



**Leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy in
township and rural schools in a district of the North West
Province**

MV Mogonediwa

Thesis submitted for the degree *Doctor of Philosophy* in Education at the North-
West University

Promoter: Dr BH Challens

Co-promoter: Prof J Heystek

Graduation: October 2019

Student number: 12196673

DECLARATION

I, MV Mogonediwa, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.



SIGNATURE

DATE 21 August 2019

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the following people for the various roles and positive contributions they made in my life and to the successful completion of this study:

- Dr BH Challens, my promoter. Your supervisory knowledge, patience, guidance, insight and cooperation contributed immensely to the successful completion of this study. Thank you for your support, understanding and encouragement.
- Prof J Heystek, my co-promoter. Your critical mind enabled me to focus on the gist. Thank you for your patience, mentorship and words of encouragement to the end.
- Dr S Ellis of Statistical Consultancy Services, North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus). You opened my mind to statistical analysis.
- Dr Jackie de Vos for editing the manuscript.
- Prof MJ Mosoge who remained a friend and mentor.
- The staff at the Potchefstroom campus library for their assistance.
- The North West Education Department, especially Mr B Monale for granting me permission to conduct the research and distribute questionnaires in primary and secondary schools in the selected district.
- Principals and teachers of all schools that took their time to participate in this research study. Thank you very much.
- My colleagues at Thuto Boswa Secondary deserve gratitude, once again. Thank you for your support and patience whilst I was away from work doing the fieldwork.
- Dr SP Mokobe, the Tshing Circuit Manager for believing in my abilities.
- Ms M Jezile, Ms Keitumetse Mogonediwa and Ms Seipati Sylvia Mogonediwa for assisting with distribution and collection of the questionnaires.
- Members of the Evangelical Lutheran Church who encouraged me to complete the study.
- My beloved wife, Lillian, for keeping the home fires burning whilst I was busy studying. Thanks for the support, patience and sacrifice.

- My two children, Keoikantse (son), Reitumetse (daughter), and Oratile Mogonediwa (niece) who never stopped asking when I am finalising my study.
- My parents, brothers and sisters who kept their cool and supported me during my studies.
- My in-laws for their positive expectations and encouragement.
- My grandparents valued education, contributed positively to my upbringing and believed in my capabilities.
- The Almighty God accompanied me throughout this demanding journey, from the beginning of the study to the end. You are worthy to be praised.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the leadership strategies that could assist principals to optimise teacher efficacy in township and rural schools, both primary and secondary schools, *to identify, describe and explain the leadership strategies principals employ in order to increase teacher efficacy. This included examining how low teacher efficacy contributes to the low academic performance of learners in schools. Furthermore, the study aimed to develop leadership strategies to assist principals in low-performing schools to positively influence the efficacy levels of their teachers.* The challenges that school principals in township and rural schools faced with regard to low teacher efficacy levels as well as leadership strategies that could help principals to turn around low teacher efficacy were investigated.

A literature study was carried out to investigate the nature of teacher efficacy and the influence of principal leadership strategies on teacher efficacy. The views of teachers and principals were sought on teacher efficacy and leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. Data were collected by means of a questionnaire from a sample of 237 (teachers and principals). The data were analysed by means of frequencies, means and percentages. Factor analysis was conducted to determine the relationships among questionnaire items and to reduce the number of variables by finding the common factors among them. The pattern matrix and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were also determined. The presentation, analysis and interpretation of data were presented in chapter 6. This included a discussion on the leadership strategies of principals to optimise teacher efficacy.

In chapter 7, the research was summarised. This was followed by findings on the objectives of the study. Recommendations and motivations derived from the literature and empirical investigation on leadership strategies of principals to optimise teacher efficacy were outlined. Suggestions for future research were also made. Finally, the contributions of the study to both the literature and practices of principals to optimise teacher efficacy were highlighted.

Key words: leadership, strategy, efficacy, teacher efficacy, collective teacher efficacy.

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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The performance of teachers in poor-performing schools has come under severe criticism in recent years, because there is general dissatisfaction with the quality of teaching and quality of results in such schools in South Africa, including the North West province (Ledwaba, 2012:12). There is also a general dissatisfaction with poor academic performance in key subjects such as Mathematics, Physical Sciences, English, and Accounting. Schools that produce poor academic results are characterised by poor quality of teaching, low morale and poor commitment (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2002:116; Bayat & Louw, 2011:16). Poor quality of teaching suggests that the efficacy of teachers in such schools is low.

Many teachers who work in poor-performing schools attribute poor quality of teaching and poor academic performance of learners in their schools mainly to external factors, such as difficult working conditions, insufficient teaching and learning resources, learner ill-discipline, lower levels of commitment by learners, low educator morale, undeveloped managerial skills, unclear education policies, and inadequate parental involvement (Van der Westhuizen, Legotlo, Maaga, Sebego, Mosoge, Niewoudt & Steyn , 2002:115). Such teachers believe that external factors are more influential in improving academic performance than their own capabilities. They believe that they cannot bring about much change in learners' academic performance (Woodcock, 2011:24). This perception can perpetuate low expectations amongst teachers and poor academic performance by learners (Woodcock, 2011:24).

The beliefs that teachers hold regarding their effectiveness or capability to have a positive influence on learner outcomes is known as teacher efficacy. Teachers' efficacy belief is a judgement on their capabilities to bring about the desired outcomes of learner engagement and learning, even with learners who may be difficult to work with or who are unmotivated (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:783).

Principals of schools where teachers attribute poor learner academic performance to external factors need to play a critical role in assisting such teachers to improve their efficacy levels through their leadership strategies. The focus of this study was to investigate which leadership strategies can be used to optimise teacher efficacy in schools where teachers believe their capabilities have little or no influence on learner performance.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Studies on teacher efficacy have shown that principals as leaders of schools have an influence on teachers' confidence through their leadership actions. Various solutions have been proposed to ensure good and quality academic results in schools where teacher efficacy is low. These proposed solutions include smaller class sizes, more discipline, more financial involvement by parents, better textbooks, curriculum revision, greater use of home language at school, and vocational training, amongst others (Kallaway & Sieborger, 2011:9). However, these are external factors that affect teaching and learning. An internal factor, namely teacher efficacy, needs to be explored further. Teacher efficacy has been identified as a belief system that influences the behaviour of teachers and subsequently learner performance (Collier, 2005:351). According to Collier (2005:352), teachers who exhibit higher levels of teacher efficacy tend to perform more effectively in the classroom. Research has indicated a positive link between teacher efficacy and the achievement of learners (Goddard *et al.*, 2000:482-483).

It is evident that teacher efficacy has been found to be low amongst teachers of schools that perform poorly academically, mainly township and rural schools (Rangraje, Van der Merwe & Urbani, 2005:38). Low teacher efficacy has contributed to the quality of education in schools lagging behind, juxtaposed with schools where teachers believe that their quality of teaching has a positive effect on learning and accept full accountability for their learners' academic outcomes (Rangraje *et al.*, 2005:38; Davids, 2010:1).

The problem facing South African schools is that low teacher efficacy contributes to the movement of learners from these schools to former model C schools where there is a public perception that

the latter offer better quality education (Khumalo, 2006:35). This learner exodus, in turn, holds negative consequences for parents who must spend money on food and learner transport. When parents move their children to other schools that perform better and teachers exhibit higher efficacy levels, classes in schools where there is an exhibit of low teacher efficacy remain with smaller numbers of learners.

As a result of the drop-in learner numbers, teachers in affected schools must be transferred or redeployed to schools where there are more learners, often against teachers' wishes. The process of redeployment of teachers to schools where there are vacancies has had unintended consequences in contributing to lower teacher efficacy levels. Furthermore, there are negative perceptions that teachers who are redeployed are uncooperative, lazy or troublemakers (Fleisch, 2002:42). Negative perceptions have the potential to cast doubt on the teachers' self-belief and teaching potential (Mogonediswa, 2008:30). The redeployment of teachers against their will limits the choice of receiving principals to recruit and select teachers with higher efficacy levels for their schools (Masitsa *et al.*, 2004:227). Eventually, the performance of the school may suffer.

In an attempt to solve the problem of low teacher efficacy in township and rural schools, which generally leads to poor learner academic performance and subsequently, an exodus of learners from some schools to already over-populated and well-performing schools, this study aimed to set forth leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy in schools where teachers attribute poor learner academic performance mainly to external factors rather than their quality of teaching. What we don't know is what leadership strategies are applied by principals in township and rural schools to optimise teacher efficacy. This study therefore sets out to investigate the leadership strategies that principals in township and rural schools apply to optimise teacher efficacy. This serves as a gap the study aims to fill.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of self-efficacy was introduced by Bandura in 1997. According to self-efficacy theory, people are motivated by their thoughts and beliefs and not by external reinforcements (Ellis,

Abrahams & Abrams, 2009:381). Klassen and Chiu (2010:741) agree that teachers' self-efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs about their capabilities to carry out a particular course of action successfully. This view is also shared by Ware and Kitsantas (2011:184), who state that teacher efficacy refers to the beliefs that individual teachers have in their ability to perform context-specific tasks tailored to achieve desirable education-related goals. The belief held by an individual that one can succeed at some task motivates individuals to embark on the task. These beliefs form the basis for teachers' instructional decisions, which eventually shape learners' educational experiences and, in turn, affect the academic achievement outcomes of learners.

On the other hand, an individual teacher does not function in isolation from other colleagues, because teachers share learners. Collective efficacy is the belief in a group's capability to face any threat that arises with confidence that, as a group, they would prevail (Patterson & Kelleher, 2005:92). The principal needs to believe in the capability of the teachers as a team – thus, that they can accomplish common goals by working effectively together. One of the roles of the principal involves encouraging team work amongst teachers and helping them to focus their actions on the common goals of the school. Therefore, many problems that one teacher faces with learners require that he or she must collaborate with colleagues as a collective so as to change the performance and lives of their learners (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:24). This gave rise to the term collective efficacy. However, the focus of this study was not on collective efficacy but on teacher efficacy.

Teachers' self-efficacy is one of the most influential factors in the quality of teaching, teachers' efforts, teacher motivation, teacher satisfaction and their learners' academic outcomes (Nir & Kranot, 2006:206). Researchers found that teachers' self-efficacy affects their teaching behaviour, their learners' motivation and achievement (Klassen & Chiu, 2010:741). However, teachers who have low self-efficacy levels are reluctant to accept accountability for the outcomes of their learners' performance (Nir & Kranot, 2006:206). Klassen and Chiu (2010:741) posit that teachers with low self-efficacy experience greater difficulties in teaching, low levels of job satisfaction and have higher levels of work-related stress.

According to Patterson and Kelleher (2005:76), a higher level of self-efficacy has a positive influence on individual teachers' perseverance. Teachers with strong levels of efficacy display more persistence, enthusiasm and commitment to their teaching job (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:783). Efficacy beliefs influence teachers' persistence when things do not go smoothly as well as their resilience during setbacks. Teachers with a high sense of efficacy also exhibit greater enthusiasm for teaching and have greater commitment to teaching (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:784). They are further committed to their work because they are energised mainly by their personal goals, which have been internalised (Steyn, 2004:220).

Moreover, higher levels of self-efficacy have been found to have a positive correlation with higher levels of academic performance, persistence and effective behaviour (Ellis *et al.*, 2009:382). Individuals have self-evaluation systems that permit them to exercise control over their thoughts, feelings and actions (Elliot *et al.*, 2010:135). Self-evaluation systems help to determine the amount of effort individuals will exert on their activities, how long they will persevere when confronted by obstacles, and how resilient they will be during adverse conditions. A greater self-efficacy enables teachers to be less critical of learners when they (learners) make errors (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:783). Capable and committed teachers believe that children learn better when they receive high levels of trust and acceptance from their teachers (Mohlala & Mthimkhulu, 2012:2).

A survey that was conducted in a mid-Atlantic state revealed that the following three behaviours of principals had a significant impact on teacher efficacy (Walker & Slear, 2011:46):

- modelling instructional expectations;
- communication;
- providing contingent rewards.

Walker and Slear (2011:53) further indicate that modelling instructional expectations and communication were positively related to teacher efficacy, whereas providing contingent rewards was negatively related to teacher efficacy. A negative relationship means that providing contingent rewards was more important for teachers with lower efficacy and less important for teachers with

higher levels of efficacy. This shows that teachers with lower levels of efficacy need more affirmation from their principals.

One of the main duties of principals is to optimise teachers' performance in the classroom by ensuring that effective teaching and learning occurs (Botha, 2004:239). Principals' leadership strategies can assist teachers to improve their efficacy by encouraging and supporting them to believe more in their own capabilities and efforts (Walker & Slear, 2011:47). Principals are also viewed to be central to the creation of an environment that is conducive to achieving quality education (Mohlala, 2012:5). Committed and motivated principals can motivate teachers by assisting and supporting them to be better at their chosen vocation (Mathe, 2012:25).

Supportive behaviour by a principal includes to motivate teachers and to set a good example by working hard (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2007:161). Furthermore, teachers who have a strong sense of self-efficacy are motivated to commit themselves to teaching for longer (Yeo et al., 2008:192). This commitment to teaching for longer periods can help the school to achieve its goals of realising improved academic performance. Teachers' commitment, experience and high motivation levels can help the school to overcome some of the obstacles associated with low teacher efficacy levels, such as low morale and lack of confidence in one's capabilities. According to Rangraje et al. (2005:38), it is possible to optimise the performance of teachers by promoting their efficacy levels, by developing them professionally, helping them to take a closer look at their performance, and to hold them accountable for their performance.

Teachers also need to be supported psychologically as they pursue the directions and goals of the school. As leaders, principals need to know their followers' needs and should assist them to reach higher levels of maturity. According to Leithwood, Harris and Strauss (2010:113), this could help teachers to self-actualise and consequently attain better standards of moral development. Teachers who are more mature can handle difficult situations better than less mature teachers. Higher maturity levels are more likely to help many teachers to deal better with the difficult situations under which they work.

The above discussion indicates that it is imperative for principals to support teachers' professional needs so as to boost their efficacy. However, principals need to keep in mind that teacher efficacy can be linked to a teacher's years of experience in the profession. According to Klassen and Chiu (2010:749), a teacher's skills, knowledge and effectiveness may change over time without a continuous and focused effort to build those skills and knowledge. This requires active involvement of the principal to plan and organise staff development and training programmes for younger and older teachers considering their professional and developmental needs. A one-size-fits-all approach may not yield the same results for experienced and novice teachers.

In North America, the ineffectiveness of schools is blamed on teachers for being lazy (Sagor, 2000:30). It seems that teachers in less effective schools lack the belief that they can make a positive contribution to the achievement of their learners. According to Sagor (2000:30), politicians in North America have turned it into a ritual to heap blame upon teachers for the ineffectiveness of schools to produce required outcomes. As a result, some teachers find it difficult to cope with the negative criticism. They experience burnout and become emotionally detached from their teaching tasks. This scenario is not different from the South African situation where teachers in low-performing and ineffective schools are perceived to be lazy, incompetent and less committed (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2002:116).

A study conducted in KwaZulu-Natal revealed that one of the problems with poor quality of teaching and learning is that the teachers in low-performing schools seem to focus overwhelmingly on external factors as the causes of poor academic performance of learners (Rangraje et al., 2005:38). Teachers tend to blame environmental factors for poor academic performance, such as poverty, school location, lack of resources, uninvolved parents in education matters of their children, frequent curriculum changes, overcrowded classrooms, learners who show less interest in doing their schoolwork and lots of administrative work performed by teachers (Davids, 2010:1-2). These teachers perform poorly in the classroom and they also exhibit little or no love for the teaching profession (Govender, 2006:34). They rely heavily on previous years' lesson preparations and would not put extra effort into their work (Buys, 2002:8).

There have been constant curriculum reforms in the South African education system since 1994. The reforms exert increased demands on educators' time to do more administrative duty, study lengthy documents, and attend information sessions conducted by Department of Basic Education officials (Rossouw, 2009:8). These educational reforms have instead caused teachers to become more uncertain about their work knowledge because they were introduced hastily and without sufficient teacher development (Mtshali, 2012:8). The reforms seem to have made little or no improvement on the efficacy levels of teachers. Deacon (2010:38) states that teachers who are poorly trained, underqualified, ill-prepared and inadequately supported cannot be expected to produce quality outcomes and competent learners as they do not exhibit high teacher efficacy. This implies that their subject knowledge is inadequate. Consequently, they set low levels of cognitive demand for their learners (Van der Berg & Spaul, 2011:2). Therefore, learners who come from such schools are unprepared for the demands of society because of inadequate education they received (Galombik, 2012:28).

Teachers' efficacy levels can also be lowered by lack of promotional opportunities. According to Mestry and Grobler (2004:3), experienced principals and teachers left the profession because of being overlooked for promotion. They lose confidence because they believe that their efforts go unnoticed. The loss of experienced principals and teachers meant that skills and knowledge that had been refined over the years were lost to the teaching profession.

Low-performing schools are regarded as "unpleasant schools" because of poor quality of teaching in the classroom (Khumalo, 2006:35). This has also led to concerns being raised about the commitment and performance of educators in such schools. The poor quality of teaching and poor academic performance in ineffective schools are some of the reasons why the education system is deemed to be underperforming in low socio-economic communities (Mtshali, 2012:8).

Teachers with lower efficacy resort easily to blaming external factors and others for the low academic achievement of their learners. They feel that they are unable to perform effectively because of the difficult school conditions under which they work (Rangraje *et al.*, 2005:38). The low

levels of teacher efficacy are also indicated by several elements found amongst teachers such as poor commitment, inability to cope with work demands, inability to give learners more work or practise, insufficient teaching time, insufficient content knowledge, and poor quality education that occurs in their schools (Seale, 2012:1). These elements can be attributed to teachers themselves and their capabilities to teach effectively. In addition, these elements are within the control of teachers.

Poor commitment amongst teachers is evident in the high absenteeism rate amongst teachers. As many as 20% of educators are absent on Mondays and Fridays (Ramphela, 2012:21). Ramphela (2012:21) further states that the absentee rate increases to a third of educators during month-ends. Consequently, such teachers have low contact teaching time with their learners. Therefore, they may not complete the work programme in the required time frame.

Teachers are also accused of failing to cope with their work demands of teaching learners from poor social backgrounds effectively. The levels of reading and numeracy are low in primary schools (Van der Berg & Spaull, 2011:2). Van der Berg and Spaull (2011:2) contend that South Africa is ranked number 10 out of 15 for Grade 6 reading and eighth for Grade 6 maths when compared with poorer sub-Saharan African countries in tests that were conducted in 2007. These countries have higher teacher–pupil ratios and lesser qualified teachers than South Africa (Van der Berg & Spaull, 2011:20).

Children in ineffective schools are not given much time to practise their schoolwork. Much of the class time is taken up by teacher-talk (Fleisch, 2008:135). When children speak, it is either in a chorus form or giving a short answer to a teacher's question. This gives learners little time to engage in meaningful writing. In some cases, learners' activities include paging through magazines, looking for pictures to cut out and paste into their books. This does not give learners ample time to engage in more cognitive demanding exercises.

Teachers are also accused of showing more interest in fighting for their rights through strikes and protests during school hours (Seale, 2012:1). During the strikes and protest actions by teachers,

learners are left on their own. As a result, teachers and learners lose valuable teaching and learning time. The problem of spending insufficient time with learners creates an impression that teachers in low-performing schools care little about the academic performance of their learners.

Low teacher efficacy is evident in the low academic results achieved by learners in key subjects (Bauer, 2011:1). The performance of school teachers in key subjects, like Mathematics and Physical Sciences, fails to meet the required standards in secondary and primary schools (Bauer, 2011:1). According to Ramphela (2012:21), teachers in low-performing schools teach an average of 3.5 hours per day compared to 6.5 hours in effective schools. This is a problem for learners in low-performing schools who need ample contact time with their teachers so that they can master their learning content.

The above discussion indicates that principals of low-performing schools should deal with teachers who display features of low efficacy. Such teachers portray the following characteristics (Kruger, 2003:207; Ledwaba, 2012:14):

- they do not have the desire to teach, i.e. are demoralised;
- they are poorly trained;
- they feel like victims;
- there are tensions in the school community;
- poor school results;
- there are negative attitudes amongst teachers.

The above factors can be regarded as obstacles to higher teacher efficacy. It is possible that teachers who operate in such school environments may find it difficult to make a positive impact on effective teaching and learning because of their negative attitudes toward their work. Therefore, it becomes the responsibility of the principal to support teachers by removing most of the obstacles that are within their reach so as to enable them to work with commitment and to value their role in the performance of learners and eventually the school.

A principal is the educational leader and manager of a school. Therefore, he or she is responsible for the work performance of all the people in the school (Botha, 2004:239). A principal's job includes helping the school to achieve high levels of performance using available human and material resources. Principals can therefore play a meaningful role in assisting teachers who are struggling with their efficacy levels to cope better with cumbersome work situations. Poor performance of teachers in ineffective schools suggests that there is a need to improve the efficacy levels of teachers.

1.4 RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study was to identify, describe and explain the leadership strategies principals employ in order to increase teacher efficacy. This included examining how low teacher efficacy contributes to the low academic performance of learners in schools. Furthermore, the study aimed to develop leadership strategies to assist principals in low-performing schools to positively influence the efficacy levels of their teachers.

Teachers who have low efficacy levels experience low levels of self-belief, enthusiasm, commitment and resilience. It is possible that such teachers' performance in the classroom will have a negative impact on the academic performance of learners. As a result of low self-efficacy, teachers may not set tasks that are academically demanding for their learners. Thus, it is essential for principals to support teachers to enable them to increase their efficacy levels.

Literature showed that little research has been done on teacher efficacy in the South African context. No research in this regard has further been conducted in the North West province. Most of the literature that deals with optimising teacher efficacy was based on international investigations. One of the existing researches on teacher efficacy in South Africa was done in KwaZulu-Natal. The latter study revealed that (a) education in the surveyed schools was not yet functioning at optimal levels; (b) teachers were unable to function efficiently due to school context effects; (c) the general teaching efficacy beliefs of the teachers sampled were strong, but they were mostly negative because the teachers tended to blame the environment and others for the

poor academic achievement of learners (Rangraje et al., 2005:43). Although the results or recommendations of such studies could be used to some extent in the North West province, the conditions under which the studies were carried out are entirely different from the conditions that teachers in the North West province must deal with. It is essential, therefore, that studies be conducted in schools of the North West province to make the results and recommendations of this study more relevant.

The gap identified in the literature was that no leadership strategies existed for principals to optimise teacher efficacy in low-performing schools. This raised concerns about the efficacy of teachers in schools.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main question of this research was to determine what leadership strategies could assist principals to optimise teacher efficacy?

The sub-questions were as follows:

- i. What is the nature of teacher efficacy?
- ii. What are the views of teachers and principals with regard to leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy?
- iii. What leadership strategies could be used by principals to optimise teacher efficacy?

1.6 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of the study was to **develop or propose leadership strategies to assist principals** to optimize teacher efficacy. The objectives of the research was firstly to investigate the views of teachers and principals with regard to leadership strategies used by principals and secondly to suggest leadership strategies that could be used by principals to optimise teacher efficacy in township and rural schools in a district of the North West province.

