attitudes, a poor work environment and large class sizes. These factors impact negatively on teachers' sense of efficacy (Rigby & Bennett, 1996: 52; Ashton & Webb, 1986: 11-13; Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 176-177).

Table 8: Frequency distribution according to the items on the educational environment and teachers' sense of efficacy (Items 4-9).

Question Number	AGREE Frequency Percentage	DISAGREE Frequency Percentage	UNCERTAIN Frequency Percentage	TOTAL
4	70	67	13	150
	46.7%	44.7%	8.6%	100
5	38	86	26	150
	25.3%	57.4%	17.3%	100
6	51	71	28	150
	34%	47.3%	18.7%	100
7	46	79	25	150
	30.7%	52.7%	16.6%	100
8	136	8	6	150
	90.7%	5.3%	4%	100
9	122	8	20	150
	81.4%	5.3%	13.3%	100

The responses in Table 8 can be explained as follows:

4 The number of respondents who agreed that it is difficult to teach weak students (46.7%) is almost the same as the number of respondents who disagreed with this statement (44.7%). Teachers with a higher sense of teaching efficacy would find it challenging to teach weaker students, and those with a lower

sense of teaching efficacy would find it frustrating to teach such students (Dembo & Gibson, 1985: 178).

5 The majority of respondents (57.4%) have indicated that their principal does not develop the capacity of his staff on a regular basis. This correlates with previous research findings where principals had a limited impact on teachers' instructional behaviour (Imants, Van Putten & Leijh, 1994: 12).

6 Almost half of the respondents (47.3%) have indicated that they are not informed of management decisions. Teachers need to be consulted, especially if the decision affects them. The school management team needs to be transparent when making such decisions (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 20).

7 The majority of respondents (52.7%) have indicated that they are not coping well with the changes in education. These changes could cause them immense anxiety and stress (Bandura, 1993: 132).

8 Almost the entire group of respondents (90.7%) agreed that the media has been unkind to the teaching profession. Unsavoury media reports have contributed to the low self-esteem of teachers (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 22).

9 A large majority of respondents (81.4%) agreed that students who perform poorly, lack the necessary motivation. The question that arises is: what attempts have these teachers made to motivate these students? Teachers with a high level of

teaching efficacy will endeavour to motivate even their weakest students (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 24).

The above findings indicate strongly that many teachers surveyed display a low sense of efficacy and find it difficult to cope with the challenges of their educational environment.

Table 9: Frequency distribution according to the items on the problems prevalent in the teaching profession and teachers' sense of efficacy (Items 10-12).

Question Number	AGREE Frequency Percentage	DISAGREE Frequency Percentage	UNCERTAIN Frequency Percentage	TOTAL
10	79	39	32	150
	52.7%	26%	21.3%	100
11	102	48	0	150
	68%	32%	0%	100
12	56	85	9	150
	37.3%	56.7%	6%	100

The responses in Table 9 can be explained as follows:

10 The majority of respondents (52.7%) agreed that there is much uncertainty in the teaching profession. Previous research indicates that teachers face a high degree of uncertainty because they deal with human beings, who are complex to understand (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 42).

11 A large number of respondents (68%) have indicated that there is much disharmony amongst teachers. In previous research, Dembo and Gibson (1985: 180) have found that many teachers prefer to work in isolation from their colleagues, and maintain a low sense of inter-dependence.

12 More than half the respondents (56.7%) have agreed that they spend most of their time assisting weaker students. Teaching weak students can be frustrating for teachers. Students who are low-achieving, are often disruptive and difficult to control (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 66).

The fact that there is so much of uncertainty in the teaching profession could contribute to the disharmony amongst teachers. It is a case of 'survival of the fittest', where each teacher has to take care of his own affairs in order to succeed in the profession. The fact that teachers spend most of their time assisting weaker students could add to their workload and cause them to become fatigued. Such problems, which are prevalent in the teaching profession, can be a source of hindrance to teachers' efficacy.

Table 10: Frequency distribution according to the items on the work environment and teachers' sense of efficacy (Items 13-24).

Question Number	AGREE Frequency Percentage	DISAGREE Frequency Percentage	UNCERTAIN Frequency Percentage	TOTAL
13	65	70	15	150
	43.3%	46.7%	10%	100
14	28	101	21	150
	18.7%	67.3%	14%	100
15	61	43	46	150
	40.7%	28.7%	30.6%	100
16	119	26	5	150
	79.4%	17.3%	3.3%	100
17	132	12	6	150
	88%	8%	4%	100
18	72	61	17	150
	48%	40.7%	11.3%	100
19	144	5	1	150
	96%	3.3%	0.7%	100
20	38	95	17	150
	25.3%	63.4%	11.3%	100
21	118	26	6	150
	78.7%	17.3%	4%	100
22	35	53	62	150
	23.3%	35.4%	41.3%	100
23	130	18	2	150
	86.7%	12%	1.3%	100
24	103	31	16	150
	68.7%	20.7%	10.6%	100

The responses in Table 10 can be explained as follows:

13 The majority of respondents (46.7%) disagreed with the statement that at successful schools, teachers work harder. This indicates that there are many teachers who work very hard, yet their schools are not very successful. It is possible that there are

other factors, such as the school climate, which can contribute to the success of schools (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993: 86).

14 A large majority of respondents (67.3%) have indicated that they do not find their work pleasurable. Probably, it is the unsavoury situation at their schools which causes them to feel this way. Teachers who are unhappy at school, may not be very committed to their work (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 37-38).

15 The majority of respondents (40.7%) have indicated that the management structure at their school is bureaucratic by nature. Furthermore, a further 30.6% of respondents have indicated that they are unsure of whether the management structure is bureaucratic or not. A bureaucratic structure does not allow for much staff participation. This causes teachers to be dissatisfied with their jobs, unmotivated, and less productive (Cooper & Payne, 1988: 327).

16 An overwhelming majority of respondents (79.4%) have indicated that they are frustrated with the lack of resources at school. A lack of relevant resources can hinder the teaching process (Seyfarth, 1996: 102-103).

17 Most respondents agreed that their workload has increased due to the reduction of staff at schools. Teachers are often required to fulfill multiple roles because of the wide range of responsibilities which they have (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 41-42). This can cause teachers to become frustrated with their work.

18 A small majority of respondents (48%) have indicated that personal conflicts at school are a common occurrence. This can cause disharmony amongst teachers.

19 Almost all the respondents (96%) agreed that teaching can be stressful. This correlates with other research findings that there are various factors in the teaching profession that cause teachers to become stressed (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994: 168).

20 The majority of respondents (63.4%) were of the view that their duties and responsibilities are not clearly defined. This is probably due to the uncertainty at many schools. Some teachers are often asked to perform certain tasks whereas others are not asked to perform these tasks. Some teachers perceive this as a threat to their well-being or self-esteem, and could cause them to become anxious and stressed (Rigby & Bennett, 1996: 38).

21 An overwhelming majority of respondents (78.7%) have indicated that the large number of students in their class places them under severe pressure. Large class sizes places an extra burden on the teacher, and it is extremely difficult for teachers to cater for the individual needs of students (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994: 168).

22 At least a third of the respondents (35.4%) disagreed with the statement that the community appreciates their efforts at school. A larger number of respondents (41.3%) are unsure of whether the community appreciates their efforts or not. This indicates that the teachers surveyed, do not get much recognition from the

school community. This is a factor which contributes to anxiety and stress in teachers (Seyfarth, 1996: 200).

23 Most of the respondents (86.7%) have indicated that they sometimes take a huge load of work home. This places an additional burden on the already heavy workload of teachers.

24 The majority of respondents (68.7%) have indicated that they are required to perform extra duties after school hours. Research has indicated that such increasing demands that are made on teachers have led to an escalation of work stress (Van Zyl & Pieterson, 1999: 74; Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 327).

The above discussion indicates the following:

- Most teachers surveyed are subjected to a heavy workload.

- Many teachers surveyed find their work stressful.

- Some of the basic needs of the teachers surveyed are not fulfilled in their work situation, such as the need for recognition and self-esteem, the need for social affiliation, and the need for personal security. In the main, there are certain factors in the work environment, which stifle their sense of efficacy.

4.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

4.3.1 Introduction

Inferential statistics are estimates, which are used to make inferences about the population, on the basis of corresponding values obtained for samples that are drawn randomly from the population (Schumacher & Meillon, 1993: 192; Huysamen, 1989: 5). Inferential statistics are often used because many research questions require the estimation of population characteristics from an available sample. Calculations in inferential are used to make inferences about variables, and not simply to describe the data that are captured from the sample (Kidder & Judd, 1986: 263).

4.3.2 Variables

A variable is a characteristic, property, or attribute of a concept that takes on different values (De Vos, 1998: 112). Such variables have numbers, values, or symbols assigned to them. Variables may either be independent or dependent.

(1) Independent variables

The independent variable is the variable that is manipulated by the researcher (De Vos, 1998: 113). It is a variable that is thought to influence another variable. The independent variable is the variable that is predicted from.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher selected the following as independent variables:

- Gender of respondents.
- Age of respondents.
- Teaching experience of respondents.

(2) Dependent variables

The dependent variable is the presumed effect, which varies concomitantly with changes or variation in the independent variable (De Vos, 1998: 113). It is the variable that is not manipulated by the researcher, and is predicted to.

In this study, the dependent variables were selected from the range of questions on the questionnaire (Appendix A). The questions reflected aspects of the life-world and efficacy of the teacher. The dependent variables for the different relationships selected in terms of gender, age, and teaching experience are outlined in Chapter 3, under sub-heading 3.7.2. The correct sequence and numbering of items appear in the questionnaire (Appendix A).

4.3.3 The Hypothesis

According to Mouton and Marais (Garbers, 1996: 289) a hypothesis is a statement that specifies an assumed relationship between two or more phenomena or variables. It should be testable by applying logical and

conceptual reasoning. Researchers should be able to confirm or refute a research hypothesis (Garbers, 1996: 290). A single hypothesis allows for only one implication to be confirmed or disconfirmed (Sax, 1979: 63).

In behavioural research, the statistical hypothesis is usually a null hypothesis, that is, no real effect (Katzer, Cook & Crouch, 1998: 150). Statistical inference is a procedure for rejecting the null hypothesis so that the alternative hypothesis can be confirmed. The alternative can only be accepted if the null is rejected and there is no better alternative. Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991: 39) state that the null hypothesis and its alternative must be mutually exclusive, that is, when one is true, the other must be false.

The research hypothesis for this study is formulated as follows:

- A relation exists between the teacher's experience of the teaching situation and his efficacy, that is, the power to produce the effect wanted.

4.3.4 The Chi-square (X^2 statistical test of significance)

The Chi-square technique is a test of significance which is used to compare observed frequencies with expected frequencies (Ary, Jacobs & Rozavieh, 1985: 47). This technique is used to measure the discrepancy between observed and expected frequencies. Observed frequencies are obtained empirically and expected frequencies are based on hypotheses or theoretical speculation.

In this study, the following independent variables have been chosen:

- Gender of respondents.
- Age of respondents.
- Teaching experience of respondents.

These independent variables were cross-tabulated with the dependent variables, that is, the items on the questionnaire (Appendix A) which concern the life-world of the teacher (Part A, Items 1-12) and the efficacy of the teacher (Part B, Items 1-24). The Chi-square (X^2) and p-values were calculated. This was followed by an analysis and discussion of the results. In each table, research hypotheses can be formulated in terms of the relationship between the gender, age and teaching experience of respondents. Accordingly, a number of null hypotheses could be formulated. According to the Chi-square (X^2) and p-value for each question, the null hypotheses can be either accepted or rejected based on the following:

- If the value of $p < 0.05$ the relationship is significant.
- If $p < 0.01$ the relationship is highly significant.
- If $p > 0.05$ the relationship is insignificant.

Critical values for X^2 are taken at the 5% and 1% levels.

4.3.5 The relationship between the respondents' *gender*, *age group* and *teaching experience* and the items on the life-world of the teacher

Table 11: The Chi-square and p-value of the independent variables against the factors concerning the life-world of the teacher.