The objectives of this research were as follows:

- i. to explain the nature of teacher efficacy;
- ii. to determine the views of teachers and principals with regard to leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy;
- iii. to substantiate what leadership strategies could be used by principals to optimise teacher efficacy.

1.6.1 Definitions of key words

The definitions of the selected key words were dealt with in this section. Further clarity of the key words was provided under section 2.2 of the study.

1.6.1.1 Efficacy

The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005:399) defines efficacy as "an ability to produce the intended result".

1.6.1.2 Teacher efficacy

Teacher efficacy is defined as "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance, or as teachers' beliefs or convictions that they can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998:202).

1.6.1.3 Collective teacher efficacy

According to Hoy, Sweetland and Smith (2002:79), collective teacher efficacy is the perceptions of teachers in a specific school that the faculty, as a whole, can execute courses of action required to positively affect learner achievement.

1.6.1.4 Leadership

Werner (2001:349) defines leadership as the process whereby one individual influences others so as to willingly and enthusiastically direct their efforts and abilities toward attaining defined group or

1.6.1.5 Strategy

The Oxford Paperback Dictionary (2002:829) defines strategy as “a plan designed to achieve a particular long term aim”;

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

The purpose of this section was to indicate how the literature study and empirical research would be carried out for the study. According to Durrheim (2010:34), a research design is “a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research”.

1.7.1 Literature study

This section presents the available literature on teacher efficacy in schools. A literature study was carried out using the following keywords: efficacy, teacher efficacy, collective teacher efficacy, leadership, strategy . The following databases were used: NEXUS, ERIC, EBSCOhost, Sabinet, Google scholar, ProQuest, and SA ePublications.

1.7.2 Empirical research

This section of the study was intended to cover the research design and method, including the research instrument, population and sampling, data collection, data analysis and deal with the reliability and validity of the research instrument.

1.7.2.1 Research methods

Mouton (2001:55) shares the same view as Durrheim above (1.7), saying that a research design is a plan or blueprint of how a researcher intends to conduct the research. A research design

represents a series of decisions that include the strategy explaining how the researcher will conduct the research (Trafford & Leshem, 2010:90). This strategy shows an arrangement of procedures and methods that will be followed to do the sampling, data collection, analysis and interpretation of results.

For this research, a quantitative research approach was used. According to Durrheim and Painter (2010:132), the strengths of quantitative research are generalisability and objectivity. Furthermore, a good quantitative study has three main characteristics, namely reliability, validity and generalisability. However, generalisability of data depends on how the sample was selected, whereas objectivity depends on the way in which the phenomenon under investigation was conceptualised and measured (Durrheim & Painter, 2010:132).

Quantitative research is characterised by the use of statistical analysis to describe, compare and attribute causality (Hittleman & Simon, 2002:27). In this research, data were collected in the form of numbers, summarised and organised through descriptive statistics. The research approach was deductive due to a numerical analysis of data so as to arrive at conclusions and findings (Trafford & Leshem, 2010:98).

A quantitative research design was selected for this research because the researcher wished to draw conclusions about which leadership strategies could be used by principals to optimise teacher efficacy. This was quantitative correlational research. Furthermore, due to the quantitative nature of this research, the researcher was not actively involved with the respondents (Briggs, Coleman & Morrison, 2012:17). The researcher could only look at the associations between principals' leadership and teacher efficacy.

Based on the above explanation a positivist paradigm was found suitable for this research because positivism is deemed to be objective. The positivist assumption is that if social research is done properly, it will follow the model of the natural sciences and will provide a clear, unambiguous road to the causes of certain social or psychological phenomena (Ryan, 2008:13). Positivist research

places faith in quantification and believes that using correct techniques would provide correct answers.

1.7.2.2 Research instrument

A newly developed questionnaire by the researcher was used to generate data (Appendix G). This questionnaire consisted of three sections. Section A was completed by teachers and principals. It consisted of biographical data of each respondent. Section B consisted of demographic data. This section was completed by the principal only to avert varying responses. Section C of the questionnaire consisted of 50 items based on teacher efficacy and leadership style of the principal. This section was completed by both teachers and principals.

A pilot study was conducted to test the questionnaire. Piloting involved administering the questionnaire to a group of teachers and principals who worked in schools that were situated in a district in the North West province. The schools selected for piloting were similar to the ones targeted for sampling. The questionnaire had a Likert-type rating scale. Respondents were asked to indicate their opinion about each of the questions by marking anyone of the five responses ranging from (1) "None at all" to "A great deal" (5). The internal reliability of the questionnaire was measured through Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Pietersen & Maree, 2012b:216). If the measured items correlated strongly with each other, their internal consistency was high. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to respond to a set of structured questions in writing and not verbally.

A questionnaire was selected for the purpose of this study because it is most widely used as a technique to obtain information from several respondents simultaneously. Other advantages of a questionnaire as a research instrument include (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:257):

- it is relatively economical;
- it carries the same questions for all respondents;
- it can ensure anonymity.

In order to maximise the effectiveness of the questionnaire, according to Leedy and Ormrod, (2010:194-198), it is important to keep the questionnaire as brief as possible. The questionnaire must be simple to read and respond to because answering it involves people's time. The language must be clear, simple and unambiguous. The questionnaire must provide clear instructions as to how respondents should respond.

In order to ensure a good return or retrieval of questionnaires, follow-ups were made telephonically and physically to the schools who failed to return the questionnaires.

1.7.2.3 Population and sampling

The population of the study consisted of teachers and principals of schools in one district that was close to the researcher in the North West province. The province is divided into four education districts. A list of schools was sought from the district. A stratified, systematic random sample was drawn from schools in the district. This sampling method was used because each school in the district had an equal chance of being selected. This method was also less sophisticated (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:207). A total of 40 schools were selected: 25 primary schools and 15 secondary schools. From the 40 schools, eight respondents per school (the principal and seven teachers) were asked to complete the questionnaire (Appendix G). The total sample therefore consisted of approximately 320 respondents (n=320).

1.7.2.4 Data collection

A questionnaire was suitable for this research because it covered several respondents in the targeted sample simultaneously. Due to the vastness of the province, the questionnaires were delivered by the researcher. The completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher to ensure maximum collection.

The researcher left the questionnaires for at least four days with the school principal to distribute it to teachers. The reason behind this was to give teachers ample time to complete the questionnaire without using their teaching time. The researcher phoned the school a day before collection to ensure that the completed questionnaires were ready to be collected.

In addition to the above considerations, the researcher considered the timing of distributing the questionnaire to schools. The time of distribution had to be convenient for the respondents. For example, it would not have been prudent to distribute the questionnaire toward the end of the term because most teachers were busy with quarterly tests and compilation of quarterly marks. The beginning of the term also seemed to be problematic because teachers were involved in subject meetings and staff meetings. The most suitable time, therefore, seemed to be the mid-term months.

1.7.2.5 Data analysis

The retrieved questionnaires were analysed with the professional assistance of the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus). This analysis was done through the SPSS program which reflects frequencies, mean scores and standard deviations. The research results were presented in the form of tables that show frequencies, mean scores and standard deviations. The usual statistical techniques assumed that data were independent. In this study, it was assumed that respondents from each school were dependent on the leadership style of the principal and therefore hierarchical linear models that took this dependence into account were used to identify differences between the views of respondents in primary schools and secondary schools, township and rural schools, male versus female, and teachers versus school principals. This means that the increase in teacher efficacy could be achieved through the leadership style of principals. Principals who ridiculed and reprimanded teachers publicly would find it difficult to optimise teacher efficacy, unlike principals who treat teachers with respect.

Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the numerical data (i.e. means, medians, frequency distributions, standard deviations). The inferential statistical technique (hierarchical linear models) was used to compare the results and to analyse differences regarding teacher efficacy in primary and secondary schools, township and rural schools.

1.7.2.6 Reliability and validity

The reliability of an instrument means that the findings should be the same when an instrument is used at different times or administered to different subjects from the same population. This refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument is repeatable and consistent (Pietersen & Maree, 2012b:215). Reliability is thus the consistency with which an instrument yields a certain result when measuring the same entity.

Validity of an instrument refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. There are various forms of validity, namely face validity, content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity. Construct validity is the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed but is assumed to exist based on patterns in people's behaviour (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:92). In this case, the construct was teacher efficacy in the North West province.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher bore in mind ethical considerations during the study. Ethical clearance was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the North-West University to conduct the research (Appendix A). Written permission was obtained from the North West Education Department, the district office, and the relevant schools (Appendices C to E). The principals and teachers of the sampled schools were approached in writing to participate in the research.

All the information was handled with the utmost confidentiality. The names of the schools and the respondents were not disclosed. Respondents were informed about the purpose of the research and they voluntarily participated in the research. Respondents were not required to indicate their names or the names of their schools. This ensured anonymity of the respondents. It gave them a guarantee that the information they provided in the questionnaire would not be used against them. It removed an element of fear and victimisation. Respondents also had the right to withdraw from the research at any time.

The research thus complied with the ethical considerations as mentioned by various researchers (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:107; Coleman & Briggs, 2002:79; Koshy, 2005:23-24):

- informed consent;
- voluntary participation;
- anonymity;
- confidentiality;
- commitment to honesty.

1.9. Chapter outline

1.9 CHAPTERS OUTLINE

- **Chapter 1:** Orientation

Chapter 1 outlined how the quality of teaching in township and rural schools is affected by low teacher efficacy.

- **Chapter 2:** The nature of teacher efficacy
- The nature of teacher efficacy, conceptual framework, theories that explain characteristics of teacher efficacy as well as the possible reasons for low teacher efficacy in township and rural schools were discussed in chapter 2. **Chapter 3:** The influence of principal leadership on teacher efficacy
- Chapter 3 focused on the influence of leadership strategies or activities used by principals in their schools to optimise teacher efficacy. **Chapter 4:** Research design and methodology

Chapter 4 discussed the research design and methodology used to investigate the leadership activities that principals apply in schools.

- **Chapter 5:** Presentation, analysis and interpretation of data

The presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data were discussed in chapter 5.

- **Chapter 6:** Leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy

The purpose of chapter 6 was to develop leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy.

- **Chapter 7:** Summary, findings, recommendations and conclusions

The summary, findings, recommendations and conclusions of the study were discussed in chapter 7. Finally, the contribution of the study was discussed.

1.10. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The orientation chapter 1 dealt with the problem statement, literature review, rationale for the research, research questions, aim and objectives of the research, research design, ethical considerations, contribution of the study and the chapter outline.

1.11. CONCLUDING REMARKS

It was evident from the literature study and the problem statement that there was a need to undertake a study in township and rural schools of a district in South Africa with the purpose of developing leadership strategies to assist principals to optimise teacher efficacy. South African teachers, especially in township and rural areas are under constant criticism because of the poor quality of teaching in their schools. This puts teacher in such schools under tremendous pressure to perform. Thus they need to be reassured by their principals that their quality of teaching can improve if they focus on increasing their abilities and capabilities. The next chapter, chapter 2 focused on the nature of teacher efficacy.

CHAPTER 2: THE NATURE OF TEACHER EFFICACY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the conceptual framework of what teacher efficacy entails. The key words that are closely related to teacher efficacy, namely locus of control, efficacy, self-efficacy, motivation and collective efficacy are defined. The chapter also looks closely at the theoretical framework of self-efficacy as the basis of teacher efficacy. The social learning theory of Rotter and the social cognitive theory of Bandura – which are regarded as the theoretical framework or basis for teacher efficacy – are explored. Teaching practices of teachers with a higher efficacy and those with a lower efficacy are also discussed, including teacher motivation. Finally, some theories of motivation are discussed because motivation seems to have an influence on the performance of teachers in the classroom.

There is a general sense of low self-belief, powerlessness and helplessness amongst today's educators (Lampe, 2002:144). This sense of powerlessness has contributed to experienced teachers abandoning the education system and seeking greener pastures elsewhere (Mtshali, 2012:8). Without the self-belief that teachers can make a change, either from a personal standpoint or from an organisational stance, meaningful change cannot occur (Lampe, 2002:144). A key factor in poor-performing schools must be low teacher beliefs and attitudes regarding their central role in the education of tomorrow's citizens (Lampe, 2002:144). Self-efficacy is people's beliefs about their talents to activate motivation, cognitive resources and action series needed for ensuring control over events in their lives (Calik, Sezgin, Kavgaci & Kilinc, 2012:2499).

Teacher efficacy has been identified as perhaps the most important belief system in terms of its effect on the behaviour of teachers and subsequently learner performance (Collier, 2005:351). The personal belief systems of teachers significantly influence their behaviours in the classroom as well as the instructional decisions they make. Thus, teacher efficacy is identified as a key belief system in the enhancement of teacher effectiveness (Collier, 2005:351). In order to enhance teacher

efficacy, teachers must believe that their behaviours can affect the education of their learners and they must also recognise that they have the capacity and power to make key decisions that will affect their role and learner accomplishment (Lampe, 2002:142).

Teachers' self-efficacy, which has been developed in Bandura's concept of self-efficacy, generally refers to teachers' beliefs about affecting and coping with learners who have difficulty in motivation and learning (Calik *et al.*, 2012:2499). To this effect, teachers' self-efficacy is regarded as the indicator that determines teachers' effectiveness and performance. Thus, teachers' self-efficacy is indispensable for an effective school. As an important variable for school effectiveness, it must be considered by principals in their leadership and management behaviours during the process of restructuring and establishing effective schools. Moreover, teachers' self-efficacy is closely related to learner achievement, family involvement in education, tendency to take risks and innovate, collective efficacy and job stress (Calik *et al.*, 2012:2498).

2.2 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

In the discussion of the clarification of concepts, attention is given to locus of control (internal locus of control and external locus of control), efficacy, self-efficacy, teacher efficacy, general teaching efficacy, personal teaching efficacy, teaching efficacy versus personal teaching efficacy, collective teacher efficacy and motivation.

2.2.1 Locus of control

Julian Rotter found that some people believe that their *reinforcers* (rewards or punishments) depend on their own actions, whereas others believe that their *reinforcers* are controlled by other people and outside forces (Schultz & Schultz, 2005:436). Rotter called this concept locus of control (Schultz & Schultz, 2005:436). Locus of control also refers to individual differences in how we see the world and our ability to control what happens to us (Cardwell, Clark & Meldrum, 2004:108). Passer and Smith (2011:484) define locus of control as an expectancy concerning the degree of personal control we have in our lives.

According to Rotter, human behaviour is guided by “reinforcements” of punishments and rewards (Arogundade & Itua, 2010:341). In other words, locus of control is a concept that is used to explain how individuals account for what happens to them and gives insight into why people behave the way they do. There are two extremes of locus of control, namely: internal locus of control and external locus of control, which are discussed below.

From the above discussion on locus of control it may be derived that it is possible for teachers to see their ability to teach effectively in different ways. Some teachers might see themselves as in control of their teaching whilst others might feel that they have less control of for example, ill-disciplined learners.

2.2.2 Internal locus of control

Wood and Olivier (2007:165) define an internal locus of control as the confidence in one’s ability to overcome barriers to personal goals through organising cognitive, behavioural and social skills. People with an internal locus of control attribute life outcomes largely to personal control and their own behaviour (Holt, Bremmer, Sutherland, Vliek, Passer & Smith,2012:590). This implies that they take responsibility for the outcomes of their behaviours. Such people view the outcomes of their behaviours as being controlled by intrinsic factors like motivation (Naidoo, Botha & Bisschoff,2008:134). People with an internal locus of control believe that the outcomes of their actions are largely under their personal control and depend on their own behaviours (Passer & Smith, 2011:484).

The above discussion indicates that people with a strong internal locus of control believe that they control much of their lives and can succeed in difficult or stressful situations. Thus, they believe that their actions will largely lead to desired outcomes. Cardwell *et al.* (2004:108) share the same view that people with an internal locus of control tend to cope better with stressful situations. An internal locus of control is correlated with needs for independence, better work satisfaction and better involvement, which suggest that such persons also want to participate in decisions that affect their lives (Tosi, Rizzo & Carroll, 1995:121).

It may be surmised from the above discussion that teachers with a strong internal locus of control believe that they are capable to teach successfully under difficult conditions or difficult learners. They would believe that their teaching would lead to their expected outcomes because they attribute life outcomes to personal control and they take responsibility for the outcomes of their teaching behaviours.

2.2.3 External locus of control

Contrary to people with an internal locus of control, people with an external locus of control believe that things “happen to them”. They believe that it does not matter what they do because “whatever will be, will be” (Arongudade & Itua, 2010:342). This indicates that people with a strong external locus of control feel that they are largely unable to control things or events that happen in their lives. To them, luck, powerful people and fate play a major role in determining the outcomes of their behaviours. Cardwell *et al.* (2004:108) contend that people with an external locus of control confront stressful situations with a more passive attitude. They are likely to suffer more stress-related illnesses and are also less active in coping (Cardwell *et al.*, 2004:108). Therefore, they believe that the outcomes they desire will be largely determined by outside factors such as luck, fate or other people perceived to be powerful. Thus, people with an external locus of control attribute the outcomes of their behaviour to forces outside an individual and therefore beyond their control (Naidoo *et al.*, 2008:135).

People with an external locus of control further believe that their behaviours and abilities make no difference in the *reinforcers* they receive, thus they may see little value in exerting any effort to improve their situation (Schultz & Schultz, 2005:436). The question is raised as to why they should try when they have little or no expectation that they are in control of present or future events. According to Schultz and Schultz (2005:436), such individuals are convinced that they are powerless with respect to outside forces. This could be similar to township and rural school teachers who believe that, regardless of how hard they work, their learners will not improve academically due to the influence of factors found outside the classroom such as poverty and lack of parental support.

The discussion on internal and external locus of control seem to paint a rosy picture of people with an internal locus of control who possess all positive characteristics in comparison to people with an external locus of control. This view of people with an internal locus of control seems to conform more to Western societal ideals, which place a high value on achieving success through hard work and persistence (Ryckman, 2004:571). However, there are some situations that are largely beyond individual control. For example, being caught in traffic jams or waiting in long lines to access a bank teller machine are beyond individual control. By pressing the hooter incessantly in a traffic jam, the driver will not do much to move the traffic faster and making loud insulting comments about the bank teller machine or staff will not give the user quicker access to money. Instead, it can annoy one.

According to Ryckman (2004:572), people who have an extreme internal locus of control may seek to exert total control over their own and other's outcomes by acting in aggressive, obtrusive and domineering ways. Furthermore, they may experience considerable frustration and anxiety when placed in a situation where the attainment of their goals is beyond their control. In contrast, people with an external locus of control may be too submissive and passive in most situations and they are unlikely to develop the skills that are required to solve problems in many situations. Thus, they are likely to experience severe frustration and anxiety when placed in leadership positions or in situations where they must exercise their personal skills. They are also unlikely to feel proud of their accomplishments or to persist in solvable tasks (Ryckman, 2004:572).

According to Ryckman (2004:572), researchers think that, ideally, healthy people are those who have a flexible view of the role played by internal and external factors in determining the direction their lives might take. Such flexible individuals would be too realistic in trying to control all aspects of their environments and yet be too independent to relinquish all control (Ryckman, 2004:572). Instead, flexible people would adopt the view that they should make personal efforts to solve problems that are solvable and to accept that other things are outside their scope of control and therefore cannot be changed. Such people would consider the role played by both internal and external influences before making judgements about how to behave (Ryckman, 2004:572).

It is possible from the above discussion to derive that teachers with an external locus of control would need the support and encouragement from the principal. They may not react well to the challenging school circumstances and the demotivated learners. Such support and encouragement should focus on convincing the teachers to believe that their abilities and behaviours can make a difference in learning outcomes. They need to be convinced that they have power within them to teach better and control their classrooms better. This is important considering that the South African economy is not doing well currently. Learners complete schooling and find themselves unemployed which can easily lead to demotivation and a more passive attitude.

2.3 EFFICACY

The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005:399) defines efficacy as "an ability to produce the intended result". Efficacy is not a fixed human ability that an individual has or does not have (Bandura, 1997:36). Efficacy is a generative capability in which cognitive, social, emotional and behavioural sub-skills must be organised and effectively executed to serve innumerable purposes (Bandura, 1997:36). Bandura (1997:36) states that efficacy beliefs are concerned not only with the exercise of control over action, but also with the self-regulation of thought processes, motivation, affective and physiological states. Efficacy beliefs have been found to influence teachers' persistence, resilience and their behaviour in the classroom (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:783).

What emanated from the above paragraph was that efficacy enables people to have intentions or results to achieve. From intentions people put effort and persist to achieve their intended results. Efficacy is required by South African teachers who deal with unbearable work overloads, uncooperative and unruly learners sometimes. Without efficacy, South African teachers would find it difficult to continue teaching. Self-efficacy would therefore be imperative for teachers to believe in their capabilities.

2.4 SELF-EFFICACY

Self-efficacy is a belief that we can perform adequately in a particular situation (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1997:115). According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001:787), self-efficacy is defined as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments”. Holt *et al.* (2012:591) further define self-efficacy as “the beliefs that people have about their own ability to perform the behaviours needed to achieve desired outcomes”, whilst Snyder, Lopez and Pedrotti (2011:169) define self-efficacy as “what I believe I can do with my skills under certain conditions”. Daly *et al.* (2011:180) define self-efficacy as the belief in one’s own ability and not the actual ability to perform a task or achieve a goal. Thus, self-efficacy entails an individual’s self-perception of competence rather than the actual level of competence.

When applied to leadership, self-efficacy is defined as “a person’s judgement that he or she can successfully exert leadership by setting a direction for the work group, building relationships with followers in order to gain their commitment to change goals, and working with them to overcome obstacles to change” (Daly *et al.*, 2011:180). This suggests that, besides having the abilities and skills needed to move a school toward success, principals must believe they can successfully accomplish goals.

Self-efficacy is not the same as self-esteem, however. Self-efficacy tends to be more situation-specific, whilst the latter tends to be a generalised trait present in any situation (Luthans, 1998:132). Self-efficacy thus represents people’s beliefs that they have the capability to perform behaviours that will produce a desired outcome. This suggests that self-efficacy is concerned not with the number of skills individuals possess, but with what they believe they can do with what they have under various circumstances. Therefore, perceived self-efficacy is not a measure of the skills individuals have, but a belief about what they can do under various sets of conditions with the skills they possess.

Self-efficacy can be distinguished from outcome expectancy, which refers to a person's beliefs about what the outcome of a particular action is likely to be in a given situation (McAdams, 2006:83). McAdams (2006:83) distinguishes between a positive outcome expectancy and a negative outcome expectancy. A positive outcome expectancy means that a person believes that behaviour will produce a desired result, whilst a negative outcome expectancy means that a person suspects that behaviour will not yield a desired result. According to McAdams (2006:83), it is therefore possible to have a higher self-efficacy expectation in a particular situation, but lower outcome expectancy in the same situation. For example, a person believes that he or she can explain logically to a friend why he or she should not divorce his or her partner (high outcome expectancy) but might also be sure that the explanation will do very little good (low outcome expectancy).