Question Number	Gender	Age Group	Teaching Experience
	n = 2 df = (2)	n = 16 df = (16)	n = 10 df = (10)
1	2.411 0.3	19.681 0.235	7.264 0.7
2	4.321 0.115	37.863 0.002**	16.214 0.094
3	3.499 0.174	17.943 0.327	19.815 0.031*
4	1.304 0.521	25.724 0.058	14.005 0.173
5	4.264 0.119	13.625 0.627	16.895 0.077
6	1.014 0.602	15.729 0.472	3.494 0.967
7	1.22 0.543	20.466 0.2	7.492 0.678
8	0.611 0.737	8.895 0.918	9.997 0.441
9	5.864 0.053	14.79 0.54	6.924 0.733
10	1.516 0.469	19.715 0.233	12.723 0.24
11	2.337 0.311	11.816 0.757	3.108 0.979
12	10.124 0.006**	31.246 0.013*	7.082 0.718

Key: * Significant at 5% level ($p < 0.05$ but $p > 0.01$)

** Significant at 1% level ($p < 0.01$)

The results indicate a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) between the respondents' age group and item 12 in Table 11. Older teachers tend to become annoyed when students fail to answer simple questions.

A significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) exists between the teaching experience of the respondents and item 3 in Table 11. Less experienced teachers feel that they can trust their colleagues.

The relationship is highly significant ($p < 0.01$) between the gender of the respondents and item 12 in Table 11. Men become more annoyed when students fail to answer simple questions.

A highly significant relationship ($p < 0.01$) exists between the age group of the respondents and item 2 of the table. Older people tend to agree that teaching is a secure profession.

The null hypotheses of the above items are rejected because there is either a significant or a highly significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables as indicated in the cross tabulation in Table 11. For the rest of the items in the table, the p-value is larger than 0.05. This indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. Therefore, the null hypotheses for these items have to be accepted.

4.3.6 The relationship between the respondents' *gender*, *age group* and *teaching experience* and the items on the contextual effects on teachers' sense of efficacy

Table 12: The Chi-square and p-value of the independent variables against the factors concerning the contextual effects on teachers' sense of efficacy.

Question Number	Gender	Age Group	Teaching Experience
	n = 2 df = (2)	n = 16 df = (16)	n = 10 df = (10)
1	5.229 0.073	14.824 0.538	16.136 0.096
2	3.384 0.136	13.121 0.664	10.31 0.414
3	0.174 0.917	8.45 0.934	10.053 0.436

For the items in Table 12, the value of p is greater than 0.05. This indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Therefore, the null hypotheses for these items have to be accepted.

4.3.7 The relationship between the respondents' *gender, age group* and *teaching experience* and the items on the educational environment and teachers' sense of efficacy

Table 13: The Chi-square and p-value of the independent variables against the factors concerning the educational environment and teachers' sense of efficacy.

Question Number	Gender	Age Group	Teaching Experience
	n = 2 df = (2)	n = 16 df = (16)	n = 10 df = (10)
4	1.655 0.437	16.61 0.411	10.368 0.409
5	0.424 0.809	17.987 0.325	22.318 0.014*
6	1.556 0.459	26.592 0.046*	11.518 0.319
7	0.048 0.976	10.155 0.858	4.239 0.936
8	1.353 0.508	24.442 0.08	8.973 0.535
9	3.598 0.165	19.53 0.242	7.399 0.687

Key: * Significant at 5% level ($p < 0.05$ but $p > 0.01$)

According to Table 13, a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) is evident between the age group of the respondents and item 6. Older teachers tend to be well informed of management decisions.

A significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) exists between the teaching experience of the respondents and item 5. More experienced teachers

feel that their principal endeavours to develop the capacity of his staff on a continuous basis.

The null hypotheses for the above items are rejected because there is a significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables. For the other items in Table 13, the p-value is greater than 0.05. Accordingly, the null hypotheses for these items have to be accepted.

4.3.8 The relationship between the respondents' *gender, age group* and *teaching experience* and the items on the problems prevalent in the teaching profession and teachers' sense of efficacy

Table 14: The Chi-square and p-value of the independent variables against the factors concerning the problems prevalent in the teaching profession and teachers' sense of efficacy.

Question Number	Gender	Age Group	Teaching Experience
	n = 2 df = (2)	n = 16 df = (16)	n = 10 df = (10)
10	1.571 0.456	5.18 0.995	15.129 0.127
11	1.502 0.22	10.062 0.261	7.562 0.182
12	1.453 0.483	21.656 0.155	8.056 0.623

For the items in Table 14, the value of p is greater than 0.05. This indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. As a result, the null hypotheses for these items have to be accepted.

4.3.9 The relationship between the respondents' *gender*, *age group* and *teaching experience* and the items on the work environment and teachers' sense of efficacy

Table 15: The Chi-square and p-value of the independent variables against the factors concerning the work environment and teachers' sense of efficacy.

Question Number	Gender	Age Group	Teaching Experience
	n = 2 df = (2)	n = 16 df = (16)	n = 10 df = (10)
13	3.209 0.201	15.995 0.453	6.114 0.806
14	1.345 0.51	12.161 0.733	5.117 0.883
15	2.134 0.344	19.149 0.261	4.944 0.895
16	0.657 0.72	11.969 0.746	3.494 0.967
17	2.43 0.297	18.59 0.29	10.689 0.382
18	2.324 0.31	14.623 0.552	9.228 0.511
19	0.785 0.676	14.104 0.591	35.106 0**
20	1.366 0.505	18.028 0.322	11.974 0.287
21	12.039 0.002**	27.597 0.035*	5.249 0.874
22	4.505 0.105	12.628 0.7	13.572 0.193
23	2.053 0.358	17.339 0.364	9.954 0.445
24	4.506 0.105	23.487 0.101	7.152 0.711

Key: * Significant at 5% level ($p < 0.05$ but $p > 0.01$)

** Significant at 1% level ($p < 0.01$)

The results indicate a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) between the respondents' age group and item 21 in Table 15. Younger teachers tend to feel pressurised by the large number of students in their class.

The relationship is highly significant ($p < 0.01$) between the gender of the respondents and item 21 in Table 15. Women feel more pressurised by large classes.

A highly significant relationship ($p < 0.01$) exists between the teaching experience of the respondents and item 19 of the table. More experienced teachers feel that teaching is stressful.

The null hypotheses of the above items are rejected because there is either a significant or a highly significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables as indicated in the cross tabulation in Table 15. For the rest of the items in the table, the p-value is larger than 0.05. This indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. Therefore, the null hypotheses for these items have to be accepted.

4.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research data was interpreted and analysed. The researcher attempted to provide some order to the range of information provided by the respondents (level 1 teachers) to the questions in the questionnaire (Appendix A). Some of the data were of a factual or demographic nature. This assisted the researcher to construct a broad profile of the sample selected for this investigation.

The data collected was organised using frequency distribution tables. The scanned data was transferred to a data analysis programme. Thereafter, the data was analysed using inferential techniques. This was followed by a discussion of the findings.

Several significant findings have emanated from this study. This gave rise to some serious recommendations for the benefit of the relevant stakeholders. The final chapter of this study will provide a summary of the literature study and the empirical investigation, as well as a few important recommendations.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS PAGE

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This being the final chapter of the thesis, a summary of the previous chapters will be presented and some of the most important findings from the research will be discussed. This will be followed by a few recommendations, some criticism that evolves from this study, and a final remark from the researcher.

5.2 SUMMARY

5.2.1 Orientation

The problem addressed in this study concerns the effectiveness of teachers in performing optimally in the classroom. Not all teachers are equally adept at producing learning, and some schools are more effective than others at increasing academic achievement (Seyfarth, 1996: 92). There are various reasons for this, and the challenges which teachers face, are two fold. One of the challenges they grapple with is actualising their potential as teachers in an environment which stifles their potential. The other challenge is that many teachers lack the motivation and expertise to teach effectively in the classroom. The possession of knowledge does not make a teacher effective in the classroom. What is required is for him to be able to use this knowledge to conceive of his teaching in purposeful terms, to size up a particular teaching situation, to use a teaching approach that is appropriate to a

particular situation, and to evaluate the results in relation to the original purpose.

5.2.2 Teacher efficacy

It was essential to explore the life-world of the teacher in order to ascertain what influence his teaching experience has on his efficacy. The life-world of the teacher includes everything in his life, such as his geographical world, the people in it, the objects in it, the systems, forces, attitudes, ideas, and his self (Vrey, 1990: 14-18). The life-world of the teacher consists of various relationships to which he assigns meanings. These in turn have an influence on his efficacy.

As an educator, the teacher needs to actualise his potential fully. He can only do this if his primary physiological and psychological needs are fulfilled. By self-actualising, the teacher makes a deliberate effort to realise his latent potential. This would include every area of his manual skill, intellectual capacity, emotional experience, and moral awareness (Vrey, 1990: 43). When a teacher finds an activity that is meaningful to him, he develops himself through his involvement in it.

Research has shown that there is a distinct relationship between teachers' motivation and commitment to work, and student achievement. Motivation is usually rooted in human needs. Besides the need to self-actualise, teachers have other needs, such as: basic physiological needs, need for safety and security, the need to belong and be accepted by others, and the need to be recognised by others. Teachers are motivated towards higher achievement as these needs are fulfilled (Owens, 1991: 107).

The experiences of the teacher take place within his relationship with others. Within the teaching environment, the teacher enters into a mutual relationship with students, colleagues, parents, and other stakeholders. The teacher enters into such relationships with the hope of fulfilling his need for self-actualisation. However, this is often not possible because of the problems which accompany such complex relationships.

Beliefs of efficacy have an influence on how teachers feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave (Bandura, 1993: 118). Those with higher beliefs of efficacy perform better than those with lower beliefs of efficacy. Teachers' sense of efficacy has a direct link with their motivation, commitment to work, and student performance and achievement. The efficacy expectations which teachers have, influence their thoughts and feelings, their choice of activities, the amount of effort that they are prepared to expend, and the extent to which they are prepared to persist when faced with obstacles (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 3).

There are two distinct dimensions of teachers' sense of efficacy: sense of teaching efficacy and sense of personal teaching efficacy (Selaledi, 1999: 266). Sense of teaching efficacy refers to teachers' beliefs that they can influence student learning. This dimension emphasises that teachers have specific expectations for specific learners in specific situations (Selaledi, 1999: 266). Teachers with a high sense of efficacy believe that all their students are capable of learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 4). Those with a low sense of efficacy believe that students who perform poorly cannot improve, regardless of any corrective measures.

Sense of personal teaching efficacy refers to the individual teacher's assessment of his own teaching competence (Selaledi, 1999: 266). It is concerned with the belief that one can successfully execute the behaviour which is required to produce the necessary outcomes. The beliefs that teachers have of their own teaching capabilities have an influence on their work performance.

Teachers who have a low sense of teaching efficacy will usually avoid situations in which they lack the confidence in their ability to perform successfully. Such teachers are not very confident of their instructional efficacy. As a result, they devote little time towards academic activities, and spend little time on weaker students. They do not hesitate to criticise students who are weak. Such attitudes are detrimental to the development of cognitive skills in students (Bandura, 1986: 431).

Certain contextual factors have an influence on teachers' sense of efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 9). Teachers have certain perceptions of their work, which are subjective, and may differ considerably from the way others see things. Such subjective perceptions have an effect on the behaviour of teachers. Teachers' sense of efficacy is also influenced by other dimensions, either directly or indirectly. Their sense of efficacy is reciprocally determined in that it affects their behaviour, and is, in turn, influenced by their perceptions of the consequences of that behaviour. The environment in which the teacher works also has an influence on his sense of efficacy .