Alternatively, Wood and Olivier (2008a:152) state that self-efficacy consists of three interdependent processes, namely:

- on-going intrinsic growth that is accompanied by development;
- an internal locus of control whereby an individual begins to believe in his or her personal power and the ability to influence events and attain desired outcomes; and
- interaction with the environment through formation of relationships and mobilisation of resources. This can positively influence changes in teachers' attitudes, performance, culture and roles, making them more effective in dealing with adverse environmental circumstances.

According to Hoy and Miskel (2008:159), self-efficacy is an important motivational factor that influences several behavioural and performance outcomes. It is learned through a variety of experiences, is dynamic and can change over time as new information and experiences are acquired (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:159). In addition, individuals who have stronger beliefs about their capabilities are more successful and persistent in their efforts (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:159). They tend to avoid tasks and situations that exceed their capacity. They also seek activities they judge

themselves capable of handling. Individuals develop self-efficacy through mastery experiences, modelling, persuasion and physiological arousal (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:159).

Self-efficacy as a motivational factor can assist South African teachers to stay longer in the profession so that their essential experiences should not be lost to the system. This requires teachers to be life-long learners because there are regular changes that are implemented by the Department of Basic Education to try to achieve a functional educational system.

2.5 TEACHER EFFICACY

Teacher efficacy is defined as “the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance, or as teachers’ beliefs or convictions that they can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated” (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998:202). Alderman (1999:145) defines teacher efficacy as a teacher’s confidence about teaching in a way that can bring about learner achievement. Similarly, Olayiwola (2006:442-443) defines teacher efficacy as the belief that one can exercise personal control over one’s behaviour, thinking, and emotions. According to Selaledi (1999:266), teacher efficacy is a teacher’s beliefs about the general relationship between teaching and learning. Rangraje *et al.* (2005:38) further provide the following definitions of teacher efficacy:

- Teacher efficacy refers to teachers’ beliefs that they can produce an outcome by successfully performing necessary behaviours;
- Teacher efficacy is the extent to which teachers believe that they can affect student learning;
- Teacher efficacy pertains to personal effectiveness, a feeling that one can control events and produce outcomes.

In an educational context, a teacher’s self-efficacy is defined as his or her belief that learners can acquire desired results even if they are not motivated sufficiently (Kurt, Duyar & Calik, 2012:74).

For the purpose of this study, teacher efficacy refers to the belief that individual teachers hold that they possess the ability to have a positive influence on learner outcomes, despite the difficult

circumstances they operate under, such as poor physical resources, constant curriculum reforms, pressure from other stakeholders and often, unmotivated learners. This suggests that teacher efficacy is the variable that accounts for individual differences in teaching effectiveness.

Teachers' perceived self-efficacy is directed toward improving learner outcomes so as to make a difference in learners' learning, to empower them and to develop a learner-centred perspective (Pinchevsky & Bogler, 2014:114). Teachers thus have significant control over their self-efficacy. They can develop their own abilities and thus increase their perceived levels of self-efficacy (Pinchevsky & Bogler, 2014:114). In addition, teachers who perceive a high level of self-efficacy could influence and affect school life. They report high levels of self-esteem, act with great confidence, express satisfaction in their work and are highly motivated (Pinchevsky & Bogler, 2014:114).

Teachers' sense of efficacy influences their performance, commitment to the teaching profession and professional retention of experienced teachers (Erawan, 2010:252). Elliot *et al.* (2010:134) contend that poor-quality teachers (low efficacy) are most likely to leave the profession within their first three years due to lack of prior experience, inadequate preparation or insufficient induction. On the other hand, better-prepared teachers (higher efficacy) are likely to remain in the teaching profession for much longer, especially if they receive continued support, supervision and professional development (Elliot *et al.*, 2010:134).

Goddard *et al.* (2004:4) caution that using the term teacher efficacy could be misleading because people can easily assume that teacher efficacy is the same as teacher effectiveness or successful teaching. Rather, it is important to talk about teachers' perceptions of efficacy, efficacy judgments, sense of efficacy, perceived efficacy or efficacy beliefs. All these terms connote judgments about capabilities to accomplish a task.

From the above discussion it may be derived that teacher efficacy would contribute to the turning around of poor performing schools. This is because teachers who have a higher efficacy believe

that their teaching matters and learners can benefit from their quality of teaching. Thus principals of low-performing schools would do well to assist their teachers to increase their efficacy.

2.5.1 General teaching efficacy

Teachers' beliefs that external factors have more power on learner achievement outcomes and motivation than the influence of schools and teachers themselves have been labelled general teaching efficacy since the Rand studies (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:204). General teaching efficacy (GTE) is the beliefs about what teachers in general can accomplish despite numerous obstacles that they face in carrying out their teaching duties (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:204). This refers to the teachability of learners or subjects. GTE reflects the constraints or contextual factors that can undermine teachers' efforts. Some of the external factors that have an impact on learner motivation and performance in school include, *inter alia*, (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:785):

- the value placed on education at home;
- social and economic realities;
- physiological, emotional and cognitive needs of a learner;
- conflict or violence;
- substanceabuse in the home or community.

General teaching efficacy relates to teachers' general belief in the teaching profession as a means of promoting achievement amongst learners regardless of the personal competencies of a particular teacher (Sela-Shayovitz, 2009:1061).

From the above discussion, it is evident that the above external factors extend beyond the individual capabilities of a particular teacher. Nevertheless, such factors affect the teaching of teachers in general in a school. Teachers with strong negative GTE beliefs indicate that environmental factors wield more power than teachers can exert in schools (Rangraje *et al.*, 2005:39). The belief exhibited by such teachers indicates that reinforcement of their teaching efforts is external. It is possible that teachers who believe that external factors have more influence

on learner outcomes than their own teaching might not make additional effort because they feel they cannot influence factors that lie outside of their control.

2.5.2 Personal teaching efficacy

Personal teaching efficacy refers to the internal orientation of teachers whereby they express confidence in their ability to teach difficult or unmotivated learners (Rangraje *et al.*, 2005:39). Such teachers believe that control is internal. They also indicate that they have confidence in their abilities as teachers to perform and overcome adverse factors that could make learning difficult for a learner. Such teachers reflect confidence that they have adequate training or experience to develop strategies to overcome obstacles to learning. Thus, personal teaching efficacy deals with one's own feelings of competence as a teacher (Rangraje *et al.*, 2005:39).

Gibson and Dembo (1985:175) view personal teaching efficacy as the best predictor of teacher behaviour. Personal teaching efficacy is represented by an integration of teaching efficacy and personal efficacy, which is a more generalised sense of effectiveness not specific to a particular situation (Gibson & Dembo, 1985:175). According to Selaledi (1999:266), personal teaching efficacy is defined as individual teachers' assessment of their own teaching competence. Furthermore, Tschannen-Moran *et al.* (1998:204) and Rangraje *et al.* (2005:39) state that teachers who express confidence in their abilities to teach unmotivated or difficult learners indicate a belief that reinforcement of teaching activities lies within a teacher's control. In addition, Pan *et al.* (2013:244) are of the view that personal teaching efficacy is the level of confidence an individual teacher has in their teaching abilities.

2.5.3 Teaching efficacy

According to Ashton and Webb (1986:4), teaching efficacy is another dimension of teacher efficacy which refers to teachers' expectations that teaching can influence student learning. Teachers differ in the extent to which they believe that teaching can influence learner performance, despite external obstacles such as family background and learner ability. Ashton and Webb (1986:4) argue that teachers with a low sense of efficacy believe that some learners cannot and will not learn in

school and that there is nothing any teacher can do to alter this unfortunate reality. On the other hand, teachers with a high sense of efficacy believe that all their learners are capable of learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986:4).

2.5.4 Teaching efficacy can be modified during pre-service through experiences and opportunities to successfully experience teaching activity (Erawan, 2010:252). According to Erawan (2010:252), pre-service teachers display strong efficacy beliefs throughout their course work and prior to formal teaching experience when they have the opportunity to practice under a supportive, protected environment. Once the support is taken away and teaching environments become more complex, efficacy levels drop. This demonstrates that principals need to support teachers and ensure that the environment in which teachers practice is protected from unnecessary disruptions, such as poor discipline or unwarranted departmental interventions. Distinguishing between general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy

The difference between general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy is not mainly personal versus general teaching efficacy (Rangraje *et al.*, 2005:39). The difference is the internal versus external dimension: the internal dimension represents perceptions of personal influence, power and impact in teaching and learning situations, whilst the external dimension entails perceptions of the influence, power and impact of elements that are found outside the classroom and maybe beyond the direct control of individual teachers (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:204).

The distinction between teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy is important to help determine the dimension of interventions (Ashton & Webb, 1986:5). If teachers' sense of efficacy is low because they believe their learners cannot learn; changing their expectations requires evidence that, in fact, they can positively affect the performance of low-achieving learners. Alternatively, if teachers' low efficacy is based on the belief that they themselves lack skills needed to teach low-achieving learners; their sense of efficacy will be altered only if they learn teaching

skills that they can see from experience make a difference in student learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986:6).

In addition, teachers with a low teaching efficacy are likely to experience universal helplessness (Ashton & Webb, 1986:6). Such teachers do not expect that they or any other teacher would have much effect on the achievement of their poorer-performing learners, and it is difficult for them to learn that such learners can be helped. The implication is that teachers who experience universal helplessness would give up on low-achieving learners too quickly and they are unlikely to extend an extra effort to attempt to assist their learners. Furthermore, such teachers are unlikely to experience high levels of stress or guilt when their learners perform poorly, because, after all, it is just what they expected their learners would do (Ashton & Webb, 1986:6).

Similarly, teachers with a low personal teaching efficacy are likely to experience personal helplessness (Ashton & Webb, 1986:6). Ashton and Webb (1986:6) explain that these teachers are unsure of their ability to teach low-performing learners. However, they do not place the responsibility for low achievement solely on the shoulders of the learners. They share the blame for learners' failure. They believe that low-achieving learners can learn if only they were better teachers, more knowledgeable, talented and dedicated (Ashton & Webb, 1986:6). Thus, when teachers who experience personal helplessness are asked to teach low-achieving learners, they are likely to feel guilty, experience high stress levels and suffer a loss of professional self-esteem (Ashton & Webb, 1986:6). A summary of the differences between teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy is tabulated below:

Table 2.1:A summary of the differences between teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy

Low teaching efficacy			Low personal teaching efficacy		
Universal helplessness			Personal helplessness		
Cognitive deficit	Motivational deficit	No affective deficit	Cognitive deficit	Motivational deficit	Affective deficit

Difficulty in learning that teachers can motivate learners	Passivity and little effort to motivate learners	Little stress due to personal resilience sustained by denying responsibility for motivating learners	Difficulty in learning that one is capable of motivating learners	Passivity and little effort exerted to motivate learners	High stress, depression, guilt and/or shame
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(adapted from Ashton & Webb, 1986:7)

Table 2.1 above showed that when schools experience low teaching efficacy there is passiveness, little effort, and denial of responsibility from teachers to motivate learners. On the other hand, the consequences of low personal teaching efficacy are that teachers find it difficult to believe that they are capable of motivating learners. Thus they experience high levels of stress, depression and guilt or shame.

2.6 COLLECTIVE TEACHER EFFICACY

According to Hoy, Sweetland and Smith (2002:79), collective teacher efficacy is the perceptions of teachers in a specific school that the faculty, as a whole, can execute courses of action required to positively affect learner achievement. Goddard and Skrla (2006:216) are of a similar view that perceived collective efficacy refers to the beliefs organisational members hold about their group's capability to attain the desired goals. Snyder *et al.* (2011:173) define collective efficacy as "the extent to which we believe that we can work effectively to accomplish our shared goals".

Collective teacher efficacy is one of the constructs that is systematically related with learner outcomes (Hoy *et al.*, 2002:79). Collective efficacy influences an organisation's normative environment by encouraging certain actions and discouraging others (Goddard *et al.*, 2004:405). For example, the stronger a group's perception of their capability to achieve a certain goal, the more likely the group is to choose to pursue that goal and to make the effort required to achieve it. In other words, collective efficacy focuses on the perceptions of teachers in a school that their combined efforts can have a positive effect on learners. The opposite can happen if there is low teaching efficacy in a school as shown in Table 2.1.

2.7 MOTIVATION

The Paperback Oxford English Dictionary (2002:549) defines motivation as “the reason or reasons behind one’s actions or behaviour”. Mclean (2009:7) contends that motivation is what moves people to action: why people start an activity; continue with it or stop it; giving us a motive to do something; internal processes and external incentives that spur us on to satisfy a need; our response to challenges and threats in situations where success or failure is possible; the marshalling of enthusiasm; confidence and persistence.

Pintrich and Schunk (2002:5) define motivation as “the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained”. This definition indicates that motivation is a process which is inferred from behaviours such as choice of tasks, effort, persistence and verbalisations. Motivation involves goals that provide impetus and direction for action. Motivation also involves activities that can be physical or mental. Physical activity includes effort, persistence and overt actions, whilst mental activity involves cognitive actions such as planning, rehearsing, organising, monitoring, making decisions, problem-solving and assessing progress (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:5). The definition indicates that motivated activity is instigated and sustained. Starting a goal is essential, but it also requires commitment to sustain the action.

Furthermore, according to Baleghizadeh and Gordani (2012:31), motivation is generally regarded to mean a stimulus for behaviour and action in the light of a particular context. Hein *et al.* (2012:124) mention that there is a distinction between autonomous and controlling forms of motivation: autonomous motivation reflects acting to satisfy personally relevant goals. The form of autonomous motivation is intrinsic motivation; on the other hand, controlling motivation is reflected in engaging in behaviour induced by external reinforcement, such as obtaining a reward or avoiding punishment. Steyn (2002:85) mentions three components of motivation:

- energising human behaviour;
- directing behaviour by creating a goal orientation for the individual;
- maintaining and supporting behaviour.

Steyn (2002:85) explains further that motivation includes complex forces, incentives, needs, tensions and other mechanisms that energise, canalise and sustain human behaviour to carry out a particular action. Educators who are demotivated often display apathy, indifference to the work, a poor record of time keeping, high absenteeism, lack of cooperation in handling problems and exaggeration of the effect of difficulties encountered when facing problems (Steyn, 2002:86).

According to Grobler (2009:96), motivation can be regarded as:

- the attitude of wanting to exert oneself to reach specific goals, for example, learning objectives;
- the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained;
- the needs, goals and desires that spur an individual to action.

For this study, it may be concluded from the above definitions that motivation is a process that energises people to choose tasks, to start actions, to put in effort, to persist with their actions during difficult times, and helps individuals to complete their tasks. It gives direction to people's actions because there are goals to be achieved. It also helps people to maintain commitment to their behaviour.

Table 2.2 summarises different aspects that contribute to motivation levels of teachers. Through teachers sense of efficacy teachers perceive that they have the ability to accomplish specific tasks. Teachers' self-concept relates to self-judgement about one's competencies. Through self-esteem teachers reflect on their self-evaluations of their accomplishments, whilst through locus of control teachers accept or reject their responsibility for learner outcomes. Thus teachers with a higher efficacy, positive self-concept, positive self-esteem and internal locus of control can contribute positively to learner achievement.

Table 2.1: Summary of differences between teachers' sense of efficacy, self-concept, self-esteem and self-worth (illustration from Silverman & Davis, 2009:5)

Construct	Definition	Characteristics	Sample items
Teachers' sense of efficacy	Teachers' perceptions of their ability to accomplish specific tasks in a given context.	Task and context-specific, future-oriented. Not based on comparison with other people or with other aspects of self – rather, the question is “Can I do it?” Judgement of capability.	<p>“How much can you do to help your learners think critically?” (Instructional)</p> <p>“How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom” (Classroom management)</p> <p>“How much can you do to motivate learners who show low interest in school work?” (Motivation)</p> <p>“Learners would come to me when they have problems in their daily life because they know I can help” (Relationships)</p>
Teacher self-concept	Global perceptions of my competence as a teacher.	Global, present orientation, includes self-efficacy and other self-judgements, based on comparisons with others, e.g. “I work with parents better than most teachers”, or with self (I am better at lecturing than guiding group	<p>“I am a good teacher”</p> <p>“My students learn many important things from me”</p>

		work)	
Teacher self-esteem	Global affective statements reflecting teachers' self-evaluations of their accomplishments.	Judgement of self-worth, not necessarily related to self-efficacy – can have low efficacy for a task, but do not value the task, so self-esteem is unaffected.	<p>“On the whole I am satisfied with myself”</p> <p>“I wish I could have more respect for myself”</p>
Locus of control and teachers' sense of responsibility	Teachers' beliefs about their responsibility for learner outcomes.	Teachers' attributions for learner outcomes. Teachers' acceptance or rejection of responsibility for implementing culturally relevant pedagogy.	<p>“If a learner does well in your class, would it probably be: (a) because that learner had the natural ability to do well, or (b) because of the encouragement you offered?”</p> <p>“It is my responsibility to ensure that every learner is able to participate in every lesson (Global beliefs about inclusion)</p> <p>“It is my responsibility to provide accurate information about sexual orientations” (Specific beliefs about racial, religious and social minorities)</p>

2.8 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON EFFICACY DEVELOPMENT

According to Liebert and Spiegler (1995:413), the social learning approach to personality development begins where radical behavioural approaches left off. Radical behavioural approaches stress the importance of learning through classical and operant conditioning and situational factors in the development of personality. Social learning theories emphasise the social aspects of the situation that influence personality development, including the influence of learning and changing one's behaviour by observing how others behave (Liebert & Spiegler 1995:413). The following discussion focuses on Rotter's social learning theory and Bandura's social cognitive theory, because Rotter laid the foundation for the social cognitive approaches toward human behaviour and Bandura pioneered research on observational learning and self-efficacy

2.8.1 Social learning theories

Social learning theories are cognitively oriented theories in which observational learning, values and expectations play major roles in determining behaviour (Rathus & Nevid, 1999:50). According to social learning theory, most human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling or by observing other humans (Bieneman, 2012:ix). The theories are also concerned with personality processes, such as cognitions that influence how humans act (Liebert & Spiegler, 1995:413). The first social learning theory was developed by Neal Miller and John Dollard (Liebert & Spiegler, 1995:413). However, according to Liebert and Spiegler (1995:413), this theory has had little impact on contemporary social learning theories. Social learning theory's concepts of social models as factors that affect how people act and think is the remnant of Miller and Dollard's theory in contemporary social learning theories (Liebert & Spiegler, 1995:413).

2.8.2 Relating social learning theories to other personality theories

Social cognitive theorists believe that psychoanalysts overemphasise unconscious forces and the influence of early childhood experience (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:298). Although social cognitive theorists recognise that much of cognition is unconscious, they believe that people's conscious thinking processes are of exceptional importance to personality. They also recognise that early childhood experiences are influential but believe that people have the capacity to develop and grow (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:298).

Social cognitive theorists question the basic premise of trait theory that personality can be understood in terms of people's overall average tendencies, for example, their average trait levels (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:299). Social cognitivists believe that personality is revealed not only in average levels of behaviour but in patterns of variability in action – for example, being lazy in some tasks but motivated in others (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:299). According to social cognitivists, this variability from one situation to the next is indicative of one's underlying personality (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:299).

According to Pervin and Cervone (2010:299), social cognitivists view evolutionary psychology as an inadequate basis for psychology of personality. They believe that an evolutionary perspective fails to explain the vast changes in human social life that are observed from one historical period to another (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:299). Evolutionary psychologists might have explained why women, compared to men, are evolutionarily predisposed to stay at home rather than to seek work. Such an explanation makes little sense now that many women have entered the workforce (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:299).

According to social cognitive theorists, human beings are not simply at the mercy of the environment – they are self-aware and purposefully engage in learning. They seek to learn about their environment and to alter it to make *reinforcers* available (Rathus & Nevid, 1999:50). This altering emanates from people's thinking abilities which give them the capacity to motivate and to direct their actions (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:299). Thus, it is a theory of psychological systems that enable people to play an active role in the course of their own development. It also differs from behaviourism by showing how people learn new patterns of behaviour by observation or modelling even in the absence of reinforcement (Pervin & Cervone, 2010:299). Two contemporary social learning theories developed by Rotter and Bandura, respectively, are discussed subsequently.

2.9 ROTTER'S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Julian Rotter laid the foundation for the social cognitive approaches toward human behaviour (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1992:221). A cornerstone of Rotter's theory is the emphasis he places on

how our experiences (learning) and our perceptions and beliefs about the present situation (cognitive processes) are interrelated in determining our individual responses to life's challenges. In other words, social cognitive theories see people as influencing their environment just as their environment influences them (Rathus & Nevid, 1999:50). Rotter sought explanations for human behaviour and personality outside and inside the organism, looking to external reinforcements and internal cognitive processes (Schultz & Schultz 2005:436).

According to Rotter, the likelihood that human beings will engage in a particular behaviour in a given situation is influenced by two factors, namely expectancy and reinforcement value (Holt *et al.*, 2012:590). Expectancy refers to the perception of likelihood that a certain consequence (reinforcement) would occur if we engage in a particular behaviour within a specific situation, whilst reinforcement value refers to the subjective attractiveness of a particular reinforcement (McAdams, 2006:79). For example, a student may feel that the reinforcement value of improving his or her relationship with a partner may be higher than the reinforcement value of obtaining a higher percentage in his or her psychology course. Therefore, he or she may work hard at mending the relationship with a partner and may neglect improving his or her percentage. Rotter's most influential expectancy concept is internal-external locus of control, which is an expectation concerning the degree of personal control people have in their lives (Passer & Smith, 2011:484).

2.9.1 Basic assumptions of Rotter's social learning theory

The discussion below focused on Rotter's four perspectives about how human behaviour is learnt. This included learning from meaningful experience, the reciprocal nature of life experience, the motivational nature of personality and the role of expectancies.

2.9.1.1 Learning from meaningful experience

The point of view expressed by Rotter is that behaviour is mainly learned, but individuals' expectations and the value they attach to the expected outcomes of their behaviour are more important in the learning process than the *reinforcers* (Meyer *et al.*, 1992:222). Through this assumption, Rotter stated that personality is developed from an individual's interaction with the

environment (Meyer *et al.*, 1992:222). This means people learn by adjusting their perceptions and expectations based on meaningful experiences with their environment.

2.9.1.2 The reciprocal nature of life experience: a mixing of the old and new

A second assumption of Rotter's perspective emphasises the interactive nature of new and old experiences (Meyer *et al.* 1992:224). This means that human reactions to new experiences are influenced to some extent by old experiences and the perceptions that humans hold of their old experiences are influenced by their new experiences. For example, a student's reaction to the first few weeks of tertiary education is probably influenced to some degree by the experiences the student had in high school (both situations involve use of basic learning skills) (Carducci, 2009:406). Once the student has established what tertiary education involves, he or she begins to see how different it is from high school (a greater amount of freedom to select what the student wants to study and when to study it). This indicates that, for Rotter, the nature of personality development is not only a list of human experiences but the outcome of the process of the reciprocal influence of old and new experiences (Rathus & Nevid, 1999:50).