There are many factors in the educational environment that have an effect on teachers' sense of efficacy (Imant, Van Putten & Leijh, 1994: 12; Ashton & Webb, 1986: 13). One such factor is the classroom,

where the teacher and students spend most of their time. Aspects such as the personality of the teacher, the behaviour of the students, the class size, and the type of activity that takes place in the classroom, all have an effect on the efficacy of the teacher. Other aspects such as the size of the school, the relationship between the teacher and principal and teacher and parents, the decision-making structures, and the teacher's relationship with colleagues, have an effect on his efficacy. Teachers' sense of efficacy is frequently influenced by the formal and informal social structures, such as the home environment, the nature of the school district, the state and national legislative agencies, and the mass media. The cultural beliefs and ideologies which teachers adhere to also have an impact on their sense of efficacy.

Teachers' satisfaction with their jobs has a reciprocal influence on their sense of efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 95). If teachers are unhappy with their jobs, they may begin to question their professional competence. Teachers may be dissatisfied with various aspects of their jobs, such as: their salaries, conditions of work, and workload. Presently, there is much uncertainty and confusion in the teaching profession. Teachers do not enjoy a high professional self-esteem, nor do they receive much recognition for the effort which they put into their work. Teachers are often frustrated with the system in which they are working. They are even asked to teach subjects for which they are not qualified. This places them under severe stress, and in turn, has an effect on their professional self-esteem and competence.

5.2.3 Planning the empirical research

In this study, the researcher made use of the questionnaire as the database. The questionnaire was used because it was the most appropriate research instrument in obtaining information which was not available from any other source, and had to be acquired directly from respondents. The questionnaire has the advantage of being easily adapted to a variety of applications.

The questionnaire was administered to level 1 teachers at selected schools in the North Durban Region. The researcher had to first obtain the necessary permission from the Regional Chief Director before approaching the principals of the selected schools where the research was to be conducted. A total of 150 questionnaires had been completed and returned to the researcher.

The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding the status of teacher efficacy in a number of selected schools in KwaZulu-Natal. The questions were formulated to establish whether teachers' work experience had any influence on their efficacy. This was determined by eliciting responses to the following aspects of the teacher's work:

- Life-world of the teacher.
- Contextual effects on teachers' sense of efficacy.
- Educational environment and teachers' sense of efficacy.

- Problems prevalent in the teaching profession.

- Work environment and teachers' sense of efficacy.

5.2.4 Presentation and analysis of research data

According to the findings from the inferential statistics, it can be concluded that the independent variables, that is, the gender, age, and teaching experience of teachers, have a significant relationship in only a few aspects of the life-world of the teacher and the efficacy of the teacher. The following conclusions can be drawn:

- A highly significant relationship exists between the gender of the respondents and men becoming annoyed when students fail to answer simple questions.

- A highly significant relationship exists between the age group of the respondents and older teachers agreeing that teaching is a secure job.

- A highly significant relationship exists between the gender of the respondents and women being pressurised by the large number of students in their class.

- A highly significant relationship exists between the teaching experience of the respondents and more experienced teachers agreeing that teaching can be stressful.

5.2.5 Aims of the study

Specific aims were formulated by the researcher (cf. 1.5) to direct the course of this study. These aims were realised through the study of relevant literature, as well as through the medium of an empirical survey consisting of a structured questionnaire. On the basis of the aims and findings of this study, certain recommendations are offered.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.3.1 Developing teachers professionally

(1) Motivation

The chief resource in any school is its staff. For the school to progress efficiently, it is essential that the members of staff are continuously developed. Seyfarth (1996: 129) defines professional development as any activity or process intended to improve skills, attitudes, understanding or performance in present or future roles. Professional development refers to "...life-long development programmes which focus on a wide range of knowledge, skills and attitudes" in the teacher, in order to enable him to educate students more effectively (Steyn, 1999: 207). Professional development is concerned with the promotion of personal and professional growth in a formal and systematic way. Personal development refers to the self-development of teachers so that they may take responsibility for their own growth.

Professional development programmes are necessary to develop teachers. Van der Westhuizen (1991: 273) states that the professional

growth of teachers "...is of paramount importance for the outstanding fulfilment of tasks, so that the teaching/educational situation in each classroom will be maximally effective". Professional development provides opportunities for teachers to acquire new skills and attitudes that can lead to the changes in behaviour that result in increased student achievement (Seyfarth, 1996: 129). If schools are to improve, teachers need to develop individually and collectively (Reynolds, Bollen & Creemers, 1996: 121). For the whole school to develop, teachers need opportunities for development, on an on-going basis.

Teachers need to constantly keep abreast of the latest trends in their subject and teaching methods if they wish to be successful in their jobs. The success of professional development programmes lie in their ability to be proactive rather than reactive. By being proactive, professional development programmes should be designed to extend the personal strengths of teachers. To withstand the demands of present times, teachers require constant development in various areas. The astute teacher does not wait for an outside body to help him grow professionally. He is always on the lookout for opportunities for professional growth. Opportunities such as self-study to increase one's knowledge and insight, in-service courses, subject committee meetings, and even good advice from an experienced teacher "...make a valuable and fruitful contribution to a teacher's efficacy in the classroom" (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 274).

(2) Recommendation

Professional development programmes require the co-operation of all the stakeholders in education. The following are some ways in which teachers can be developed professionally:

- In-service training. In order to enhance their performance, teachers have to undergo formal and informal training to sharpen their knowledge and insight. Teachers need to be regularly updated on the latest information so that they may adapt to changes in subject knowledge and educational methodology.

- Teacher appraisal. Waghid (1996: 81) states that "...effective teaching and learning cannot take place without a system of teacher appraisal". Teacher appraisal functions as a mechanism of ensuring checks and balances by monitoring the work of teachers (Jantjes, 1996: 53). It is used to identify strengths and weaknesses in teachers (Woods & Orlik, 1994: 11). Once the weaknesses are identified, they can be remedied through the use of in-service training programmes. Busher and Saran (1995: 200) outline three stages of teacher development which they believe are important: induction of new teachers, widening expertise, and preparing for the next career phase, including retirement. Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1992: 114-125) propose the following three dimensions of teacher development: development of professional expertise, psychological development, and career-cycle development.

- Communication. Communication channels are the means through which individuals can share feelings, purposes, and knowledge. Wainwright (1993: 82) believes that it is essential for teachers to develop good listening skills for effective communication to take place. An effective communication system ensures that all members of staff are timeously informed of relevant issues. Furthermore, members of school management teams should communicate their feelings, especially those that are positive, to teachers. "Catch people doing something right and tell them so, criticise behaviour, but never undermine the person" (Greenwood & Gaunt, 1994: 69).

- Decision-making. In the spirit of democracy, decision-making should be participative. This contributes to better decisions being made, and it enhances the growth and development of teachers. Teachers should be empowered to make decisions, thereby making them responsible and accountable for those decisions. Participative decision-making also contributes to effective teambuilding. This ensures that everyone in a team gets an opportunity to develop professionally (Chivers, 1995: 1).

- Time management. Good time management improves standards of achievement (Nelson, 1995: 2). Teachers find that they often do not complete the various tasks which they have scheduled for the day. They need to organise their time properly so that they are able to achieve their objectives within the allotted time. This involves good planning and organisation by the teacher. "Time structures and systems should be planned and designed, not just allowed to grow" (Knight, 1989: 1).

5.3.2 Reforming teaching conditions

(1) Motivation

There are certain problems that need to be addressed if teachers are to develop and maintain positive efficacy attitudes within the school context. Teachers need to undertake initiatives which are designed to improve their work conditions and efficacy attitudes. Such initiatives should have the potential for improving education by reducing teacher isolation and uncertainty, by facilitating channels of communication between the various stakeholders, by supporting innovation, by constructing systems to evaluate changes, and by democraticising the school workplace.

(2) Recommendation

Reforming teaching conditions involves transforming the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem.

- Transforming the microsystem. Teachers need to learn to cope with the efficacy threats posed by low-achieving students. This can be achieved through increasing teachers' skills in classroom management and instruction. Teachers need to maintain positive relations with students if they are to motivate them. It is therefore necessary for teachers to develop good human relations skills so that they can maintain positive interactions with their students. "Teachers especially need to learn how to maintain positive attitudes when students become hostile" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 168).

- Transforming the mesosystem. Teachers need to cooperate with one another so that they can plan their work together. In order to do this, they require time during school hours for such cooperative planning. Teachers must be given the opportunity to participate in school decisions at various levels. Furthermore, teachers and parents need to form alliances that are mutually supportive. In this way, teachers will regard parents as allies rather than see them as a threat.

- Transforming the exosystem. The exosystem has a powerful effect on teachers' efficacy attitudes. The inadequate salaries of teachers causes them to experience some economic hardship. Because their salary is not commensurate with other middle-class occupations, teachers begin to doubt their worth. There is a need to assess the salaries of teachers with a view to improving them to realistic standards. The government also needs to look at providing more incentives to motivate teachers to perform better. Furthermore, the government needs to consult with a broad spectrum of teachers before passing legislation on issues concerning education. Teachers need to 'buy into' such legislation to minimise any opposition.

- Transforming the macrosystem. The values which society hold have an effect on teachers' sense of efficacy. "The low status conferred on teachers adds to their declining self-esteem" (Ashton & Webb, 1986: 173). One of the ways of promoting efficacy in teachers is for the public to change its negative attitude towards them. Furthermore, teachers with a low sense of efficacy often blame students' learning problems to the students'

lack of ability. Such beliefs need to change if teachers are to make a difference to students' learning.

5.3.3 Job satisfaction

(1) Motivation

Job satisfaction is a feeling of pleasure which results from an individual's perception of his work (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999: 37). Teachers are generally dissatisfied with several aspects of their work. This causes them to become de-motivated and disillusioned with their jobs. As a result, they are not as productive as they should be in the classroom.

(2) Recommendation

The following aspects may enhance the job satisfaction in teachers:

- Greater incentives. The Department of Education needs to consider re-instating the granting of merit awards to teachers who excel in their work. However, the criteria for granting these awards must be transparent, fair, and free from any nepotism or bias. Teachers who obtain higher qualifications, should be remunerated accordingly. Teachers also need to be paid for any extra work which they do.

- Smaller classes. The Department of Education needs to seriously review the annual Post Provisioning Norm (PPN) which is used to determine the number of educators that a school is entitled to

have. A comfortable ratio may be 1:30 (+2), where the maximum number of students in a class will be 30. The additional two teachers would take care of the non-teaching periods for management personnel.

- Teaching workload. The workload of teachers needs to be reduced to allow them sufficient time to plan and prepare adequately for their classes, especially if they have to teach more than one learning area. Extra-curricular and sports duties should not be the responsibility of curricular teachers. Furthermore, teachers should be relieved of the additional responsibility of collecting school fees and other monies from students.

5.3.4 Reducing stress in the workplace

(1) Motivation

At some stage in their teaching career, all teachers undergo feelings of stress and anxiety. This is due to the type of work that is expected of them. Stress is a physical, mental or emotional reaction which results from a teacher's response to environmental tension, conflict, and pressure (Van der Westhuizen, 1991: 329). According to Bandura (1993: 132) the beliefs which people have of their capabilities affect how much stress and depression they experience in situations that are threatening or difficult. Stress is affected not only by perceived coping efficacy, but also by perceived efficacy to control disturbing thoughts. Perceived self-efficacy to control thought processes is a key factor in regulating thought produced stress and depression.

(2) Recommendation

Stress in teachers is not likely to disappear, but it can be controlled or reduced. The following guidelines can help to reduce the level of stress at school:

- The existing stress reducers at school should be identified and assessed, for example, participation in sports, frequent breaks, more free time for preparation, cooperative decision-making, etcetera.

- Stress education should be made available to all members of staff. This can be done through in-service training, workshops, seminars, and talks. Teachers must support one another in this drive since stress is not an isolated problem affecting a few teachers.

- Stress should not be treated as a separate school problem. Stress control should form part of the whole school policy since it is relevant to all situations at school.

- Meetings should be conducted to discuss strategies to cope with stress. In this way, all teachers will be trained to cope effectively with stressful situations.

- Teachers displaying symptoms of stress should not be stigmatised as being incompetent or as having some personality defect. Instead, such teachers should be supported and assisted.

- Counselling is an effective way of addressing the problem of stress. Schools should enlist the services of trained counsellors for this purpose.