2.9.1.3 The motivational nature of personality

A third assumption of Rotter's perspective is that goals and values drive human behaviour (Mischel, Shoda & Ayduk, 2008:362). This suggests that, through goals and values, humans are motivated to maximise rewards and lessen punishment. For example, based on the experiences a student had in high school, he or she has concluded that taking notes in class maximises the probability of obtaining good marks. But if the feedback from the first test reveals that the student's technique of taking notes is not good, the student will probably need to go to the resource centre to upgrade his or her skill of note taking (Carducci, 2009:408). This assumption also implies that humans modify their behaviours according to their experiences to maximise success in achieving a good outcome – in this case, better marks.

2.9.1.4 The role of expectancies: the effect of anticipation on rewards

The fourth assumption suggests that an individual's action depends on the reward expected (Mischel *et al.*, 2008:361). Therefore, when trying to understand and predict human behaviour, there is a need to know the nature of the reward and the extent to which a person feels he or she can obtain it. This means that a reward is of little motivational value if the individual perceives the likelihood of obtaining it to be very low. For example, one of the reasons some learners of school-going age from impoverished areas might not spend much time studying may be that their expectancies of schooling making a positive difference in their lives are possibly exceptionally low.

2.10 BASIC CONCEPTS OF ROTTER'S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Social learning theory is the view of psychologists who emphasise behaviour, environment and cognition as key factors in predicting human behaviour (Santrock, 1998:47).

2.10.1 Behaviour potential: What are my options?

According to Rotter, human beings have various options when it comes to the way we respond to events in our lives, which is called behaviour potential (Burger, 2004:384). Behaviour potential refers to the likelihood of a specific behaviour occurring in a particular situation as a means to achieve a specific goal (Burger, 2004:384). This means, the higher the probability of a behaviour occurring in a given situation, the greater its behaviour potential. For example, someone insults you at a party. There are several actions to choose from, such as remarking cleverly, asking for an apology, showing anger, yelling at the offender or leaving the scene. Each possible response to an insult has a different behaviour potential. If you shout an insult, it means the behaviour potential for that response was stronger than for any of the other possible responses (Burger, 2004:384).

2.10.2 Expectancy: What are the odds?

The term that Rotter uses to explain the subjective nature of what we think will happen is expectancy. Expectancy refers to an individual's predictions about what would follow if he or she behaves in a particular manner in a specific situation and what reinforcements would occur (Rathus & Nevid, 1999:53). For example, when deciding to study only class notes for a test, the

learner implies that he or she expects to get better marks in this class by studying the notes rather than the material in the textbook.

The analysis of personality does not stop with a description of what people know and how they interpret events; it also seeks to predict and understand actual performance in specific situations (Mischel *et al.*, 2008:361). Specific expectancies refer to the subjective beliefs an individual has about a particular course of action producing a desired outcome in a specific situation. For example, a learner who believes that studying only the class notes in a biology class would yield better results demonstrates a specific expectancy. On the other hand, people rely on generalised expectations in new situations. These are beliefs people hold about how often their actions typically lead to reinforcements and punishments (Burger, 2004:386).

According to Carducci (2009:410), specific and generalised expectancies influence each other. What begins as a generalised expectancy may develop into a specific expectancy based on individual experience. For example, a learner who begins high school education assumes that taking good notes in all the classes and studying only the notes for the test would produce better results. But, after the first examinations, the learner realises that this strategy works with some teachers but not with others (Carducci, 2009:409). Based on this experience, the learner begins to tailor his or her expectations so that his or her studying behaviour is specific to each subject (Carducci, 2009:409).

Larsen and Buss (2010:380) affirm the value of generalised expectations, saying that when people encounter a new situation, they base their expectations of what would happen on their generalised expectations of whether they could influence events. On the other hand, the value of specific expectancies is that they enable us to adjust our behaviour to the situation at hand. Burger (2004:386) agrees that generalised expectancies are used to calculate behaviour. For example, a person who typically says "I think I can do it" in a new situation is relying on his or her generalised belief that he or she could make things happen.

2.10.3 Reinforcement value: What do you want?

Reinforcement value refers to the degree to which we prefer one reinforcer over another (Burger, 2004:387). Reinforcement can be divided into positive, negative, primary and secondary reinforcers (Rathus & Nevid, 1999:49). Positive reinforcers increase the frequency of the behaviour when they are applied (e.g. money, food), whilst negative reinforcers increase the frequency of behaviour when they are removed (e.g. pain, anxiety, food, liquid,). Primary reinforcers are associated with the biological make-up of organisms. These reinforcers include food, liquid and physical contact. On the other hand, secondary reinforcers acquire their value through association with established reinforcers. For example, we may learn to seek money because it is associated with primary reinforcers such as food.

2.10.4 The psychological situation: reinforcement in context

After realising that what is valued in one situation or context may not be valued in another, Rotter proposed the notion of the psychological situation, which refers to any specific aspect to which the individual is responding (Carducci, 2009:410). The subjective nature of the way people perceive a situation is the reason why Rotter refers to it as psychological – he states that we are influenced by the objective cues in a situation and also by the psychological reactions they trigger in each of us (Carducci, 2009:410). Thus, our responses are determined by our expectations, reinforcement values and subjective perception of the cues in a particular situation.

2.10.5 The basic formula: combining the specifics to predict behaviour

In order to help predict the nature of an individual's behaviour in a particular situation, Rotter combines the concepts of reinforcement and expectancy into a basic formula (McAdams, 2005:79). This basic formula states that the behaviour potential (BP) in a specific situation (SI) is a function of the expectancy (E) of the occurrence of a certain reinforcement (RVa) following a particular behaviour (x). The basic formula might be expressed as follows (McAdams, 2005:79): $BPSI = f(E, RVa, RVX, SI)$.

In other words, the basic formula proposes that the likelihood of particular behaviour in a given situation is a function of one's expectation that the behaviour would produce the reinforcement one desires. For example, a person who wants to have some fun could go to a party or a newly released movie. According to the basic formula, the decision would be based on this person's perception of which activity would be more enjoyable. We therefore calculate the probability that the action will result in a given reinforcer and the value that reinforcer has for us (Burger, 2004:387).

2.11 BANDURA'S SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

Psychologist Albert Bandura pioneered research on observational learning and self-efficacy (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010:16). Bandura's social cognitive theory, formerly known as social learning theory, emphasises that people learn by observing the behaviour of models and by acquiring the belief that they can produce behaviours to influence events in their lives (Passer & Smith, 2011:244). By observing others, people acquire knowledge, rules, skills, strategies, beliefs and attitudes. Individuals also learn from models the usefulness and appropriateness of behaviours and the consequences of modelled behaviours, and they act according to their beliefs about their capabilities and the expected outcomes of their actions (Schunk, 2000:78).

Bandura believed that human functioning involves reciprocal interactions between behaviours, environmental variables, cognitions and other personal factors (Schunk, 2000:12). The social factors are central to the learning and development of an individual (Gray & Macbalain, 2012:91). Bandura suggested that motivation play a significant role in the link between children observing behaviours and subsequent changes in their own behaviour (Gray & Macbalain, 2012:91). Much of the behaviour displayed by humans is therefore learned by example, which implies observing others' conduct and then repeating their actions (Ryckman, 2004:582).

Although Bandura placed greater emphasis on cognitive processes when analysing human behaviour, he did not ignore the effects of reinforcement (Ryckman, 2004:581). Bandura maintained that human behaviour is largely regulated by anticipated outcomes (Ryckman,

2004:582). This means that, because of our earlier experiences, humans expect that certain behaviours will yield desired results, others will produce unwanted outcomes, whilst others will have a little significance. However, Bandura believed that *reinforcers* and punishers do not provide automatic strengthening or weakening of behaviour (Ryckman, 2004:582). In addition, Ryckman (2004:582) postulates that *reinforcers* and punishers do not fully account for the ways in which human behaviour is acquired, maintained or altered.

2.11.1 The social cognitive viewpoint on personality

Social cognitive theory is an approach to understanding human cognition, action, motivation and emotion that assumes that people are capable of self-reflection and self-regulation and that they are active shapers of their environments rather than simply passive reactors to them (Mardux, 1995:4). According to Mardux (1995:6), social cognitive theory views the three major alternative approaches to explaining personality and behaviour, namely psychodynamic theories, trait theories and radical behaviourism, as unable to account satisfactorily for the complexity and ability to be moulded (plasticity) of human behaviour.

The major characteristic of the social cognitive viewpoint is that it places more emphasis on human mental processes and how they can be used to influence the nature of our thoughts, feelings and behaviour during our daily interpersonal activities (Mischel *et al.*, 2008:352). Such cognitive processes include the nature of mental strategies people use to organise information about themselves and others, decision-making strategies people use in self-regulation of their own behaviour, and the subjective evaluation of the consequences of various actions in response to a given situation.

2.11.2 Assumptions of the social cognitive viewpoint

The assumption of social cognitive theory is that human beings are the active shapers of their lives (Bieneman, 2012:16). This approach emphasises the social and cognitive processes whereby people learn to value and strive for certain goals over others (Larsen & Buss, 2010:387). The theory differentiates between three modes of agency: personal agency, exercised individually;

proxy agency where people influence others to act on their behalf to secure desired outcomes; and collective agency when people shape their future by acting collectively. To be an agent means to influence intentionally one's functioning and life circumstances (Bieneman, 2012:16). Thus, agency allows people to adapt flexibly to rapidly changing and diverse environments. This agentic perspective is important to teachers who experience daily a changing cultural context and increasing diversity in schools (Bieneman, 2012:16).

Social cognitive theory has four other basic assumptions, which are discussed below, namely: the significance of the personal perspective; the presence of a need for cognition; people's desire to seek further understanding and clarification of their personal world; and the significance of subjective probabilities.

2.11.3 The significance of the personal perspective: the importance of perceptions and beliefs

The logic of this assumption is that humans do not just produce behaviour, but consciously perceive and think about the results of their behaviour (Meyer *et al.*, 1992:227). For example, a person who believes that he or she is shy decides not to talk to others at a party because the assumption is that what he or she has to say is not interesting and that others are more amusing than he or she is. The individual then withdraws from others as a result of beliefs (his or her contribution is not interesting) and perceptions (others are more amusing) he or she has about himself or herself and others. Thus, behaviour is viewed as the outcome of the reciprocal influence of the individual and the environment (Meyer *et al.*, 1992:223).

2.11.4 The presence of a need for cognition: the desire to think

The components of cognition include how people perceive, interpret, remember and plan, which describes people as actively seeking information in a direct attempt to give meaning to their experiences and cope with the demands placed on them rather than viewing individuals as

passively responding to their environment (Larsen & Buss, 2010:639). Once this information has been obtained, each individual processes it to determine the most meaningful course of action from his or her personal perspective. However, people differ in the amount of time and effort each individual is willing to spend when processing information to prepare a course of action in response to external stimuli (Carducci, 2009:398). This indicates that individuals differ in the extent to which they enjoy and make effort related to thinking.

2.11.5 A desire to understand and clarify one's personal world: the pursuit of precision

People are motivated to make their understanding of their personal world more accurate and precise (Carducci, 2009:398). This means people assess the outcome of their actions to determine the present effectiveness and future viability of the actions. For example, a student believes that cramming is a highly effective way of getting good marks in a test. If a student crammed for a test but obtained a low mark, he or she would probably reconsider the validity of his or her hypothesis when studying for the next test. The student may decide that cramming is still a good idea, but that the cramming should begin earlier. From his or her viewpoint, he or she will continue to seek information that will help to maintain the accuracy of this belief (Carducci, 2009:398).

2.11.6 The nature and value of subjective probabilities: playing the odds

Subjective determination of probability is one of the cognitive processes that contribute to individuals' view of their personal world (Carducci, 2009:405). This process of subjective determination of probability indicates that a particular course of action will produce a desired outcome (Mischel *et al.*, 2008:354). In other words, a person's expectations about the outcomes of a particular course of action depend not only on what has happened in the past, but also on what the person has observed happening to others. After considering various responses to alternatives, as well as their respective outcomes, humans decide what course of action to follow. The social cognitive viewpoint thus sees the individual as playing the odds by actively calculating the subjective probability of a course of action based on internal (personal experiences) and environmental factors (the present outcome). So, individuals do not just react to the environment (Larsen & Buss, 2010:513).

2.11.7 The modelling processes and self-efficacy

Bandura argues that people learn from observing role models in day-to-day life (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010:16). In addition, he explains that learning would be exceedingly laborious and hazardous if people had to rely entirely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010:16). Thus, Bandura views modelling as a procedure that can help to instil in people the level of self-efficacy necessary for effective behaviour (Ryckman, 2004:590).

Effective performers have acquired high but realistic efficacy expectations that guide their actions, whereas low performers have acquired low and unrealistic expectations that adversely influence their performances (Ryckman, 2004:590). Modelling refers to behavioural, cognitive and affective changes that result from observing one or more models (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:150). According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002:150), modelling serves three basic functions, namely inhibition/disinhibition, response facilitation, and observational learning.

2.11.7.1 Inhibition/disinhibition

Observing a model has the potential to strengthen or weaken the observer's inhibitions. When a model performs threatening or prohibited activities without experiencing negative consequences, it is likely that observers may perform the observed behaviours (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:151-152). If models are punished, observers may be inhibited from performing similar activities. Inhibitory and dis-inhibitory effects result from observers' beliefs that they are likely to experience similar consequences if they act like the model. For example, if a teacher disciplines a learner for unruly behaviour, other learners are likely to believe that they, too, would be disciplined if they continue to misbehave. On the other hand, if a teacher does not punish misbehaviour, observers may start to misbehave, too, expecting that they, too, will not be disciplined.

2.11.7.2 Response facilitation

Response facilitation occurs when modelled actions serve as social prompts for observers to behave accordingly (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:151). Response facilitation behaviours are socially acceptable and not accompanied by potential restraints.

2.11.7.3 Observational learning

Observational learning (modelling) is learning that occurs without the learner receiving direct external reinforcement (Mischel *et al.*, 2008:353). Observational learning occurs when observers watch others, or when they attend to their surroundings, to physical events or to symbols, such as words or pictures, then display new behaviours that had no chance of occurring prior to observing modelled behaviour (Mischel *et al.*, 2008:353). This suggests that this type of learning occurs without a person performing the learned response – for example, learning how to steal money from a bank by watching how it is done on television. Observational learning is viewed by Bandura as a four-step cognitive process that includes the following cognitive sub-processes (Holt *et al.*, 2012:267):

- Attention: We must pay attention to the model's behaviour. Motivation affects the attention that the observer gives because of the perceived functional value of modelled behaviour. Actions that are perceived by observers as important and likely to lead to valued outcomes, receive greater attention. People attend to models they believe are competent and knowledgeable. In other words, a highly distinctive model, attractive, familiar or strange may capture the attention of the observer better than a less distinctive model (McAdams, 2006:81). On the other hand, McAdams (2006:81) cautions that a person must be motivated to observe, because it may not matter how distinctive or attractive a model is. If the observer is too tired to notice the model, no observational learning will occur. Similarly, learners attend to teachers because the latter's actions are viewed to be highly functional and learners are expected to learn the modelled behaviours (Holt *et al.*, 2012:267).
- Retention: For learning to occur, the observer must be able to encode, remember and make sense of what he or she observes (McAdams, 2006:82). This means we must retain the modelled information in our memory so as to recall it when needed. Retention includes coding and transforming modelled information for storage in memory and mentally rehearsing the information. Observers store modelled behaviours in imaginary and verbal form. Imaginary coding is important for activities that are not easy to describe in words. Motivation influences the activities that observers retain. If observers judge certain

modelled behaviour as important, they are more likely to retain that behaviour, unlike when they see little value in modelled activity. Retention shows an interaction between learning and motivation.

- **Reproduction:** According to McAdams (2006:82), the reproduction processes concern the capabilities of performing what is observed and the availability of such performance in the observer's behaviour. This means we must be capable of reproducing or translating the model's behaviour or something similar to it.
- **Motivation:** In this case, an observer must want to imitate behaviour if imitation is to occur (McAdams, 2006:82). We must be motivated to display the behaviour and perform activities with expected positive consequences. It is at this point that rewards and punishments play their strongest roles. After the observer has attended to the model's behaviour, encoded the behaviour and can reproduce the behaviour, the observer is most likely to imitate the model if reinforced for doing so. Reinforcement might come from the external environment, from the individual (self-reinforcement), or by seeing or imagining someone else being reinforced for the behaviour (vicarious reinforcement).

Albert Bandura provided another strand of theoretical framework based on social cognitive theory for studying self-efficacy by making a distinction between two categories of expectations that influence human behaviour, namely outcome expectation and efficacy expectation (Yeo *et al.*, 2008:193). Outcome expectation refers to a person's estimation that particular behaviour will lead to certain outcomes. It reflects the perceived consequences of either behaviour or an event. Outcome expectations, in the form of physical or social rewards, recognitions, punishments, criticisms or self-evaluations, can provide people with incentives and disincentives for particular behaviour (Moran & Hoy, 2001:788).

Efficacy expectation refers to individuals' perception that they can or cannot successfully orchestrate the necessary actions to perform a certain task (Ryckman, 2004:590). Efficacy expectation is not to be equated with people's actual skills, because Bandura pointed out that

individuals who know what to do in a given situation and possess the required skills to perform well, will not necessarily perform well if they have serious self-doubts about their capabilities (Ryckman, 2004:590). Therefore, competent functioning requires not only skills but also the judgements of self-efficacy to permit their effective use. Furthermore, Ryckman (2004:590) points out that even when people have the needed skills and a strong sense of self-efficacy, they may not choose to perform the activities if they have no incentive to do so.

2.12 SOURCES OF SELF-EFFICACY

The four sources of efficacy are postulated as: mastery experiences; physiological and emotional states; and social persuasion (Hoy & Spero, 2005:345). Principals can provide their teachers with mastery experiences, physiological and emotional arousal, vicarious experiences and verbal persuasion as sources of information to develop teachers' self-efficacy.

According to Ashton and Webb (1986:xii), self-efficacy begins when people feel that they have the power to change their own world. Self-efficacy is a learned human pattern of thinking rather than a genetically endowed one (Snyder *et al.*, 2011:168). This suggests that people can learn, develop and optimise their self-efficacy by believing in their capabilities. For example, teachers do not like being talked down to (Ashton & Webb, 1986:49). Thus, the kind of leadership that is needed in the teaching profession is the leadership that hands over power to teachers to encourage them to solve their own problems. This suggests that principals can play an essential role to boost the self-belief of teachers in low-performing rural and township schools. Stipek (2002:42) states that there are four principal sources of information for self-efficacy in academic situations, namely: actual experience; vicarious experience; verbal persuasion; and physiological arousal.

2.12.1 Mastery experiences

The most powerful source of efficacy information is mastery experiences (Hoy & Spero, 2005:345; Ross & Gray, 2006:183). Performance successes and failures (actual experiences) in completing tasks have strong effects on self-efficacy (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:158). Recurrent successes have the potential to raise efficacy perceptions, whilst regular failures produce self-doubts and reduce self-

efficacy, especially if failure occurs early in the performance of a task (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:158). Efficacy is facilitated by gradual accomplishments that build skills and coping abilities to perform a task (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:158).

The perception that teaching has been successful raises efficacy expectations that teaching will be proficient in the future (Goddard *et al.*, 2004:6). In other words, past school successes build teachers' beliefs in their capability as individuals and a collective (Goddard *et al.*, 2004:6). Teachers who perceive their efforts to have been successful in a particular task believe they have the ability to perform that task and anticipate that they will be successful in future encounters with the task (Ross & Gray, 2006:183). On the other hand, the perception that teaching has been a failure, lowers efficacy beliefs, contributing to the perception that future performances will also be inept (Hoy & Spero, 2005:345).

Principals may provide mastery experiences for teachers by collaborating with them to develop school goals and a curriculum, by increasing the availability of instructional resources, and by providing adequate preparation time with colleagues (Fancera & Bliss, 2011:352). By working together, teachers can learn from one another, especially from experienced colleagues who have contributed to the past successes of the school.

According to Snyder *et al.* (2011:169), previous success in similar situations has the potential to raise an individual's self-efficacy by calling on positive thoughts about how well one has done earlier. Bandura (1997:80) states further that successes build a belief in one's personal efficacy, whilst failures undermine one's efficacy, especially if the failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established. McAdams (2006:83) shares this view that actual mastery experience of previous successes and failures is the most powerful source of self-efficacy judgements. The perception that a performance has been successful raises efficacy beliefs, which contributes to the expectation that performance will be proficient in the future. On the other hand, the perception that one's performance has been a failure, lowers efficacy beliefs, which contributes to the expectation that future performances will be inept (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:211).

Bandura (1997:80) views some difficulties and setbacks that human beings experience as serving a purpose because they teach people that success requires sustained effort. Such difficulties and setbacks provide individuals with opportunities to learn how to turn failure into success by sharpening their capabilities to exercise better control over events (Weiten *et al.*, 2009:162). Once people are convinced that they have what it takes to succeed, they persevere in the face of adversity and rebound quickly from setbacks. By sticking it out through rough times, people emerge from adversity stronger and more able to overcome and master the most difficult obstacles (Ryckman, 2004:592). This suggests that, for teachers to develop a resilient sense of efficacy, they require principals who encourage them to persevere despite experiencing setbacks.

Building a sense of efficacy through experience involves acquiring cognitive, behavioural and self-regulatory tools for creating and executing effective actions to manage the ever changing life circumstances (Bandura, 1997:81). This indicates that performance successes and failures on their own do not raise or lower personal efficacy. Changes in perceived efficacy are the results of the diagnostic information that performances convey about capability rather than performances per se (Bandura, 1997:81).

It is essential for principals to note that performance alone does not provide sufficient information to judge teachers' capability, because there are other factors that have little to do with ability but can affect performance (Bandura, 1997:81). These non-ability factors include: preconceptions of capabilities; the perceived difficulties of the task; the amount of effort; the amount of external aid one receives; circumstances under which one performs; the temporal pattern of one's successes and failures; and the way the experiences are cognitively organised and reconstructed in memory (Bandura, 1997:81). However, only the first three non-ability factors are discussed below.

2.12.2 Preconceptions of capabilities

The development of preconceptions about one's abilities (self-knowledge) is a cognitive process rather than just an audit of one's performances (Bandura, 1997:81). People do not approach tasks devoid of any idea about themselves or the world around them. Through experience, people

develop a structured self-system of personal efficacy that influences what they look for, how they interpret and organise the efficacy information that is generated during their dealings with their environments, and what they retrieve from memory in making efficacy judgements (Bandura, 1997:81).

Experiences that are inconsistent with one's self-beliefs are minimised or forgotten. On the other hand, experiences that are consistent with self-beliefs become readily noticed, are given significance and are remembered (Bandura, 1997:82). Thus, people who doubt their self-efficacy would view their successes as products of laborious efforts rather than evidence of their capabilities. Self-assured people would view their successes as the result of their own capabilities, and they would believe more in their abilities. The self-assured are also inclined to attribute poor performance to faulty strategies, insufficient effort or other situational factors. In such a case, setbacks or failures are unlikely to undermine self-belief in one's capabilities (Bandura, 1997:82).