- The idea of maintaining a healthy lifestyle should be constantly promoted.

- The communication process should facilitate the dissemination of information in an efficient manner. According to Cooper and Payne (1988: 327) the "...provision of information functions to reduce employee ambiguity and, therefore, distress".

- Decision-making should be shared because teachers need to have a say in decisions that affect their work. Research has shown that participative decision-making leads to lower employee distress, and absenteeism (Cooper & Payne, 1988: 327).

- Good networking systems should be put in place. A strong networking system can help teachers to cope with the stress of dealing with the uncertainty and chaos that is present in the profession (Fisher, 1995: 22). Effective networking relieves the anxiety and threat of possible changes.

- Conflict should be reduced wherever possible. Confrontation should be avoided and replaced by constructive debate.

- Teachers should be given recognition where it is due.

5.4 FURTHER RESEARCH

A number of important areas need to be addressed in future investigations. Researchers need to examine the relationship between teacher efficacy, and the persistence of tasks which are assigned to them. They also need to examine the relationship between teacher efficacy and teacher decision-making, particularly in the area of classroom organisation and management. Perhaps, decisions concerning student grouping, or whether to use cooperative, competitive, or individualistic reward structures, are based on teachers' confidence in their ability to control the behaviour of students. More research is needed on the relationship between efficacy and organisational patterns and climate.

It is recommended that further research on the efficacy of teachers be undertaken. The research sample should be much larger and it should include urban and rural schools.

5.5 CRITICISM

The following criticism emanates from the study:

- It may not be correct to generalise the findings to the teachers attached to all 134 schools in the City of Durban district. The elimination of the 35 inaccessible schools could have led to a systematic sampling error in the sense that the reasons for eliminating the schools from the sample could have been the very reasons for low teacher efficacy in those schools.

- It is possible that not all respondents were quite frank when answering the questionnaire. Groups of teachers may have discussed the answers before indicating their responses.

- For some reason, very little co-operation was received from the ex-HOA schools. This meant that much of the results were based on the remainder of the population.

- Promoting efficacy in teachers may not have been accurately determined by means of a questionnaire alone. As an additional source of information, a structured interview may have helped to confirm the information, thereby providing a more reliable outcome.

5.6 FINAL REMARK

The aim of this study was to institute certain guidelines according to which accountable support can be initiated to equip teachers to perform effectively as educators. It is trusted that this study will be of value to the various stakeholders of education. It is hoped that the recommendations will be implemented to enhance the efficacy in teachers so that the broader aims of education can be fulfilled.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

QUESTIONNAIRE

THE EFFICACY OF TEACHERS IN A NUMBER OF SELECTED SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU-NATAL

I. RANGRAJE

QUESTIONNAIRE TO TEACHERS REGARDING THEIR EFFICACY

PLEASE COMPLETE BY INSERTING AN "X" IN THE APPROPRIATE BLOCK.

SECTION 1 : BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1.1 Gender:

☐ Male ☐ Female

1.2 Marital status:

☐ Single ☐ Married

☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed

1.3 Age group:

☐ 20 - 25 ☐ 26 - 30

☐ 31 - 35 ☐ 36 - 40

☐ 41 - 45 ☐ 46 - 50

☐ 51 - 55 ☐ 56 - 60

☐ 61 - 65

1.4 Highest qualification:

☐ Matric ☐ Diploma

☐ Degree

1.5 Teaching experience:

☐ 1 - 10 years ☐ 11 - 15 years

☐ 16 - 20 years ☐ 21 - 25 years

☐ 26 - 30 years ☐ 31 - 35 years

☐ 36 - 40 years ☐ 41 - 45 years

SECTION 2

INSTRUCTIONS TO RESPONDENTS:

1. Please read each statement carefully before indicating your response.
2. Please make sure that you do not omit a question or skip a page.
3. Please be totally frank when giving your opinion.
4. Please do not discuss statements with colleagues.
5. Please return the questionnaire after completion.
6. THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

PLEASE COMPLETE BY INSERTING AN "X" IN THE BLOCK WHICH BEST REPRESENTS YOUR VIEW.

EXAMPLE:

I LOVE TEACHING.

If you agree with this statement:

Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
X		

If you disagree with this statement:

Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
	X	

If you neither agree nor disagree with this statement, but are uncertain:

Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
		X

PART A : LIFE-WORLD

All statements which follow bear reference to the life-world of the level 1 teacher. Please express your feelings on the following statements:

No	Statement	Response		
		Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
1	My salary is adequate for my basic needs.			
2	Teaching is a secure job.			
3	I can trust my colleagues.			
4	My principal often asks my opinion on professional matters.			
5	My work as a teacher helps me to realise my full potential.			
6	Teaching is a rewarding task.			
7	I become annoyed with students who display a poor attitude toward their work.			
8	Parents should have more say in the running of schools.			
9	I enjoy a healthy relationship with parents.			
10	At school, I feel that my views count.			
11	I have only taught subjects which I am qualified for.			
12	I become annoyed when students fail to answer simple questions.			

PART B : EFFICACY

All statements which follow bear reference to efficacy in level 1 teachers. Please express your feelings on the following statements:

No	Statement	Response		
		Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
1	My attitude toward my students is dependent on their behaviour.			
2	The environment which I work in is conducive to healthy work performance.			
3	It is difficult to teach large classes.			
4	It is difficult to teach weak students.			
5	My principal endeavours to develop the capacity of his staff on a continuous basis.			
6	I am well informed of management decisions.			
7	I am coping well with the changes in education.			
8	Unsavoury media reports often bring the teaching profession into disrepute.			
9	Students who perform poorly, lack the necessary motivation.			
10	In the teaching profession, there is so much uncertainty.			
11	Due to the disharmony amongst staff members, I prefer to keep to myself.			
12	I spend most of my time assisting weaker students.			
13	At successful schools, teachers work harder.			
14	I derive immense pleasure from my work.			
15	The management structure at my school is bureaucratic by nature.			
16	The lack of resources at school is frustrating.			
17	Staff reductions have led to an increased workload for teachers.			
18	Personal conflicts with colleagues are a common occurrence at school.			
19	Teaching can be stressful.			
20	My duties and responsibilities as a teacher are clearly defined.			
21	The large number of students in my class places me under severe pressure.			
22	The community appreciates my efforts at school.			
23	I sometimes take a huge load of work home.			
24	I am required to perform extra-curricular activities after school hours.			

APPENDIX B

REQUEST TO THE NORTH DURBAN REGIONAL CHIEF DIRECTOR

P.O. Box 70054
OVERPORT
4067

Tel: (031) 208 0928

15 March 2002

The Regional Chief Director
North Durban Region
Private Bag X54323
Durban
4000

Sir

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON:
THE EFFICACY OF TEACHERS IN A NUMBER OF SELECTED SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU-NATAL

I am currently conducting research based on the above-mentioned topic as part of my D.Ed. degree under the supervision of Professor G. Urbani and Dr A. van der Merwe at the Durban Umlazi Campus of the University of Zululand. As part of my studies, level 1 teachers from selected schools in your region are expected to complete the questionnaire. I have enclosed a copy of the questionnaire, as well as a letter from my promoter, for your perusal.

I require permission to approach principals of schools in the North Durban Region to administer the questionnaire. Information gathered in this research will offer invaluable assistance to the various stakeholders of education in this country.

Yours faithfully

Rangraje

I. RANGRAJE

APPENDIX C

LETTER FROM MY PROMOTER TO CONFIRM MY STUDENT STATUS

University of Zululand:

DURBAN-UMLAZI CAMPUS

Private Bag X10
ISIPINGO 4110
South Africa
031-9075055
Fax: 031-9073011

Ref.

10-03-2002

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that Mr I Rangraje is currently registered for the D Ed degree at the University of Zululand (Durban-Umlazi Campus) under the supervision of Prof G Urbani and Dr A Van der Merwe.

Research topic: The Efficacy of Teachers in a Number of Selected Schools in KwaZulu-Natal
Student Number: 013014

Dr A Van der Merwe
Dept. Educational Psychology

APPENDIX D

LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION FROM THE NORTH DURBAN REGIONAL CHIEF DIRECTOR

PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
ISIFUNDAZWE SAKWAZULU-NATAL
PROVINSIE KWAZULU-NATAL

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
UMNYANGO WEMFUNDO NAMASIKO
DEPARTEMENT VAN ONDERWYS EN KULTUUR

NORTH DURBAN REGION | **ISIFUNDAZWE SENYAKATHO NETHEKU.** | **NOORD DURBAN STREEK**

Address:	Truro House	Private Bag:	Private Bag X54323	Telephone:	(031) 360-6265
Ikheli:	17 Victoria Embankment	Isikhwama Seposi:	Durban	Ucingo:	EXAM HELP DESK
Adres:	Esplanade	Privaatsak:	4000	Telefoon:	
				Fax:	(031) 332-1126
Enquiries:	DR D.W.M. EDLEY	Reference:		Date:	
Imibuzo:	360 6247	Inkomba:	15/2/1	Usuku:	20 MARCH 2002
Navrae:		Verwysing:		Datum:	

Mr I. Rangraje
24 Dunnottar Avenue
Asherville
4091

Fax: 208 0928

Dear Mr Rangraje,

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: NORTH DURBAN REGION

1. Your letter dated 15 March 2002 refers.

2. You are hereby granted permission to conduct research in Schools in the North Durban Region, as set out in your application. The permission is subject to the following conditions:

   a. No School/person may be forced to participate in the study;
   b. Access to the schools you wish to utilize is to be negotiated with the principals concerned;
   c. The normal teaching and learning programme of the schools is not to be disrupted.
   d. The confidentiality of the participants is respected; and
   e. A copy of your research findings must be lodged with the Regional Senior Manager (Act), upon completion of your studies.
   f. <u>If you are a serving educator in the employ of KZNDEC, you accept that such research cannot be undertaken during school time.</u>

3. This letter may be used to gain access to the schools concerned.

4. May I take this opportunity to wish you every success in your research.

Yours faithfully,

Dr D W M Edley
Regional Co-ordinator: Research
For REGIONAL SENIOR MANAGER (ACTING)

APPENDIX E

LETTER TO SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

P.O. Box 70054
OVERPORT
4067

Tel: (031) 208 0928

10 June 2002

The Principal

_____ School

Dear Sir/Madam

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DETERMINING: THE EFFICACY OF TEACHERS IN A NUMBER OF SELECTED SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU-NATAL

I am currently conducting research based on the above-mentioned topic as part of my D.Ed. degree under the supervision of Professor G. Urbani and Dr A. van der Merwe at the Durban Umlazi Campus of the University of Zululand. The level 1 teachers at your school have been selected to participate in this research programme. I have obtained permission from the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department to enlist the help of level 1 teachers at your school to complete the questionnaire.

I require your kind assistance in administering the questionnaires to the level 1 teachers at your school. I am fully aware that by asking for your cooperation, I am adding to your already considerable responsibilities and workload. However, I hope that this study will make a meaningful contribution regarding the efficacy of teachers.

The date on which the questionnaires will be collected from you will be arranged with you soon. The questionnaire has been designed to take not more than 20 minutes to complete.

I thank you for your cooperation and assistance.

Yours sincerely

Rangraje
I. RANGRAJE

APPENDIX F

LETTER TO TEACHERS

P.O. Box 70054
OVERPORT
4067

Tel: (031) 208 0928

14 June 2002

Dear Teacher

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DETERMINING: THE EFFICACY OF TEACHERS IN A NUMBER OF SELECTED SCHOOLS IN KWAZULU-NATAL

I am currently conducting research regarding the above-mentioned topic.

Your responses to the attached questionnaire are vital in assisting me to determine the status of teacher efficacy in a number of selected schools in KwaZulu-Natal. The questionnaire is divided into two sections:

Section 1 requires information about you, the respondent (biographical information)

Section 2 deals with teacher efficacy.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All information will be regarded as CONFIDENTIAL, and no personal details of any respondent will be mentioned in the findings, nor will any of the results be related to any particular school.

I am most grateful to you for your time and effort.

Yours sincerely

Rangraje

I. RANGRAJE (Mr)