2.12.3 Perceived difficulty of the task

The mastering of difficult tasks conveys new efficacy information that has the potential to raise self-belief in one's capabilities (Bandura, 1997:82). This means, when people perform activities, they may discover new things about the task as well as about themselves. For example, during the process of completing a challenging task, individuals discover formidable aspects of the task or limitations to their mode of coping; thus, an individual may lower his or her perceived efficacy despite successful performance. Principals therefore need to consider the level of difficulty of the task and the capability of teachers before allocating specific tasks to teachers. It may be frustrating for a new teacher to be given a difficult task.

2.12.4 Effort amount

Self-efficacy can be strengthened if a successful performance is attributed to internal or controllable causes, such as ability or effort (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:211). This indicates that performance successes are, to some extent, determined by how hard one works at a particular task which, in turn, carries inferences about one's capabilities. If an individual achieves success

with minimal effort on tasks that others find difficult to perform, it can indicate that the individual has high ability, but successes achieved through high effort may imply lower ability and therefore less likely to enhance perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997:84). Bandura (1997:84) confirms this view by stating that success achieved through laborious effort can lower people's efficacy beliefs to muster the same level of effort again.

Low effort does not provide much information about one's capabilities (Bandura, 1997:84). This means, when individuals perform poorly without really trying hard, it tells little about their capabilities. Furthermore, Bandura (1997:84) asserts that, to try hard and fail under conducive conditions, signifies limited capability, whereas to fail under optimal conditions on tasks that are regarded to be fairly easy, can have a devastating effect on one's perceived personal self-efficacy. If success is attributed to luck or the intervention of others, self-efficacy may not be enhanced (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:211). Thus, principals need to attribute the success of teachers to the efforts or capability of teachers, instead of mentioning, for example, how easy the task was.

2.13 PHYSIOLOGICAL AND AFFECTIVE STATES

The level of arousal, either of anxiety or excitement, contributes to individuals' perceptions of self-capability or incompetence (Goddard *et al.*, 2004:6). Hoy and Miskel (2008 158) postulate that people rely on information from their physiological and affective states when judging their capability. This means individuals make judgements about their anticipated performance based on positive arousal, such as excitement and enthusiasm, and on negative factors, such as fear, fatigue, stress and anxiety. Thus, individuals need to enhance their physical wellbeing and need to reduce stress in order to modify or increase their self-efficacy.

Goddard *et al.* (2004:6) postulate that organisations also react to stress just as individuals do. For example, the performance of schools in the Grade 12 results are publicised and low-performing schools are identified. This can play a key role in influencing the mood of schools (Goddard *et al.*, 2004:6). Schools with strong beliefs in their group capability can tolerate pressure and crises and continue to function without debilitating consequences. However, less efficacious schools are more

likely to react in a dysfunctional manner, which could, in turn, increase the likelihood of failure (Goddard *et al.*, 2004:6).

According to Schultz and Schultz (2013:339), people are more likely to believe they can master a problem successfully if they are not agitated, tense or bothered by headaches. This means, the more composed people feel, the greater their self-efficacy. This suggests that people expect success when they are not faced with aversive arousal than when they are tense and agitated, because it is reported that high levels of physiological arousal can debilitate or weaken performance (Snyder *et al.*, 2011:169). Thus, when people become aware of unpleasant physiological arousal, they are more likely to doubt their competence than if their physiological states are pleasant or neutral. Physiological and emotional arousal thus refer to how fearful or calm we feel in a stressful situation.

It is important to note that the information conveyed by physiological states and reactions is not in itself diagnostic of personal efficacy (Schultz & Schultz, 2013:339). A number of factors such as the perceived source of activation, its intensity, circumstances under which the activation occurs and construal biases, affect physiological conditions.

2.13.1 Perceived source of activation

Bandura (1997:107) states that environmental factors exert strong influence on how an internal state is interpreted. For example, people who do public speaking differ on how they interpret their sweating before or during the delivery of a public address. Some ascribe their sweating to the physical discomfort of the room, whilst others view sweating as a reflection of their personal failings (Bandura, 1997:107). This suggests that the impact of physiological arousal on self-efficacy vary according to the situational factors and the meaning given to them. Thus, different interpretations of internal arousal, for example, fright, anger and excitement, have different impacts on perceived self-efficacy.

2.13.2 Level of activation

High achievers are not threatened by increased physiological or emotional arousal; instead, they view arousal as an energising facilitator, whereas low achievers regard it as a debilitator (Bandura, 1997:108). However, according to Bandura (1997:108), it is not arousal per se that has more influence on an individual's judgement of his or her capabilities, but the level of arousal that carries a greater weight in judging personal capabilities. Moderate levels of arousal have the capacity to increase individuals' attentiveness and facilitate deployment of skills, whereas higher levels of arousal can disrupt the quality of functioning, because very high levels of anxiety signal a person that he or she is not feeling very masterful (McAdams, 2006:83).

2.13.3 Interpretation biases

Judgements of personal efficacy are affected by interpretation rather than actual bodily activation (Bandura, 1997:110). This suggests that it is not the sheer intensity of physical sensations or the amount of attention paid to them that are critical for physical efficacy, but how they are construed and perceived by an individual. For example, people who have a high sense of physical efficacy perceive less physiological strain and experience their somatic activation more positively. Experienced marathon runners monitor their body sensations during the race as information for adjusting their pace or to avoid injury, whereas less experienced runners view such sensations as an aversive state from which they try to divert their attention (Bandura, 1997:110).

2.13.4 Impact of mood on self-efficacy

Mood is another source for judging personal efficacy because they often accompany changes in quality of functioning (Bandura, 1997:111). Therefore, the state of mood individuals experience at a specific time can affect how they interpret an event(s), organise information cognitively and ultimately, how they retrieve information from memory. People can learn faster when the things that they learn are congruent with the mood they are in and they are able to remember things better if they are in the same mood as when they learned them (Bandura, 1997:111). Intense moods exert stronger effects than weak ones, but despondency retards efficacy beliefs.

The level of arousal, either of anxiety or excitement, adds to individuals' perceptions of their self-capability or incompetence (Goddard *et al.*, 2004:6). For example, individuals react to stress differently. People with strong self-beliefs can tolerate pressure and crises. They can also continue to function without debilitating consequences because they learn to rise to the challenge when confronted with disruptive forces. On the other hand, people with low self-beliefs might become dysfunctional when facing trying times, which, in turn, increases the likelihood of failure (Goddard *et al.*, 2004:6).

The above implies that a negative mood is likely to activate thoughts of past failures, whereas a positive mood activates thoughts of past accomplishments. Negative episodes and depressed mood can activate a view of oneself as inadequate and worthless rather than just activating unhappy memories (Bandura, 1997:112). In turn, perceived inadequacy can exacerbate a sense that one's effort is futile, and one cannot exercise any control over aversive aspects of one's life. So, when people are in a good mood, they are likely to make positive judgements about their self-belief than when they are in a bad mood (Bandura, 1997:112).

To summarise, self-efficacy is regarded as a motivational factor that influences several behavioural and performance outcomes (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:159). It is learned through a variety of experiences and is dynamic; it can change over time as new information and experiences are acquired. In addition, Hoy and Miskel (2008:159) posit the following about individuals who have stronger beliefs about their capabilities: they are more successful and persistent in their efforts; tend to avoid tasks and situations that exceed their capabilities; seek activities that they judge themselves capable of handling; and they develop self-efficacy through mastery experiences, affective states, vicarious experiences and social persuasion.

2.14 VICARIOUS EXPERIENCES

Vicarious experiences and modelling serve as effective ways to develop personal teacher efficacy (Goddard *et al.*, 2000:484). This suggests that the efficacy of teachers can also be increased by observing performances of successful teachers or inspiring and supportive principals (Kurt *et al.*,

2012:73). Watching an expert complete a task conveys effective strategies for managing similar tasks in different situations (i.e. modelling) (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:158). People often judge their capabilities using social comparisons. Seeing or visualising people similar to oneself successfully performing a task can raise one's own beliefs about self-efficacy (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:158).

Principals can assist teachers to gain vicarious experiences by modelling instructional strategies for teachers who have had challenges of improving their learners' academic achievement, permitting time for teachers to observe colleagues who have high levels of self-efficacy, and by arranging visits for teachers to observe instructional practices implemented in classrooms of high-achieving learners (Fancera & Bliss, 2011:353).

In addition, principals can provide vicarious experiences by encouraging senior teachers to model exemplary classroom instruction to teachers with lower self-efficacy levels. Vicarious experiences refer to those in which the skill in question is modelled by someone else (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:211). These vicarious experiences have an influence on self-efficacy, especially in situations in which people have little personal experience with the task (Stipek, 2002:42). People, especially children, can be persuaded that they are able to perform a task after watching another child of the same age complete the task successfully (Weiten *et al.*, 2009:162). This suggests that observing a peer performing can provide teachers with a greater sense of efficacy than they would get from observing a senior modelling the same behaviour. Conversely, watching others of similar competence fail despite their high efforts lowers observers' judgements of their own capabilities and undermines their efforts (Schultz & Schultz, 2013:339). This suggests that principals can allow team teaching to give peer educators the opportunity to demonstrate to others – for example, how to handle a difficult class.

Moreover, Tschannen-Moran *et al.* (1998:212) state that the more closely the observer identifies with the model, the stronger the impact on efficacy will be. When a model performs well, the efficacy of the observer is enhanced, but when the model performs poorly, the efficacy expectations of the observer decreases. In other words, witnessing other people's successes and

failures provides one with a basis of comparison by which to estimate one's own personal competence in similar situations (McAdams, 2006:83).

2.15 VERBAL PERSUASION

Social persuasion is another way of strengthening persons' conviction that they have the capabilities to achieve their set goals (Goddard *et al.*, 2000:484). This means principals can influence teachers' perceptions of efficacy through talks, workshops, professional development opportunities and feedback about achievement. Verbal persuasion can thus serve as a change agent. However, social persuasion alone has limited power to create lasting increases of self-efficacy, although it can contribute to successful performance if appraisal is realistic (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:158). Other leadership practices of increasing collective teacher efficacy include communicating the goals of the school, increasing availability of professional development opportunities, supervising and evaluating instruction, which should be followed by constructive feedback of instructional methods, monitoring learner progress, and maintaining high levels of visibility in the school (Fancera & Bliss, 2011:353).

Ryckman (2004:592) affirms that it is possible to sustain a sense of efficacy if significant others express faith in one's capabilities rather than if they convey doubts, ridicule, criticism or belittle their offspring. For example, principals can bolster teachers' self-efficacy if their positive appraisal of teachers is realistic. In other words, social persuasion serves as another means of strengthening people's beliefs that they possess the capabilities to achieve what they aim for. However, verbal persuasion is more likely to succeed if it is realistic and reinforced by real experience (Schultz & Schultz, 2013:339). It is possible that teachers who are persuaded verbally that they possess the capabilities to master tasks are more likely to mobilise greater effort and sustain it than if they have self-doubts and dwell on personal deficiencies when difficulties arise. On the other hand, McAdams (2006:83) postulates that the effect of verbal persuasion is usually weak because being told by others that one can or cannot master a task may either increase or decrease self-efficacy. Sometimes, to raise unrealistic beliefs of personal capabilities invites failure that will discredit the

persuaders and further undermine recipients' beliefs in their capabilities (McAdams, 2006:83). This requires principals to be sincere during their verbal encounters with teachers.

2.15.1 Framing of performance feedback

Tileston (2010:92) defines feedback as the positive and negative information that is given to an individual with regard to his or her work or behaviour. Specific positive feedback from supervisors has the potential to reinforce self-efficacy by indicating how a teacher's skills and strategies match the demands of a particular teaching task (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:230). For instance, persuasive statements by the principal – such as, “I know that you can do better” – have the potential to raise teacher self-efficacy. Consistent and specific feedback has a strong effect on individuals' success (Tileston, 2010:92). Good feedback should be diagnostic, deserved and given often. This means that feedback should be genuine and not just baseless sweet talk.

Social persuasion may entail a pep talk or specific performance feedback from a supervisor or a colleague about the ability of teachers to influence learners (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:212). However, feedback that is given to performers can be conveyed in ways that undermine a sense of efficacy or boost it (Bandura, 1997:102). Feedback that highlights personal capabilities can raise efficacy beliefs. Feedback that highlights that improvement of capabilities is a result of effort also enhances perceived efficacy, but not as much as being told that progress is a result of people's ability in the activity. This suggests that ability feedback has a notable impact on the development of a sense of personal efficacy (Bandura, 1997:102).

Telling people repeatedly that their progress is a product of high effort has the potential to eventually convey the message that their talents must be quite limited to require the unending arduous work (Bandura, 1997:102). Thus, telling people that they have the ability, but they gained it through hard work, produces a lower sense of efficacy than telling them that their progress shows that they have ability without necessarily referring to the amount of effort they had to exert.

Feedback that focuses on deficiencies or how far one still has to go has the potential to detract from a sense of personal efficacy and accomplishment (Bandura, 1997:103). People receiving criticism for their shortfalls is too common in everyday scenarios. For example, a learner achieves 75% progress and has a deficit of 25%. If the feedback from the teacher focuses on the 75% obtained, it is likely to support self-efficacy development; whereas feedback that focuses on the 25%, framed in terms of a shortfall is likely to diminish a sense of personal efficacy. This indicates that devaluated feedback can undermine people's belief in their capabilities, especially when deficient performances are harshly criticised.

The above discussion suggests that the way in which feedback is framed or structured can affect one's perceived personal efficacy. Similarly, some social practices that are often conveyed indirectly or subtly toward people who are believed to be of limited capability carry the message that one does not expect much of people (Bandura, 1997:102). For example, when people are allocated unchallenging tasks, praised for mediocre performances, treated indifferently for faulty performances, repeatedly offered unsolicited help or given less recognition than others when they perform well, they may feel that they are being undermined.

2.15.2 Knowledgeability and credibility of persuaders

Recipients of persuasion efficacy appraisals often gauge the content of persuasion efficacy appraisals in terms of who the persuaders are, their credibility and how knowledgeable they are about the nature of recipients' activities (Bandura, 1997:104). This is because persuasive efficacy appraisals can be used for various purposes by persuaders. For example, persuaders may applaud the talents of recipients for flattery, perfunctory encouragement, self-ingratiation, manipulation or realistic assessments of people's capabilities.

Some people believe they know themselves and their circumstances better than others do, and this belief creates some resistance to social persuasion (Bandura, 1997:105). Although self-appraisals are based on the opinion of others who presumably possess some competence gained through years of experience in a given field, people do not always believe what they are told about

their abilities (Bandura, 1997:105). This scepticism develops from personal experience that often runs contrary to what individuals have been told about their abilities.

The above discussion raises the question of whose judgement is more accurate: is it the personal or social appraisal of efficacy? The impact of persuasive opinions on efficacy beliefs is as strong as the recipient's confidence in the person who has the opinion. Confidence is enhanced by the perceived credibility and expertness that recipients have about the persuaders (Bandura, 1997:105). Therefore, the more believable the source of information about one's capabilities, the more likely are judgements of personal efficacy to change and to be held strongly.

2.15.3 Appraisal disparity

There is a disparity between what people are told about their capabilities and how they actually view themselves (Bandura, 1997:105). This disparity may be minimal, moderate, or sometimes it becomes clearly noticeable. Bandura (1997:105) argues that social appraisals that are clearly noticeable from people's judgements of their current capabilities may be considered believable for the distant future and not in the short term. Therefore, the optimal level of disparity will be lower for closer level of functioning than for the future.

The optimal levels of disparity vary according to whether deficient performances are a reflection of basic skills deficits or the misuse of pre-existing skills (Bandura, 1997:105). In cases where a lower performance is a reflection of the misuse of skills, a successful performance can be gained by convincing people that they have what it takes to perform successfully. This indicates that self-efficacious thinking fosters the effective use of skills. However, in the case of deficient skills, social persuasion cannot substitute lack of skills. Bandura (1997:105) states that, by simply telling people that they are more capable than they believe themselves to be, will not necessarily result in higher self-efficacy.

Efficacy appraisals are likely to be most believable when they are moderately beyond what individuals can do at the time (Bandura, 1997:105). This suggests that persuaders need to raise

their efficacy appraisals just above the level of competency of those they are persuading to perform better. At this level of disparity, better performances can be achieved when those who are being persuaded select better strategies and exert extra effort into their task. In this case, the recipients of persuasion are more likely to try out various strategies as well as expending the required effort than those who have uncertainties about their capabilities (Bandura, 1997:105).

The above discussion suggests that social persuasion works best as part of a multifaceted strategy of self-development rather than a means on its own. For example, people who are struggling with self-doubts that are rooted largely in skill deficits are likely to view optimistic social appraisals as more believable if the focus is on self-development rather than high accomplishments. Bandura (1997:106) indicates that skilled efficacy builders do not only convey positive appraisals or inspirational homilies. In addition to cultivating people's beliefs in their capabilities, they structure activities for them in ways that bring success and avoid placing them prematurely in situations where they will experience repeated failure.

Exposure to significant models during the formative years of one's development also plays a role in instilling beliefs in people of their potential and power to influence the direction that their lives can take (Bandura, 1997:106). These beliefs shape basic orientations to one's life. Thus, it is possible to conclude that social persuasion involves more than just pep talks. Persuaders or mentors also need to be good diagnosticians of people's strengths and weaknesses (Bandura, 1997:106). In addition, they need to be knowledgeable about tailoring appropriate activities that will turn potential into actuality.

Social persuasion or encouragement from colleagues, principals and district officials alone may be limited or insufficient in its power to create enduring increases in self-efficacy, but it can still contribute to the successful performances of a task or lead a person to initiate a task (Tschannen-Moran *et al.*, 1998:212; Goddard & Skrla, 2006:219). In addition, Goddard and Skrla (2006:219) assert that encouragement needs to be coupled with the requisite training and experience so that it can strengthen teachers' sense of efficacy.

2.16 TEACHING PRACTICES RELATED TO TEACHER EFFICACY

The sense of capability that teachers have about their own potential influences their perception, motivation and performance at work (Gibson *et al.*, 1997:115). According Gibson *et al.* (1997:115), there is a difference between the teaching practices of teachers with low efficacy and the behaviours of teachers with high self-efficacy. Teachers with high self-efficacy are positive, success-driven and goal-oriented (Gibson *et al.*, 1997:115). On the other hand, teachers with low self-efficacy see obstacles, worry and think of themselves as incapable of doing a high-quality job (Gibson *et al.*, 1997:115). This implies that there are certain teaching behaviours that reflect a high teacher efficacy and others that reflect low teacher efficacy. In addition, high-efficacy teachers were found to interact differently with learners and also, how they taught learners differed from the teaching behaviours of teachers with low efficacy (Gibson *et al.*, 1997:115). In addition, teacher efficacy is associated with productive teacher behaviours that foster learner achievement (Bieneman, 2012:11). Some of these teaching behaviours are discussed below.

2.16.1 Teachers with high self-efficacy

Teachers' sense of efficacy has been related to learner outcomes such as achievement, motivation and learners' sense of efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:783). In addition, teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs also relates to their behaviour in the classroom, the effort they invest in teaching, the goals they set and their level of aspiration (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:783). This suggests that teachers' sense of efficacy exerts significant influence on learner achievement by promoting teacher behaviours or practices that enhance learning.

2.16.2 Teacher efficacy and learner motivation

According to Anderman and Anderman (2010:2), teachers influence learner motivation in several ways, that is: through daily interactions with learners; influence learners' beliefs about their own abilities; their attitudes toward certain subjects; their short- and long-term goals; their beliefs about the causes of their successes and failures; and their reasons for ultimately choosing to do their academic work. This suggests that teachers have a critical role to play in learner motivation.

However, teachers often complain that some of their learners are demotivated to learn or to do their academic work (Salili, Chiu & Hong, 2001:2). In every society there are learners who drop out of schools because they lack the motivation to learn, and those who continue schooling show little or no commitment to the learning process (Salili *et al.*, 2001:2). Many teachers become frustrated with learners who expect success but are unwilling to work hard for it (Mendler, 2000:1). This indicates a culture of entitlement with minimal effort, which is not uncommon amongst learners today. It also shows that learners seem to miss the point that it is their responsibility to learn new information, practise and attend school (Mendler, 2000:1).

Furthermore, according to Mendler (2000:3), learners who behave badly or give up schooling are actually covering up their concerns about their being perceived as stupid and incapable. They are protecting themselves from the embarrassment of looking stupid and incapable in the eyes of their classmates, teachers, parents and themselves. Therefore, they seek power and control by refusing to co-operate and work accordingly. Their need to be in control is so strong that they would engage in self-defeating strategies to prove or exert their independence (Mendler, 2000:3).

Tileston (2010:2) asserts that unmotivated learners can learn new material, but three requirements must first be met, namely: (1) learners must develop the desire to learn new information or new processes; (2) the right method of teaching; (3) consistency. The first requirement indicates that learners must see the personal importance in learning new material. Furthermore, it indicates that if learners understand the importance and relevance of the new learning material, they are likely to pay attention to new content. They may also strive to complete their tasks. This brings about the question of learner self-efficacy, which refers to the extent to which a learner believes that he or she has the resources, ability or power to change a situation (Tileston, 2010:47). The second requirement (i.e. the right method of teaching) suggests that teachers are also responsible for the motivation of their learners through the methods of teaching they apply in the classroom (Tileston, 2010:47). For example, teachers who rely heavily on the lecture method and the textbook methods of teaching are likely to have no significant influence on the motivation of their learners, because the heavy reliance on both methods may lead to boredom and lack of a stimulating learning

environment (Olayiwola, 2006:443). The third requirement means that the teacher must exhibit the following (Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999:56, 57):

- Display the same high standards and expectations for all learners, all the time. Learners need to know that their teacher is going to demand the best of them at all times regardless of the period of the day, the learner, the class or time of the year;
- Learners need to sense the urgency of education from their teacher. This always requires teachers to display the same work ethic for learners. Every minute of school time should be regarded as essential by teachers. It is also important for teachers to realise that learners develop no respect for teachers who are easily derailed into off-task activities or discussions with no bearing on the day's lesson;
- Teachers must constantly apply the same system of rewards, punishments and motivation for all learners;
- Keep track of interactions with learners and ensure that positive interactions are relatively balanced among all learners in the class. This will ensure that all learners have an equal opportunity to participate in the classroom and be rewarded accordingly;
- Use as many methods as possible to evaluate the work of learners anonymously. For example, codes can be used instead of learners' names. The point of evaluating anonymously is not to allow teacher expectations of learners' abilities to affect the evaluation of learners' performance. Learners can also be evaluated randomly. This means learner X's paper should not always be evaluated after learner Z's paper, for example.

2.16.3 Handling unmotivated learners

Motivating learners has become the most complex and challenging issue facing teachers today. In an attempt to address this problem, districts spend large sums of money to bring in motivational speakers to “unlock” the motivation of learners to start taking learning seriously. Day workshops are held to try and motivate learners. However, the strategies that are offered during these workshops are easily forgotten after a few days. This leaves the problem of poor learner motivation persisting in schools. This indicates that learner motivation is not a simple answer that can be

achieved in a single day's workshop. However, a teacher who makes learner motivation a part of the regular classroom routine can achieve success by realising that learner motivation begins with the teacher.

2.16.4 Build a personal relationship with learners

Before motivation can occur, a teacher needs to lay a strong foundation of mutual trust and respect with each individual learner in the classroom (Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999:117). This treatment of mutual trust and respect has implications for the relationship principals have with their staff. If principals want learners to be treated with humanity, then teachers need to be treated with humanity and policy makers need to ensure that principals, teachers and learners are treated with respect or humanity through policy. The South African Schools Act provides for treatment of learners with humanity whilst the Education Labour Relations Act provides for treatment of teachers.

Recognition of learners as human beings has the potential to make them feel respected and valued, because learners want their teachers to approve of them (Doyle, 2011:63). Teachers must convey to learners that they enjoy being with them and having them in class. A warm smile and brief individual or group conversations about their activities or hobbies may help to bring a teacher closer to the personal world of learners. Greeting learners on the way to class can touch them in some way, and it is not a waste of time by the teacher regardless of how minor it might seem (Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999:117).

Some learners are already motivated to learn, whilst some go to class unmotivated and uninterested in what must be done that day (Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999:117). Some become fence-sitters and follow the lead of the classroom in any direction it may go. Relationships that matter most are the ones formed with the unmotivated and the fence-sitters without ignoring the motivated. When a teacher shows interest in the unmotivated and the fence-sitters – that he or she is interested in each one – they may become less uninterested (Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999:117).

One other way of building relationships with learners is that the teacher needs to abstain from separating himself or herself from learners (Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999:121). Teachers can do this by adopting a “we” approach in the classroom. This approach can bring about a co-operative teacher–learner relationship. It can also replace power statements like “what’s wrong with you children?” Instead of such a comment, poor learner performance may be followed by comments such as (Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999:121):

- “The scores show that we need a new plan of attack” or
- “This is what we are going to do differently this time” or
- “What suggestions do you have to improve the results?”

2.16.5 Developing caring relationships

It is important that for caring relationships to develop amongst teachers and learners, teachers need to focus not only on imparting predetermined knowledge but should also spend significant time and energy on nurturing and sustaining each of their learners (Collier, 2005:355). The modelling of caring behaviour by teachers helps to facilitate the development of a caring community within the learning environment (Collier, 2005:355). This can be done by firstly listening to children with attention and respect. Not listening with attention and respect can lead to incorrect responses. On the other hand, the perception that adults are not listening sends a message that a child’s needs are not important, creating the potential for diminished self-esteem and retreat from classroom participation. Secondly, teachers can create a caring environment by showing respect, friendship and courtesy. Children feel appreciated when their ideas and feelings are respectfully received. Thirdly, teachers can design instructional activities that assure children of a reasonable measure of success and that help learners to develop proficiency when evaluating their own quality of production. Fourthly, teachers can establish reasonable limits within the classroom, not to constrain learners, but to free them to participate in learning opportunities without jeopardising the rights and safety of others. This means allowing learners to practise freedom with responsibility. Lastly, teachers need to refrain from behaviours that embarrass, ridicule or shame learners.

2.16.6 Emphasise effort

Learners who feel academically incapable usually attribute success to individual ability or intelligence rather than effort (Mendler, 2000:13). They believe that intelligence is fixed and is responsible for academic success or failure (Doyle, 2011:65). Consequently, learners who believe that intelligence is fixed may stop trying harder because they believe that even if they worked harder, their academic performance would still not improve in any way (Doyle, 2011:65). This suggests that teachers need to place more emphasis on the relationship between academic achievement and effort.

Teachers need to realise that the first attempt at a task or assignment rarely yields the final product precisely as envisaged (Mendler, 2000:11). For example, many professionals edit drafts several times before submitting, whilst others, like architects, review and revise their designs before the actual work begins. This demonstrates that more effort can yield improvement. Similarly, learners should be given the opportunity to retake tests and revise projects or experiments in response to feedback from the teacher to enhance learning and effort (Mendler, 2000:11). This indicates that more effort is required to improve and master a task.

2.16.7 Create hope

It is essential that learners be assisted to see the connection between achievement and their lives (Mendler, 2000:22). Teachers need to constantly indicate to learners that, in reality, most college graduates do better financially than high school graduates, and high school graduates do better than high school dropouts (Mendler, 2000:22). Learners must also be assisted to recognise the connection between what they are taught in the classroom and how it relates to their present lives and later years. Tomlison (2000:1) states that learners learn best when they can make a connection between the curriculum and their interests.

The creation of hope amongst learners can also be enhanced by teachers who help them to create their own attainable goals. The following steps may be helpful (Mendler, 2000:25-26):

- learners decide on a goal that they want to achieve;

- decide on a plan so as to achieve the goal;
- decide on a reward that they would give themselves once they have achieved their goal;
- engage a parent, teacher or trusted friend;
- take one step at a time;
- they should reward themselves when they have achieved the goal.

2.16.8 Make homework relevant

Sometimes homework assignments are given for political reasons of wanting to impress parents and authorities that teachers are working hard rather than for the educational relevance to learners (Cushman, 2010:122). Homework should be given to offer learners more practice and should be connected to instruction. In other words, homework should matter (Cushman, 2010:118). High-efficacy teachers demonstrate that they attach value to homework by giving learners feedback within a day or two. If teachers show little value toward homework, demotivated learners might find it unappealing and might not bother to do homework in future (Cushman, 2010:118).

The teaching of new concepts should not be the main goal of homework assignments. Mendler (2000:32) recommends that, in most instances, homework should be optional because its purpose is to practise a skill or add detail to what has already been taught. An exception can be when practice is required for basic reading and writing skills in the early grades. However, homework should not be longer than 20 minutes per day. Learners who fall below the required standard can be given homework until they demonstrate that they have mastered the task. Cushman (2010:127) recommends that homework can be used to add value to lessons through the “four R’s”:

- *Readying* learners for new learning. It encourages participation in class;
- *Repetition* and application of knowledge and skills. Repetition makes sense if learners manage to connect the repeated material to something meaningful to them;
- *Reviewing* material learned earlier. Reviewing helps learners to keep practising previously learned skills while learning new ones.
- *Revising* their work.

2.16.9 Remove learner excuses for failure

According to Scheidecker and Freeman (1999:59), teachers should hold learners responsible for doing all their schoolwork according to the requirements and as a way of preparing them to pass. In addition, Scheidecker and Freeman (1999:59) indicate that no shoddy work should be accepted because work of poor quality will not contribute to assisting learners to pass. This suggests that teachers with a higher efficacy will not easily accept that the learning disabilities, social or economic disadvantages be used as excuses for poor learner performance, more so because teachers do assist learners with uniforms and other learning materials (Maluleke, 2014:13). Teachers also serve as parents, social workers and psychologists (Maluleke, 2014:13); but, most importantly, teachers must accept responsibility for the successes and failures of their learners. It should be emphasised that the failure of learners is also the responsibility of the teacher and that the teacher will not allow failure to prevail (Scheidecker & Freeman, 1999:59).

2.16.10 Practise internal-control psychology

Internal-control psychology is based on the belief that people are internally motivated (Sullo, 2007:7). Our behaviour is driven by powerful instructions that are built into our genetic structure (Sullo, 2007:7). According to Sullo (2007:7), the outside world, which includes rewards and punishment, provides us with information but do not make us do anything. It is, therefore, not surprising that learners who are subjected to rewards and punishment over long periods attribute their success or failure to forces outside of themselves (Sullo, 2007:7). In other words, they do not feel in control. They also do not accept that our lives are largely a product of the choices we make daily. Thus, teachers have an influence on how learners perceive their successes and failures. For example, did the learner perform poorly in a task because he or she did not study hard enough, or did he or she perform well because of the expected reward?

2.16.11 Set goals

Internal-control psychology suggests that human beings are goal-driven and most effective when they are clear about their goals and intentionally self-evaluate (Sullo, 2007:15). Thus, teachers with

high self-efficacy set goals for their learners to achieve and assist learners to identify clear goals of what need to be achieved. It is impossible to take effective steps when learners have not clearly identified what they have to achieve (Sullo, 2007:15). This means setting goals involve a desire to achieve a purpose and the details of how something is to be attained. The details include actions that need to occur as well as timeframes and strategies for achievement. Goals can assist learners to do the following (Brier, 2010:138):

- organise their behaviour;
- focus on relevant information;
- be accountable;
- track their own progress;
- obtain feedback;
- engage in self-correcting behaviour.

Learners are more likely to pursue a goal for achievement if they perceive their goal to be useful, relevant or important (Brier, 2010:139). For example, if a learner views a particular task as valuable, the learner is likely to exert more effort and persistence on the academic task. Learners who perform well can be an indication to the teacher that he or she is teaching well. In turn, this may boost the teacher's confidence.

2.16.12 Create positive relationships

According to Marzano and Marzano (2003:6), positive relationships between teachers and learners facilitate academic improvement. Marzano and Marzano suggest that teachers who enjoy a positive relationship with their learners have fewer discipline problems than their colleagues who do not develop high-quality relationships with their learners. The need to connect should therefore be nurtured in the classroom because the quality of teacher–learner relationships is the key for other aspects of classroom management, which is regarded as key to higher learner achievement (Marzano & Marzano, 2003:12).

The creation of positive relationships amongst learners, staff and their community are a feature that relates to the universal need to belong and connect with other human beings (Sullo, 2007:16). Positive relationships lead to happier learners who, in turn, are likely to do higher quality academic work as well. These connected learners contribute to a positive school climate where high achievement is more likely to be reached. On the other hand, learners who are not connected and do not belong, are unhappy. Sullo (2007:16) states that learners who are disconnected have been identified in cases where school violence has erupted.

Classroom meetings between teachers and learners are recommended as approaches to cultivating respectful and supportive relationships (Schaps, 2003:32). These meetings have been found to be effective because through them, teachers can encourage learners to trust one another and also create co-operation and a positive classroom culture (Leachman & Victor, 2003:67). However, teachers should allow learners to lead these meetings after providing them with the necessary skills. The meetings that are led by learners increase learner motivation and involvement in classroom activities. Problem-solving skills and critical thinking improve (Leachman & Victor, 2003:66).

2.16.13 Assist learners to develop “the self”

Individuals in various parts of the world conceptualise “the self” according to one’s culture and country of origin (Zusho & Njoku, 2007:95). Western countries, like the United States, emphasise individualism, whilst African and Asian countries emphasise collectivism (Schultz & Schultz, 2005:38). This conceptualisation seems to have an impact on the goals that learners in different parts of the world set for themselves. The boundary between one’s self and others is less conspicuous in collectivist (i.e. Asian, African) cultures than in individualistic cultures, for example, the Western culture (Zusho & Njoku, 2007:96). This suggests that cultural influences that are more emphasised could affect self-efficacy.

Schultz and Schultz (2005:38) affirm that college students in the United States scored significantly higher than college students in Japan on measures of self-efficacy, which is the feeling of being

adequate, efficient, and competent in coping with life and exerting control over life events. Furthermore, differences in subjective wellbeing between Asian-American students and European-American students at the same American university have been found (Schultz & Schultz, 2005:38). The European-American students attained a feeling of wellbeing by pursuing goals for the purpose of personal satisfaction, whilst Asian-American students seemed to have attained and maintained their wellbeing by achieving goals that they pursued to make important others happy and to meet the expectations of others (Schultz & Schultz, 2005:38). Thus, the impact of cultural forces is significant in developing the self.

The above discussion indicates that the tendencies to enhance the self and pursue independence are more prevalent in Western cultures, where children are encouraged to feel special and unique. Therefore, they are likely to develop “the self” in a more positive manner than their counterparts in collectivists cultures (Zusho & Njoku, 2007:96). In an individualistic society, life view is on personal freedom, choice and action, whilst in a collectivist society, the focus is on group norms and values, group role expectations and other cultural constraints on behaviour (Schultz & Schultz, 2005:38). According to Schultz and Schultz (2005:38), people in individualistic cultures have shown greater extraversion, self-esteem, happiness, optimism about their future and a belief in their ability to control and direct it.

2.16.14 Enhance a growth mind-set

Teachers’ sense of efficacy has been related to learners’ own sense of efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001:783). Dweck (2006:67) argues that teachers view learners’ intelligence in two categories of mind-sets, namely: a fixed mind-set, and a growth mind-set. In a fixed mind-set, teachers believe that learners’ intelligence is fixed – some people have it, others do not, and intelligence is reflected in their performance. A growth mind-set entails that intelligence and other human abilities can be enhanced through effort and practice. Thus, teachers need to recognise that their learners’ effort and attitudes are what turns ability into achievement (Dweck, 2006:41).

Individuals who believe that intelligence can be improved with hard work are able to achieve higher scores than those who believe that intelligence is an immutable trait (Atwood, 2010:4). On the other hand, individuals who think intelligence is fixed, avoid challenges, give up easily, see effort as fruitless and consequently achieve less than their full potential (Atwood, 2010:4). The following characteristics of a growth mind-set have been identified (Doyle, 2011:67-68):

- Self-image: The self-image of learners is not tied to their abilities because they see their abilities as something that can be further developed and improved. Their desire to learn is paramount;
- Challenges: Learners with a growth mind-set embrace challenges because they believe they will come out stronger after facing a challenge. They believe they will discover valuable information by putting more effort into an activity;
- Obstacles: Their self-image is not tied to their success or how they appear to others; they view failure as an opportunity to learn. An obstacle is seen as just one thing on their road of learning and improving;
- Effort: Learners believe that effort is necessary if they are to achieve growth and eventually gain proficiency in the skill. Effort is viewed as a natural part of the learning process;
- Criticism: Although such learners are not thrilled about hearing negative criticism, like anyone else, they know that criticism is not personal and that it is meant to help them to grow and improve, which they believe they can do. They see criticism as something that is directed toward their current level of abilities, which they see as changing with time and effort;
- Success of others: Learners with a growth mind-set see others' success as inspiration and information that they can use and learn from.

The practices of teachers with high self-efficacy that positively influence learner outcomes, learner behaviour and motivation in the classroom are summarised further as follows (Alderman, 1999:162; Pan *et al.*, 2013:242):

- they tend to hold learners accountable for their performance – this includes insisting that learners should attempt challenging questions and problems;
- they spend more time on academic learning, unlike low-efficacy teachers who spend more time on non- academic matters;
- they strive for higher goals for their learners and set goals that are generally more ambitious than those teachers with low efficacy;
- they develop supportive and trusting relationships with their learners. Teachers are more willing to give up their absolute control and more willing to share responsibility for solving classroom problems with their learners;
- they strive to build friendly relationships with poor performers and hold expectations for them;
- they are less likely to refer poor performers for special education;
- they manage classroom problems effectively;
- they feel positive about their career;
- they take responsibility for learners with special learning needs;
- they show commitment to their professional development and resilience during setbacks;
- they are more confident in working with parents;
- they are more likely to innovate and change their teaching practices.

2.17 TEACHERS WITH LOW SELF-EFFICACY

People with low self-efficacy believe that failure is a result of their low ability (Webb & Gripper, 2010:29). Similarly, low-efficacy teachers attribute the problems of low-achieving learners to the learners' lack of ability or to poor background rather than to teachers' ability (Dembo & Gibson, 1985:179). Low-efficacy teachers spend almost 50% of their time in small groups, whilst high-efficacy teachers spend 28% of their time in small groups. In addition, low-efficacy teachers are more likely to give the answer, ask another learner, or proceed to another question. This indicates that low-efficacy teachers use less probing or do not ask leading or guiding questions. Other

behaviours displayed by low-efficacy teachers are mentioned below (Dembo & Gibson, 1985:176; Wood & Olivier, 2008b:245):

- they are less likely to exhibit a sense of “withitness” in small groups, thus many learners in class spend much time off-task, without redirection from the teacher;
- furthermore, they allocate less time to whole-class instruction;
- they are assigned more basic classes;
- they prefer custodial (more rigid control) more often than teachers with a high sense of efficacy;
- they feel disempowered, ill-equipped and not sufficiently supported;
- they display negative feelings, behaviours and attitudes;
- there is little interaction and co-operation amongst them and other role players, namely learners, parents, colleagues, management and authorities;
- they have no mutual goals; there is friction, unhealthy competition and negative relationships.

Olayiwola (2006:443) purports that teachers with a low self-efficacy are more likely to use teacher-directed strategies during their teaching. These strategies include the lecture method and reading from textbooks. Furthermore, Olayiwola (2006:443) states that, generally students learn more from teachers with high self-efficacy than teachers whose self-efficacy is low. This could suggest that poor-performing schools need to implement leadership and management strategies that can assist teachers to develop higher self-efficacy as learners would benefit from teachers' higher efficacy.

2.18 TEACHER EFFICACY AND MOTIVATION

Self-efficacy is a critical source of human motivation (Bienenman, 2012:19). When individuals hold a strong belief in their capabilities, they are likely to be more persistent and put more effort into their task(s). This commitment to the task and the ability to persevere are significant in challenging education settings. Furthermore, self-efficacy affects the amount of stress and depression people experience in challenging circumstances. Individuals who believe in their ability to manage

stressful situations are not perturbed by stressors, whilst, on the other hand, perceived self-inefficacy can contribute to distress and lowering motivation (Bieneman, 2012:19).

2.18.1 The relationship between teacher efficacy and teacher motivation

Teacher motivation has been identified as a key factor that had been shown to affect the quality of education, because teachers' level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that affect learners' motivation to learn (Baleghizhadeh & Gordani, 2012:32). Teacher motivation is also linked to how they feel they are being treated and how they perceive their own living and learning conditions (Baleghizhadeh & Gordani, 2012:32). One of the reasons identified for a lack of success in schools is low motivation amongst teachers (Gocke, 2010:487). In addition, teacher motivation is viewed as a threat to targets set by the international community for bringing education to all children in developing countries (Wyatt, 2013:217).

In a study conducted in Pakistan, Ahmad (2011:35) found that two dimensions of teacher efficacy, namely teaching efficacy (competence) and personal efficacy (confidence) beliefs, reciprocally boost teacher motivation. Teaching efficacy pertains to teachers' evaluation of their ability to bring a positive change in learner engagement and learning, whilst personal efficacy is teachers' cognition that learners are teachable despite their background conditions (Ahmad, 2011:36). Ahmad (2011:36) argues that efficacy shapes enthusiasm and level of teacher motivation. This briefly means that efficacy effects the effort people invest in work.

According to Ahmad (2011:36), teacher efficacy is a skill as well as a motivation guided by one's beliefs. Unless people believe they can produce desired results to their actions, they have little incentive to act or persevere in the face of difficulty. This suggests that teachers in township and rural schools may be motivated by their beliefs that they can turn around poor learner academic performance in their schools despite the difficult conditions in such schools. This may be achieved by investing increased effort in their work. It is therefore imperative that this study look closely at teacher motivation and learner motivation as aspects that have an influence on the amount of effort to be invested in turning around poor academic schoolwork.

The absence of motivation is termed amotivation (Hamada, 2008:2). Amotivation is defined as a “state in which individuals cannot perceive a relationship between their behaviour and that behaviour’s subsequent outcome” (Hamada, 2011:16). This indicates that amotivated learners cannot predict the consequences of their behaviour nor can they find the motive behind their behaviour. Thus, they feel detached from their actions and will perceive their behaviour as outside of their control. Furthermore, amotivated people feel a lack of competence or control over their external environments – a feeling of helplessness caused by lack of contingency between behaviours and outcomes (Falout, Elwood & Hood,2009:404).

2.18.2 Conditions that demotivate teachers

Teachers, like all human beings, are affected by social and environmental conditions in which they work (Wyatt, 2013: 221). In other words, the social and environmental conditions in which teachers work are crucial in determining how they function or perform. Favourable conditions can facilitate self-motivation and healthy psychological development amongst teachers, but, unfortunately, these favourable conditions are absent in most developing countries and especially in rural areas (Wyatt, 2013:221).

Wyatt (2013:221) identified numerous demotivating challenges faced by teachers, which include, *inter alia*, the following: poverty; assignment to remote areas; poor working conditions; lack of pre-service and in-service training; and limited professional and administrative support. Other factors responsible for the declining attractiveness of the profession include low job satisfaction, learner ill-discipline, overcrowding of classrooms, uneven parental participation and nepotism as well as the lower status and remuneration juxtaposed with private sector occupations (Deacon, 2010:41). Middlewood (2005:39) noted that motivation levels of South African teachers had dropped and pay and government policy accounted for a third of teacher motivation. Generally, most South African teachers are motivated by intrinsic motivation (Middlewood, 2005:39).

Poverty resulting from poor pay is one of the major problems facing teachers in the African continent (Wyatt, 2013:221). For example, it has been reported that teachers surveyed in Ghana,

Sierra Leone and Zambia agreed that teachers in their schools often came to school hungry (Wyatt, 2013:221). In South Africa, teachers in the poorest sections of society often abandon their teaching duties to go on strikes, demanding better pay and improved working conditions (Maluleke, 2014:13). Young teachers leave the profession in large numbers, which raises concerns about the quality of education in the future (Hall *et al.*, 2005:1).

According to Wyatt (2013:221), infrastructure in remote areas is often poor. Thus, teachers are unlikely to move permanently to such areas with their families. Transferring teachers to remote areas can cause loneliness in teachers when their families cannot move in with them and they are compelled to live apart. It is for this reason that some teachers would then choose to commute long distances to work, but this can be uncomfortable and expensive. It can also lead to fatigue, causing teachers to arrive at work already tired from sleeping late because of late-night work and having to wake up early (Mogonediwa, 2008:30).

Poor working conditions can also challenge teachers' motivation in developing countries like India and South Africa (Wyatt, 2013:221). Some schools lack basic facilities such as proper toilets for teachers and learners, running water, electricity and sufficient classroom furniture (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2002:115).

Another demotivating issue that faces teachers is the level of teacher training in rural areas. In some developing countries like Namibia, Uganda and Sierra Leone, the better trained teachers are mainly in urban areas, whilst less prepared teachers are in rural areas. In-service training is also very limited in some developing countries, especially in rural areas (Wyatt, 2013:222). Furthermore, reallocating to rural areas can severely affect teachers' ability to undertake further studies which would lead to personal development. Wyatt (2013:222) argues that when teachers feel that their in-service training is inadequate to enable them to teach a recently introduced curriculum, it can affect their motivation negatively.

Professional support from outside the school, subject advisors and inspectors is also sporadic in rural areas (Wyatt, 2013:222). Consequently, teachers lack guidance, or they are not appraised properly to enhance their professional development. When inspectors or education officials visit schools, their focus is more on administrative issues than on teacher development in the classroom. This situation is similar to South Africa where teachers feel frustrated by too much administrative work that they have to do at the expense of actual teaching in the classroom (Van Tonder & Williams, 2009:8; Davids, 2010:2).

The low levels of job satisfaction amongst teachers is associated with low salaries, lack of recognition of experience, lack of training and resources, and increased bureaucracy within the Department of Education (Hall *et al.*, 2005:1). External factors such as the socio-economic and political environment are some of the issues that affect the level of job satisfaction among teachers. The demands of the education system and society have also led to the reduced levels of job satisfaction. Other influences would include poor working conditions such as heavy workload, dilapidated facilities, inadequate resources and lack of job security (Hall *et al.*, 2005:3).

A heavy workload with little time is one of the stressors of educators (Schulze & Steyn, 2007:693). This implies that teachers do not have enough time that they would like to spend with the learners on academic matters or to meet learners' needs. Hall *et al.* (2005:16) indicate that a heavy workload emanates from several factors, including: increased teaching hours during and after formal school; increase in the number of learners per class; learners' limited understanding of the language of teaching and learning; lack of parental involvement in their children's education; shortage of educators; absenteeism among colleagues; and lack of discipline among learners.

Learner ill-discipline is cited as one of the factors that make working with difficult learners cumbersome because it affects the relationship between teachers and learners (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*, 2002:115). Ill-disciplined learners can be uncontrollable in the classroom. Such learners deliberately choose to ignore instructions from teachers by coming late, disappearing during break and leaving the classroom unnecessarily during lessons (Van der Westhuizen *et al.*,

2002:115). This suggests that teachers spend part of their teaching time trying to discipline learners and getting them to pay attention to what matters most, thereby reducing their actual teaching time. Wood and Olivier (2008a:151) indicated that feelings of helplessness and hopelessness among teachers regarding their inability to cope and overcome what they perceive as insurmountable problems have contributed to low motivation, lack of job satisfaction, low levels of commitment and weak self-efficacy.

The South African educational landscape is generally characterised by, amongst others, vandalism, schools situated in communities wrecked by poverty, unemployment, political violence, gang warfare, overcrowded classrooms, high teacher workloads and poor remuneration (Pienaar & Van Wyk, 2006:541-542). Aforementioned situations may lead to teacher burnout. According to Pienaar and Van Wyk (2006:542), burnout is defined as “a persistent, negative, work related state of mind in ‘normal’ individuals that is primarily characterised by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced ineffectiveness, decreased motivation, and the development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviours at work”.

According to Gokce (2010:488), other factors that are mentioned as reasons for a decrease in teacher motivation are fatigue and personal crises, and some of the demotivating factors are related to the management of the education system, regional differences, gender, resources and working conditions.

The above factors have contributed to what has been described as a teacher motivation crisis in the developing world. Poor teacher motivation may consequently lead to poor performance, absenteeism, early retirements and efforts to leave the teaching profession, amongst others.

2.19 TEACHER EFFICACY AND LEARNER ACHIEVEMENT

Rand Corporation education researchers contributed to the earliest efforts at defining the concept of teacher efficacy (Yeo *et al.*, 2008:193). The researchers sought to establish a relationship between teacher characteristics and students’ learning outcomes. They based their

conceptualisation of teacher efficacy on Rotter's social learning theory, particularly internal versus external control of reinforcement. The Rand researchers regarded teacher efficacy as teachers' beliefs that factors under their control (internal locus of control) have greater impact on the outcomes of teaching than environmental factors or learners (external locus of control) (Yeo *et al.*, 2008:193).

In the Rand researchers' study, teacher efficacy was measured through a measurement consisting of only two items in an extensive questionnaire in which the respondents were required to rate their level of agreement toward the two items (Huangfu, 2012:68). Teachers were requested to rate themselves on two questions (Alderman, 1999: 158):

- i. "When it comes right down to it, a teacher can't do much because a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment."
- ii. "If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students."

A teacher who strongly agrees with the first statement indicates that environmental factors dominate any power that teachers can exert in schools (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001:784). This assessment extends beyond the individual capabilities of teachers. Factors such as conflict, violence, substance abuse in the home or community, social issues, economic issues, physiological, emotional and cognitive needs of a child all have real impact on learners' motivation and performance in school. Teachers' beliefs about the power of these external factors compared to the influence of teachers and schools are labelled general teaching efficacy (GTE) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001:784).

Teachers who agree with the second statement indicate confidence in their abilities to overcome factors that could make learning difficult for a child (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001:784). Teachers reflect the efficacy of their own teaching as well as confidence that they have the adequate training or experience to develop strategies for overcoming learning obstacles. These teachers may have successful previous experience of boosting learner achievement. This aspect

of efficacy has been termed personal teaching efficacy (PTE), which is more specific and individual than a belief about what teachers can achieve in general.

The survey instrument called *Generalised Expectancies of Internal versus External Control of Reinforcement* was designed to examine how teachers view the influence of the environmental context in relation to learner achievement (Bieneman, 2012:20). Teachers who perceive themselves as unable to exert influence in the educational setting, perceive their efforts to be external to themselves. Such teachers agree that environmental factors are more significant than their ability to teach, they experience higher stress levels and lower motivation (Bieneman, 2012:20). In addition, teacher efficacy is linked with persistence and teacher retention. Teachers with lower teacher efficacy do not stay long in the teaching profession as compared to teachers with higher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001:784).

Although there was a concern about the reliability of the Rand two-item survey instrument, a relationship was established between teacher efficacy and learner achievement (Bieneman, 2012:20). Based on the Rand studies, the researchers concluded that teachers' sense of efficacy was one of the best predictors of increased learner achievement (Alderman, 1999:158). This conclusion is also supported by Ashton and Webb (1986:145), who stated that there is a positive relationship between teachers' efficacy and learner achievement. Instruments such as the Teacher Locus of Control and the Webb Scale, which were subsequently developed using Rotter's work on teacher efficacy, support the findings that higher levels of teacher efficacy are positively linked to learner achievement and learner motivation (Bieneman, 2012:20). This relationship between teachers' efficacy and learner achievement serves as one of the basic reasons for undertaking this study.

2.20 CORRELATES OF SELF-EFFICACY

Self-efficacy affects individuals' commitments to goals, their performance on tasks and their persistence toward goals in the face of obstacles (Weiten *et al.*, 2009:162). Thus, self-efficacy is related to academic success and career choice. Increasing self-efficacy is viewed as an effective

way to improve dealing with various psychological problems such as anxiety and phobias (Weiten *et al.*, 2009:162). According to Weiten *et al.* (2009:162), self-efficacy is learned and therefore can be changed for the benefit of individuals.

Perceived self-efficacy influences individuals' goals and the risks that they are willing to take (Mischel *et al.*, 2008:356). This implies, the greater the perceived efficacy, the higher the goals individuals choose and the stronger their commitment and perseverance in pursuing them. Conversely, individuals who view themselves as lacking efficacy for coping with tasks are vulnerable to anxiety and may develop avoidance patterns to reduce their fears. They may also become prone to depression (Mischel *et al.*, 2008:356). Stipek (2002:43) states that people do not enjoy doing things that they believe they cannot do very well. As a result, teachers with higher self-efficacy for teaching will spend more time in the classroom teaching than teachers who believe that their teaching skills are not up to standard.

2.21 THE NATURE OF TEACHER MOTIVATION

According to Middlewood (2005:38), motivation is essentially an individual phenomenon, because there is no simple way to ensure that everyone is motivated. Motivation is multifaceted, and people who are motivated by money may not be the same people who are motivated by a need to succeed or advance in status (Middlewood, 2005:39). This suggests that school managers should look to find ways that will enable individual members of their staff to achieve in ways that correspond with the school objectives, goals, or aims. Thus, it may not be entirely beneficial to motivate all teachers simultaneously without knowing or understanding their individual aspirations because some may not benefit in terms of their personal ambitions.

2.21.1 Intrinsic factors that influence teachers' motivation

The motivation of teachers is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Steyn (2002:87) identified the following intrinsic factors that have greater influence on educator motivation:

- interaction with learners: educators get most motivation from their daily interactions with learners;

- accomplishment: educators experience greater satisfaction when they can assist learners to achieve positive results;
- recognition and praise: recognition and praise for teachers' efforts and achievements serve as a positive reinforcement for effectiveness;
- task significance: educators experience satisfaction when they have a positive effect on the work and lives of others;
- autonomy: educators need freedom to develop and implement their own methods in the classroom without fear of school authorities.

2.21.2 Extrinsic factors that influence teachers' motivation

Although intrinsic factors have a greater impact on the motivation of teachers, the following extrinsic factors, identified by Steyn (2002:88-89), should not be underestimated:

- Salaries. Most educators are of the view that their salaries are inferior to the amount and type of work they do;
- Promotion. Most educators indicate that promotion to a higher post was one of their goals;
- Relationship with colleagues. Educators put a high premium on positive staff relationships;
- Job security. Educators facing unwanted redeployment or those confronted with major curriculum changes will experience insecurity and will not be as effective and motivated as educators in a secure environment;
- Fair treatment. Educators want to be treated fairly. Any discrimination against them can reduce their effectiveness and motivation;
- Respect. Many educators are of the view that they do not get the professional respect they deserve;
- Lack of services and resources. The shortage of services and resources make teachers feel frustrated and demoralised if they are not professionally resourced or equipped to cope with the new demands made upon them;
- Unreasonable working hours. Educators complain that their working hours are unrealistic and impractical, more so without any extra compensation or appreciation for their efforts;

- Disciplinary problems. Educators feel that disciplinary problems are one of the most powerful causes of demotivation at classroom level. Ill-discipline of principals, educators and learners has been mentioned a source of demotivation among committed teachers;
- Lack of parental commitment. Lack of parental commitment puts more pressure on already-overloaded teachers who have to perform their teaching duties and also take over social responsibilities of parents.

2.22 MODEL TO DEVELOP SELF-EFFICACY

Wood and Olivier (2008b:245) maintain that teachers who are caught in a circle of disempowerment and display negative feelings, behaviour and attitude can be assisted to increase their self-efficacy through development of intrinsic growth, an internal locus of control, positive interaction with the environment and reflective practice. Intrinsic growth, internal locus of control, interaction with the environment and reflective practice are explained below (Wood & Olivier, 2008b: 245):

- Intrinsic growth is defined as the realisation of potential that is internally generated and results in more adequate functioning on behavioural, cognitive and affective levels. It entails professional, personal and social growth, including the acquisition personal life skills and self-knowledge, and is influenced by the environment in which it occurs. It leads to an improved sense of purpose and collaboration with colleagues;
- Internal locus of control is the confidence in one's ability to overcome barriers to personal goals, through organising cognitive, behavioural and social skills;
- Teachers' interaction with the environment operates on a social and physical level, with experience shaping attitude, performance, culture and roles;
- Reflective practice is defined as a conscious process by teachers of their experiences and their consequent adaptation to new behaviour and strategies for attaining goals.

The table below shows how the four criteria relate to the development of self-efficacy (Wood & Olivier, 2008b:243):

Inadequately equipped

teachers with low self-efficacy facilitated to develop...		
Criterion	Process	Outcome
Intrinsic growth	Acquisition of personal life skills and self-knowledge.	Realisation of potential and high level of personal functioning on behavioural, cognitive and affective levels.
Internal locus of control	Development of belief in personal power and ability to influence events and attain desired outcomes.	Confidence in ability to handle problems and persistence toward goal attainment in adverse environmental circumstances.
Interaction with the environment	Formation of relationships and utilisation of physical resources.	Support for goal attainment in a collaborative environment.
Reflective practice comprising continual, conscious processing of own experiences, thoughts, feelings and attitudes and subsequent adaptation of these to reach desired end condition.		
On-going, self-sustained development of these criteria, resulting in adequately equipped teachers with high self-efficacy.		

The development of the four processes results in teachers' attainment of high self-efficacy because they merge to form a circle of empowerment (Wood & Olivier, 2008b:243). A teacher with higher self-efficacy can become an agent for positive change in the organisation (Wood & Olivier, 2008b:243).

2.23 CHAPTER SUMMARY

It is apparent from the above discussion that teacher efficacy has an influence on the performance of teachers in the classroom. In turn, the performance of teachers in the classroom has an influence on the academic outcomes of learners. This means that teachers with a higher efficacy can teach effectively, put more effort into their work, persist during difficult times and motivate learners to perform well. Similarly, learners with a higher efficacy can set goals for themselves, work hard to achieve those goals, show resilience and persevere to deal with problematic questions. This enables such learners to perform better than their peers who believe that only intelligent people achieve their goals. The discussion indicates that school principals need to be

aware of the personal beliefs and needs of their teachers. This would help principals to develop or implement leadership and management strategies that will contribute to increasing teacher efficacy levels. In turn, the school is likely to benefit when it comes to learner achievement as there is a positive link between higher teacher efficacy levels and learner achievement.

2.24. CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is evident from the literature above that teachers need to have higher efficacy. They need to believe more in their capabilities that their teaching can make a positive impact in learner outcomes. However, teachers need the principals to emphasise that they can develop their own abilities through putting extra effort in their own work, subsequently increasing their perceived levels of efficacy. This suggests that principals have an essential role to play when they emphasise teachers' internal abilities rather than external factors. Furthermore, principals need to serve as role models to teachers through their daily interactions with teachers and how they handle difficulties or problems. The following chapter, chapter 3 deals with the influence of principal leadership strategies on teacher efficacy.

CHAPTER 3: THE INFLUENCE OF PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP STRATEGY ON TEACHER EFFICACY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter 2 focused on the nature of teacher efficacy. This chapter focuses on leadership strategies that principals apply in schools to optimise teacher efficacy. The definition of leadership is firstly provided, whereby various elements of leadership, such as vision, improvement or change, influence and values, are explained. The concept of strategy is also defined as the chapter deals with leadership strategies. The link between strategy and goals is explained as well as the link between strategy and objectives so as to show the importance of having goals and objectives so that, when principals draw up leadership strategies, teacher efficacy is optimised. The association of leadership and teacher efficacy forms part of the chapter because the aim of the study is to determine how principals can assist teachers to optimise their efficacy. However, principals first need to develop or have a positive self-efficacy themselves before they can assist others. Various leadership strategies that principals can use to assist teachers to optimise their self-efficacy are explained in this chapter. These strategies are divided into staff development strategies, school improvement strategies, and strategies for school problems.

3.2 LEADERSHIP

3.2.1 Definitions of leadership

Many definitions of leadership can be found in the literature, and each definition seems to emphasise a certain characteristic(s) of leadership. For example, some definitions emphasise vision, whilst others highlight change/improvement, people interaction, motivation, sharing, creativity or values. Some definitions further emphasise individuals who bring about organisational or school effectiveness, whilst other definitions recognise that leadership has to be exercised at all levels of an organisation in order to have an effective and efficient school. In this study, only a few definitions of leadership were selected as there is no single commonly agreed upon definition of

leadership. However, circumstances of schools differ. Thus, it becomes essential to recognise, for example, that whilst one leader may perform well in a school situated in a higher socio-economic environment, such a leader may find it difficult to excel in a school situated in a low socio-economic environment.

Werner (2001:349) defines leadership as the process whereby one individual influences others so as to willingly and enthusiastically direct their efforts and abilities toward attaining defined group or organisational goals. Day (2003a:166) agrees that leadership is the process of building and maintaining a sense of vision, culture and interpersonal relationships, whilst Clarke (2007:1) states that leadership is about getting things to change, which refers to giving direction and purpose to employees to meet organisational goals. Similarly, Davies and Davies (2009:15) also affirm that “leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. It involves inspiring and supporting others towards the achievement of a vision for the school which is based on clear personal and professional values”.

According to Beerel (2009:118), leadership is often confused with authority, but the two differ. The Paperback Oxford English Dictionary (2002:49) defines authority as “the power to give orders and enforce obedience”. Those in authority are expected to control conflict, uphold and maintain norms, provide direction and protection, solve routine problems, mediate between competing stakeholders, whilst leaders are agents of change and challenge the status quo (Beerel, 2009:118). Leaders stimulate shifts in paradigms or consciousness and create opportunities for learning and new courses of action. People who occupy positions of authority are not automatically leaders (Beerel, 2009:118). They must exercise leadership in order to earn the title of being referred to as “leader”. However, leaders need authority to influence, motivate and mobilise others. This indicates that a school needs both roles in order to function effectively (Beerel, 2009:118). Leadership therefore contributes to teacher efficacy, whilst authority does not provide ample opportunities for teachers to develop self-belief.

Reeves (2008:26) disputes the leadership definitions that elevate leaders to a pedestal and assume that with enough study, seminars and charisma, organisational miracles would follow. Instead, he (Reeves, 2008:28) states that “leaders are the architects of individual and organisational improvement”. This architectural definition of leadership indicates that leadership must be distributed and that vision is a necessary but insufficient condition for effective leadership. Distributed leadership must not only be exercised in a participatory democracy, but it must also be based on trust with the knowledge that no single leader possesses the knowledge, skills and talent to lead an organisation (Reeves, 2008:28). No single person can therefore achieve the essential demands of leadership alone. Hence, principals need teachers with higher efficacy levels so that they can make good decisions that are in line with school goals, take initiatives to implement new teaching ways and evaluate their quality of teaching.

Although there is a growing recognition that sustained school improvement will depend on the leadership of many rather than a few, the principal remains key to teacher efficacy development (Harris, 2003a:1). This recognition has led to a groundswell of leadership as empowerment, transformation and community-building, moving away from the “great man” theory of leadership. In addition, Davies (2005:2) and Spillane (2005:145) argue that leadership is not the provenance of one individual but of a group of people who provide leadership in the school. By doing so, they provide support and inspiration to others to achieve the best for the learners in their care. If schools are going to be successful places where children and adults are learning, all teachers must lead and not depend on the superhero/heroine to drive the school forward (Harris, 2003a:1). However, principals are likely to be particularly influential in contributing to teacher efficacy when they attribute outcomes to particular actions of teachers, despite the leadership of other colleagues (Ross & Gray, 2006a:183).

The above discussion suggests that a principal requires leaders at various levels of a school in order to be successful. Without these leaders at various levels, a principal is likely to experience feelings of burden that only he or she is carrying a heavy load of ensuring that teachers remain committed and motivated to perform effectively and efficiently. Unlike management, leadership in

an organisation is not restricted to people in specific positions or roles but is related to all people with the ability to influence and inspire others to attain a goal (Werner, 2001:350). Hence, leadership must be present at all levels of a school (i.e. from parents, learners, teachers and the community) in order to enhance innovation and teamwork within the organisation. Some of the most important common characteristics or elements of leadership, identified from the definitions above, include having a vision, the ability to bring about change, leadership as a process of influence, and developing and maintaining interpersonal relationships. These elements of leadership are discussed below so as to provide more clarity about the concept.

3.2.2 Leadership and vision

A vision always refers to a future state – a condition that does not currently exist and never existed before (Davies, 2006:27). For a school, a vision is described as a statement of what the school would be like at a specified time in the future (Robbins & Alvy, 2004:3). A vision provides the leader with a sense of purpose, aim and direction, which can then be shared with others and used as a basis for prioritising and decision-making (Dimmock & Walker, 2003:13). This implies that leaders look outward and to the future. The leader uses a vision to provide the all-important bridge from the present to the future (Davies, 2006:27). Robbins and Alvy (2004:3) share a similar view, saying that the vision serves as a compass that lends direction to the behaviour of school members if all school members genuinely share a vision. In other words, a vision guides people and gives direction to their actions. However, Robbins and Alvy (2004:3) caution that when the vision is the principal's and is not embraced by other school members, individuals may act because they *should* rather than because of deep commitment. Thus, the school may not run smoothly because individuals lack focus on a shared vision.

According to Day (2003a:171) and Bush (2011:7), the principal as leader of a school is expected to have an explicit personal vision of what he or she wants to achieve and to be able to express his or her vision clearly to parents and teachers. This articulation of a vision has the potential to develop schools (Bush, 2011:117). Other advantages of a leader having a shared vision for the organisation include: firstly, the right vision can attract commitment and energises people;

secondly, the right vision creates meaning in people's lives; thirdly, the right vision establishes a standard of excellence; lastly, it bridges the present and the future (Davies, 2006:28).

According to Kezar (2007:425), the vision will not begin to take hold unless the leader describes it as a personal commitment and a top priority, demonstrating this commitment in his or her speeches and activities. This view is supported by Serrano and Reichard (2011:181), saying that developing a compelling vision is the first step to ensure that employees find meaning in their work. By explicitly outlining the vision, employees come to understand the greater impact of the tasks they must perform (Serrano & Reichard, 2011:181). This implies that the vision becomes most effective when it is tied to employees' daily activities (Serrano & Reichard, 2011:181).

3.2.3 Leadership and improvement/change

Leaders are the initiators, implementers and evaluators of organisational change (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005:1). This places them at the centre of organisational change. In addition, leaders set the pace of change in the organisation (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005:1). They also persuade followers to embrace change (Herold & Fedor, 2008:46). Followers are likely to embrace change or move in the direction the leader suggests to the extent they trust that their leader will not steer them wrong (Herold & Fedor, 2008:47). Bush (2011:6) confirms that teachers and principals are more likely to be enthusiastic about change when they own it. In other words, followers need to believe that their leader has thought things through reasonably well and will involve them when and where it is appropriate.

Herold and Fedor (2008:47) affirm that followers may accept change if they believe their leader has the resources and competence to succeed and also that the leader will be supportive throughout the change process. This indicates that there are leadership actions that are thought to be associated with change, such as involving others, communicating, listening and supporting followers (Herold & Fedor, 2008:47). However, leaders who do not have a history with their followers or who are new to the situation first need to establish a trust relationship through early interactions with followers (Herold & Fedor, 2008:47).

The term change can mean something that is initiated by one or more organisational leaders, intended to achieve certain results through the modification of other people's behaviour or routines (Herold & Fedor, 2008:xiii).

3.2.4 Leadership and influence

According to Duignan (2012:144), effective leadership is essentially an influencing process or an influencing relationship. In this case, influence serves as the true measure of leadership regardless of where a person is in the organisation. Therefore, a typical definition of leadership is that it is simply "a process of influence" (Duignan, 2012:144). Furthermore, Duignan (2012:144) asserts that effective leaders are viewed as those who have the capability to influence themselves, others and each other in order to attain worthwhile and agreed upon goals. The process of influence is purposeful as it is intended to lead to specific outcomes (Bush, 2011:6). This means the process is intentional because the person exercising influence seeks to achieve certain purposes.

Dimmock and Walker (2005:11) concur that leadership is the influence between leaders and followers. This influence amounts to getting staff to agree to act in ways that they may not otherwise have been inclined to choose. In addition, Harris (2002:18) contends that "authentic leaders breathe the life force into the workplace and keep the people feeling energised and focused. As stewards and guides they build people and their self-esteem. They derive their credibility from personal integrity and walking their values." High-performing leaders build leadership capacity that results in meeting and exceeding the goals of the school system (Kirtman, 2014:3). Kirtman (2014:3) continues to argue that in education, successful leaders do not only demonstrate success in increasing learner achievement from standardised test scores. They also build the capacity and self-confidence of their colleagues, which augurs well for optimising teacher efficacy.

On the other hand, influence could be exercised by anyone in the school, unlike authority that tends to rely on formal positions such as that of the principal. This suggests that leadership is independent of positional authority. So, influence as an aspect of leadership could emanate from

any part of the school, independent of formal management positions, capable of residing with any member of the school who includes support staff and learners (Bush, 2011:6).

Marishane (2011:6) agrees that school leadership is a unique form of leadership with a unique identity. Principals as leaders of people give direction to people and assert influence (Marishane, 2011:6). As leaders, principals deal directly with teachers by organising, influencing, guiding and motivating them to perform to the best of their ability when carrying out their tasks, using the acquired, allocated and distributed resources in a responsible and accountable manner to achieve the school's objectives. Such leadership actions contribute to developing teacher efficacy (Ross & Gray, 2006:183).

3.2.5 Leadership and values

Values can be regarded as normative views held by individuals of what is good and desirable (Sono, 2001:546). A major part of a leader's role is to help promote values that contribute to the welfare of individuals and organisations (Dubrin, 2007:109). This promotion is relationship-oriented because it deals with emotions and attitudes of people and indirectly with the task. Leadership is linked with values because leaders are expected to ground their actions in clear personal and professional values (Bush, 2011:6). Values are people's feelings about what is right and proper (Tyler, 2005:170). Leithwood and Duke (1998:36) assert that values are a central part of all leadership practices. What constitutes the right values depends on the leader's core beliefs and begins with understanding of one's own beliefs (Dubrin, 2007:109). In addition, good leaders are informed by and communicate clear sets of personal and educational values that represent their moral purpose for the school (Bush, 2011:6).

Robbins and Alvy (2004:38) affirm that leaders' actions communicate what they value and care about. Personal values are held deeply, and they define what an individual stand for (Patterson & Kelleher, 2005:7). Core values include ethical principles about what is right or wrong, such as trust, fairness and citizenship. Core values also entail compassion and a balanced life. Primary

educational values are values about what matters most to an individual in his or her role as a school leader (Patterson & Kelleher, 2005:7).

Osula and Ideboen (2010:14-15) contend that values can assist leaders in various ways: firstly, values serve a useful purpose because they help individuals to make sense of the world around them; they form the core principles of an individual; they are what people respect and believe has significance; they shape the way individuals view the world; and lastly, values add meaning to the events in people's lives and people can learn and grow from them. The values, thoughts and behaviours that are the essence of leadership are social and interactive processes that are consequently influenced by culture. Hence, the meaning of leadership will vary across different societal cultures. In this case, culture has a significant influence on school leadership because it helps to shape school leaders' thoughts and subsequent actions about concepts such as leadership, followership, communication, and teaching and learning (Dimmock & Walker, 2005:21).

Values have the potential to establish whether a leader has credibility (Osula & Ideboen, 2010:14). To be trustworthy means to demonstrate a strong character that is based on sound values. Leaders' values can shape how they understand their work life. In other words, values can shape the way leaders treat themselves and their colleagues. As values have the power to shape individual lives, they possibly have the power to shape others – in this case, teachers with low efficacy. Leaders act upon what they value (Osula & Ideboen, 2010:15). It is vital for teachers to see their leader as trustworthy. Leaders who have legitimacy can issue directives and people will follow them because they feel that such a leader is entitled to be obeyed. This implies that values are chosen and not imposed.

From the above definitions, it can be inferred that the leadership process is mainly a function of the leader. This does not exclude the involvement of members or followers and other situational variables. Leadership does thus not exist in the abstract but considers factors related to the leader, the person(s) being led and various forces in the environment (Dubrin, 2007:20). Thus, it can be surmised that an effective leader must have a vision, influence over colleagues, establish and

maintain cordial working interpersonal relationships and assist employees to bring about the much-needed change to the organisation. A combination of these leadership elements could lead to an effective and efficient organisation that benefits its clients.

3.3 STRATEGY

The Oxford Paperback Dictionary (2002:829) defines strategy as “a plan designed to achieve a particular long term aim”; thus, a plan that is used to achieve a particular goal. In this study, the principal as the leader of a school would design a plan to increase teacher efficacy levels in his or her school. Huff *et al.* (2009:6) agree that “a strategy is a purposeful attempt to achieve an objective”. Strategy defines a desired objective and communicates what will be done, by whom, how, for whom, and why the output is valuable (Huff *et al.* 2009:6). However, strategy is not just a plan or idea; it is a way of life for an organisation that the leader must watch over day by day so as to shape the organisation and address the most fundamental issues about how he or she wants the organisation to become (Leavy & McKiernan, 2009:8). Davies (2006:125) suggests that there is a link between leadership and strategy when emphasising that, if strategy is to be successful, it needs effective leadership in the school. This indicates that strategy can be associated with leadership.

According to Tomlison (2006:161), strategy refers to the pattern of activities that is followed by an organisation in pursuit of its long-term purposes. Bates (2000:46) supports that strategies refer to actions that help an organisation to achieve its goals. Strategy is also concerned with projection into the future as well as the prediction of an uncertain future (Tomlison, 2006:161). Thus, the main focus of strategy is predicting and interacting with the future. This could be translated to three questions: Where are we now? Where do we want to go? How do we get there? (Tomlison, 2006:165).

Furthermore, Fiddler *et al.* (1996:19) are of the view that strategy is concerned with planning a successful future for a school. This indicates the association between leadership and strategy because planning is regarded as a leadership task (Van der Westhuizen, 2008a:144). This plan

can involve improving an already-successful school or starting from a strategic problem such as declining learner numbers. Strategy deals with the medium to longer term, that is, three to five years into the future (Davies & Ellison, 2003:35). In other words, strategy takes an organisation to where it wants to be in five years' time, for example. This suggests that strategy is not an event but a process that demands action and follow-up (Analoui & Karami, 2003:8). Thus, it is not something that can be done and dropped because it entails feedback and learning (Analoui & Karami, 2003:8).

Davies (2009:16) purports that strategy is translating the vision into action. Strategy thus serves as a delivery mechanism for building direction for the organisation to achieve the intended change. Thompson and Martin (2010:5) confirm that strategies are means to an end, and ends concern the purpose and objectives of the organisation. They are things that organisations do, the paths they follow, and the decisions they make in order to reach certain points and levels of success (Thompson & Martin, 2010:11). In addition, Thompson and Martin (2010:xviii) support the view that strategy may involve planning, plans and formal documentation but argue that, fundamentally, it is a way of thinking and behaving. In other words, strategy is about setting, pursuing and achieving the organisation's mission and objectives (Thompson & Martin, 2010:xviii). Thus, strategy links with leadership because it is the leader of an organisation who uses strategies to plan and set the direction the organisation should follow.

Strategies help to explain the things that managers and organisations do (Thompson & Martin, 2010:9). Messick and Kramer (2005:222) agree that leaders devise strategies in interaction with their environments. Such actions or activities are designed and carried out in order to fulfil certain designated purposes, which may be short term or long term in nature. For example, a principal who realises that teachers in his or her school have low self-beliefs, believing that their teaching practice has little or no influence on the academic performance of learners, will need strategies to assist such teachers to increase their self-efficacy and to believe that their teaching can make a positive difference in learner performance. Increasing teachers' efficacy might serve as the objective or goal, whilst establishing open communication channels with teachers might serve as a

strategy to encourage teachers to communicate frankly their frustrations, fears as well as share success stories with their colleagues. So, leadership does link with strategy, as it is expected mainly of leaders to devise strategies that will take the school as an organisation forward.

Other characteristics of strategy include the following (Davies & Ellison, 2003:35):

- strategy deals with fundamental or important key issues. It focuses on the overall direction and the major themes of an organisation. However, strategy does not replicate all the items of a school development plan, but it draws together key themes;
- strategy deals with broad aggregated data without replicating the detail of short-term planning;
- strategy should be viewed as a template against which to benchmark current activity. For example, requests for expenditure should be checked to see if they contribute to strategic goals.

On the other hand, Glanz (2006:214) explains strategy as how we turn what we have into what we need to get what we want. This means strategy is how we transform our resources into the power to achieve our purposes. In this study, strategy could refer to a plan of activities or actions designed by the leader to help teachers increase their efficacy levels so that they can perform with confidence in the classroom and eventually improve learners' academic performance. Strategy is further articulated in decisions that leaders of organisations make as they interact with their environment (Glanz, 2006:216). This emphasises the association between leadership and strategy. It also suggests that strategy is, to a large extent, the prerogative of the leader.

From the above discussion, it may be inferred that strategy as a long-term process can be achieved through goals and objectives. This suggests that strategy is made up of goals and objectives which are specific actions that should be undertaken to address a particular matter. Thus, when a leader of an institution creates a strategy(ies), there must be something that the plan or strategy is aimed at or a purpose to be achieved. Leaders therefore need to be clear with the

direction they would like to take. The above mentioned are subsequently discussed to provide more clarity about how leaders can use strategy to achieve the purpose of their organisation.

3.3.1 Strategy and goals

A goal is a future state an individual is striving to attain (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:162). Van der Westhuizen (2008:145) adds that goals say something about what should be achieved after an activity is over and how things will be during the course of an activity. Goals can also be outcomes or aims that an individual would like to achieve, which define an acceptable level of performance or direction of action to be taken (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:162). Leaders can use goal setting as a tool to help teachers focus on a path that leads to professional growth. In addition, goal setting should be collaborative, with principals and teachers working together (Hoerr, 2005:47). Without coordination and teamwork, the best individual efforts yield a poor outcome (Bolman & Deal, 2002:85). This indicates that in any team, people need to know how their work relates to others. If people constantly step on others' toes or point fingers of blame, it becomes frustrating for everyone involved.

An educational leader who wants to manage effectively must have clearly defined goals (Van der Westhuizen, 2008:144). Hoy and Miskel (2008:164) elaborate that leaders can use goals in their strategies to direct the mental and physical actions of employees. Firstly, the attention of employees on the immediate task is increased by having goals to work toward. Secondly, goals push individuals to increase the amount of effort they spend on selected activities – in other words, they help individuals to take action on activities that are relevant to the goals. Thirdly, goals increase persistence to continue trying and working hard. Finally, goals increase motivation and performance by encouraging the development of specific task strategies or ways of performing the task.

Furthermore, according to Davies and Davies (2009:47), people are motivated by goals they find personally compelling, challenging but achievable. If people have such goals, they are likely to find meaning in their work, which would enable them to find a sense of identity for themselves within

their work context. The above discussion indicates that leaders need to use goals in order to achieve a strategy. Goals help people to make a choice to focus on what should be done. This gives direction to the actions of teachers. Thus, principals as leaders can use goals to motivate and challenge their teachers to have something to work toward.

Goddard (2003:13) agrees that leading is the act of working with a group of individuals to achieve communal goals. This implies that, in a school setting, the principal works with teachers to achieve the school goals. For example, principals who practise transformational leadership would flatten the school hierarchy and give teachers opportunities to participate in developing school goals and improvement plans. Such principals obtain higher commitment from teachers. Moreover, highly committed teachers are likely to go beyond the formal requirements of the job to engage in productive functions that enhance organisational effectiveness (Ross & Gray, 2006:801). By giving teachers opportunities to participate in school matters, principals enhance the efficacy beliefs of teachers.

3.3.2 Strategy and objectives

According to Van der Westhuizen (2008:145), there is a difference between goals and objectives; an objective operates in the short term, whilst a goal is broader and formulated over the long term. Ubben, Hughes and Norris (2011:63) add that objectives are more specific than goals and should be obtainable within a stated period of time. Thus, when formulating an objective, the intention should be clear and readily understood (Van der Westhuizen, 2008:145). In addition, Van der Westhuizen (2008:145) explains that objectives reflect the work to be performed, activities, conditions, and standards are specified.

One of the tasks of an educational leader is to determine goals and objectives for their schools (Van der Westhuizen, 2008:145). Van der Westhuizen (2008:145) also explains that this determination of goals and objectives forms part of the planning task of a principal. When principals draw up a strategy, they need to identify clear objectives, because the objectives will

help to direct various activities toward the aim or purpose and will bring coordination amongst employees. This suggests that there is a link between strategy and goals and objectives.

For the purpose of this study, principals as leaders of schools, where teachers believe that their teaching makes little or no positive difference in learning outcomes, may need to develop a strategy(ies) to maintain or enhance their teachers' self-efficacy that their teaching can make a positive difference. Teachers need to be assisted and encouraged continually to improve their classroom practice. Assistance and encouragement need to be done in a fair, authentic, continuous and systematic manner to cover all teachers. This is because there is a link between teacher efficacy and the quality of teaching, teachers' efforts and motivation and ultimately, teachers influence on learners' academic outcomes (Nir & Kranot, 2006:206; Yeo *et al.*, 2008:192). The principal therefore needs a plan or strategy in order not to be haphazard in approaching teachers, because teachers' needs differ. Some experienced teachers might not require the same amount of support as novices and this needs to be recognised.

3.4 LEADERSHIP AND TEACHER EFFICACY

Teacher efficacy has been identified as perhaps the most important belief system in terms of its effect on the behaviour of teachers and subsequently learner performance (Collier, 2005:352). Furthermore, Collier (2005:352) contends that teachers who exhibit high levels of teacher efficacy tend to perform more effectively in the classroom.

The above suggests that principals need more effective leadership and management qualities that will enable them to assist teachers in their schools to develop or increase their teacher efficacy levels. In addition, successful leadership is measured by the improvement in the performance of others (Terry, 1999:1). Thus, effective and successful principals are able to create an atmosphere that breeds motivated and successful teachers and energised and excited staff through example and direction (Terry, 1999:1). So, it has become critical for principals in township and rural schools to understand and learn how their leadership and management behaviours impact on teacher efficacy levels.

The leadership strategies practised by principals significantly influence teacher efficacy, which encompass teachers' experiences on the job, their efforts and their commitment to change (Nir & Kranot, 2006:207). Furthermore, Nir and Kranot (2006:207) purport that principals' leadership determines teachers' autonomy, the support given to teachers, principals' responsiveness to teachers' demands and expectations, teachers' professional growth, role stress, role conflict and overall satisfaction. These factors are all associated with personal teacher efficacy, which can be influenced by the strategies principals exercise in their leadership in their schools (Nir & Kranot, 2006:207).

Hipp (1997:1) states that in a time when public criticism of teachers and schools is pervasive, teachers predictably experience doubts and low self-beliefs about the value of their teaching on learners. Under constant criticism, teachers tend to display low levels of self-efficacy (Wood & Olivier, 2008b:240). This makes it essential for principals to convey a sense of certainty that teachers can and do influence learner achievement and that learners are capable of learning (Nir & Kranot, 2006:205). Similarly, Sun (2004:18) posits that principals have a strong influence on teachers, and leadership is the most influential factor on teacher commitment, which is an element of higher levels of teacher efficacy.

One of the conditions that give rise to positive self-efficacy of teachers, is the leadership of the principal, especially transformational leadership (Ross & Gray, 2006:800). Principals who adopt transformational practices are more likely to have higher teacher efficacy in their schools (Ross & Gray, 2006:183). According to Ross and Gray (2006:800), transformational leadership is a stronger predictor of teacher beliefs and practices than transactional leadership. Moreover, leadership that is focused on setting direction, developing people and designing the organisation for success is second only to teaching among effects on learner achievement (Daly *et al.*, 2011:177). These qualities of setting direction, building capacity and creating the organisational conditions for improvement are closely aligned with the concept of transformational leadership, which has the potential to contribute to teacher efficacy development. Walker and Slear (2011:46) affirm that

there is a positive relationship between the behaviour of the principal and high levels of teacher efficacy as well as a positive link between teacher efficacy and learner achievement.

In addition, Nir and Kranot (2006:213) suggest that leaders who are transformational in their approach are more likely to shape the kind of job circumstances that enable individual satisfaction and therefore allow personal teacher efficacy (PTE) to develop. Positive job circumstances that promote teacher satisfaction may contribute to the enhancement of PTE (Nir & Kranot, 2006:213). Principals who assist teachers to increase their PTE and teaching efficacy (TE) have been found to have a positive influence on learner achievement (Nir & Kranot, 2006:206; Yeo *et al.*, 2008:192). Hoy and Spero (2005:343) posit that teachers' sense of efficacy appears to be a belief that affects the quality of teaching and learning. This suggests that assisting teachers to increase their personal efficacy may serve as one of the strategies to improve learner achievement in South Africa's low-performing schools.

Through their leadership, principals are effective in determining teachers' perceptions of self and collective efficacy (Calik *et al.*, 2012:2499). Instructional leadership, in particular, is related to variables such as job performance, learner achievement, teachers' professional development, and teachers' attitudes toward change. However, more research is still needed on teachers' efficacy beliefs, collective efficacy and principals' leadership behaviours (Calik *et al.*, 2012:2499). This research attempted to provide a South African perspective on principals' leadership strategies that develop and reinforce teachers' self-efficacy.

Principals are far from uniform in their leadership strategies, however (Harris, 2002:15). Some leadership strategies could thus be more effective for teachers with high efficacy levels to assist them to maintain their efficacy, whilst other leadership strategies could be more applicable to teachers with low efficacy levels. This suggests that no single leadership style works to develop and enhance teacher efficacy.

Teacher self-efficacy is identified as one of the most influential factors on the quality of teaching, teachers' professional development, teachers' efforts, motivation, satisfaction and ultimately, on their learners' academic outcomes (Nir & Kranot, 2006:206, Yeo, *et al.* 2008:192). Through their leadership, principals have an influence on teacher efficacy levels. In turn, teachers who have higher efficacy levels and are motivated, have a direct impact on the academic performance of learners in their schools (Lethoko, 2002:238). Thus, during their interactions with teachers, principals can indirectly have a positive impact on school results by applying leadership strategies that can assist teachers to increase their efficacy levels.

The above discussion confirms that through their leadership strategies or actions, principals can help teachers acquire and sustain feelings of competence and worth, that is, teacher efficacy (Hipp, 1997:1). This is because the leader of a school has an influence on aspects of staff performance, namely staff capacity, motivation and commitment, and working conditions (Dempster, 2009:28). This influence of a school leader on teachers' capacity, motivation and commitment may, in turn, assist teachers to look inward at their contribution and their capabilities to bring about positive learning outcomes. This means teachers looking closely at their own quality of teaching, their personal beliefs about their contribution to learner achievement rather than attributing poor learner academic performance to external factors such as poverty, lack of motivation and other factors over which they have little control. It is possible that with more transformational leadership practices, teachers may develop increased self-beliefs that their quality of teaching can make a positive difference in learner outcomes despite unfavourable external factors that learners are exposed to.

3.5 PRINCIPALS' SELF-EFFICACY

Principals' self-efficacy has a positive impact on school and classroom conditions, which are related to improvements in learner achievement (Daly *et al.*, 2011:174). According to Day (2003a:175), the ability of principals to have a clear and well-articulated set of values, to exercise moral leadership, and to understand and successfully manage the interplay of powerful intra- and interpersonal emotions in their own lives, teachers' and other stakeholders' in the school, are

fundamental to successful school leadership. Thus, effective leadership is as much about developing the self as it is about capacity-building in others (Day, 2003b:43).

According to Sousa (2003:15), no single leadership style will successfully manage the issues emerging from a rapidly changing and technologically complex world. Therefore, in order for educational leaders to successfully implement major school reforms and facilitate the interaction of individuals and groups in schools, they must have an in-depth understanding of themselves and the individuals they lead (Sousa, 2003:15,). This means they must fully understand their own strengths and weaknesses so that they can find solutions within the school rather than be dependent on externally initiated changes (Sousa, 2003:15).

In addition, Sousa (2003:15) maintains that leaders have to learn to manage themselves before they can lead others. Korkmaz (2007:45) agrees that transformational leadership starts with personal development and helping others develop themselves and continues with guiding others. This suggests that the personal and self-efficacy of principals are essential if a principal is to make a positive contribution to the efficacy levels of teachers.

Successful leaders possess a sense of self-awareness, mastery of their emotions and knowledge of how their actions and emotions impact others. Thus school leaders need to keep their emotions in check, because their unpredictable behaviour and frequent upsets and outbursts can create tension, concern and unrest in the school (Brock & Grady, 2012:31). Successful principals project an impression that they are trustworthy, capable and interested in others. They also appear confident, poised and calm (Brock & Grady, 2012:27).

Self-efficacy is positively correlated with a person's general level of health, perceived degree of control over situations and effective behaviour (Ellis *et al.*, 2009:381). Personal efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs about their capability to accomplish challenging goals, whereas self-efficacy beliefs define the strength of individuals' sense of personal mastery and confidence in their abilities to make an impact (Patterson & Kelleher, 2005:76). In addition, Patterson and Kelleher (2005:76)

purport that persons' beliefs about what they can achieve determine what they choose to do in the face of adversity and how long and how much they can persevere when facing obstacles.

The implication of the above discussion is that principals need to be generally healthy, have control over the school situation and be positive about their efforts to improve their schools. Where teacher efficacy is low, principals need to assist teachers to alter their self-beliefs about their abilities and personal mastery first. However, principals themselves need to believe that they can come up with appropriate strategies that can help teachers optimise their self-efficacy.

3.5.1 How principals can sustain and strengthen their own and teachers' self-efficacy

The crucial building blocks of efficacy are confidence and competence as well as strong connections to others (Patterson & Kelleher, 2005:83). Increased self-confidence leads to undertaking more challenging tasks and developing higher levels of competence. According to Patterson and Kelleher (2005:83) and Ellis *et al.* (2009:382), the following building blocks can help principals sustain and build their efficacy:

- Set short-term goals and benchmarks of progress: Short-term desired outcomes can motivate principals, shape their actions, define their competence and ultimately provide real evidence of their efficacy.
- Claim small wins: Skills are acquired through time and diligence. People who attribute success to their personal skills and failure to lack of effort will undertake more difficult tasks and persevere more than people who attribute success to situational factors and failure to their own lack of skill.
- Recover quickly from setbacks: Effective school leaders have recognised that the complexity of their jobs means that mistakes and oversights are inevitable. Thus, they have learned not to dwell on their mistakes but to rebound quickly from setbacks.
- Manage yourself: Principals need strategies to be able to control negative feelings, especially anxiety. This is because persons feel a stronger sense of self-efficacy when they are calm rather than upset. Anxiety reduces self-efficacy, degrades competence, disrupts focus, concentration and the ability to use one's skills effectively. Managing one's emotions

is thus regarded as a key element of emotional intelligence. In addition, taking care of one's physical and emotional health is essential to sustaining self-confidence and maintaining high levels of competence. According to Brock and Grady (2012:31), school leaders need to keep their emotions in check, because their unpredictable behaviour and frequent upsets and outbursts can create tension, concern and unrest in the school. Principals are thus viewed as the calm at the centre of the storm, the tireless cheerleader for the weary, and have a reassuring presence after a disaster (Brock & Grady, 2012:31).

- Maintain and increase strong connections to others: Firstly, personal efficacy is highly contextual. In effective organisations, efficacy becomes more than a personal attribute because leaders believe in the power of the team. This gives rise to collective efficacy, which is the belief in the group's capability to face any threat that arises with confidence that the group will prevail. Secondly, principals need to stay connected to their mentors, because the latter provide career advice and opportunities, offer emotional support as confidantes or as problem-solvers. Moreover, principals need to avoid the competency trap which assumes that seeking advice and help is a sign of weakness.

Other guidelines for principals include the following (Day, 2003a:175):

- avoid false certainty by accepting that there are no ready-made solutions from outside;
- base risk on security – the principal needs to trust and value colleagues so that they will feel able to take risks, knowing that they are secure in doing so;
- respect those you want to silence because often, those who speak against you or raise disturbing questions, have something important to say;
- move towards danger in forming new alliances – use external support, establish new relationships, and lead the way to redefine collaboration so that it encompasses alliances with groups and individuals outside the school;
- manage emotionally as well as rationally;
- maintain a hopeful stance in the face of seemingly intractable problems is healthy and constructive.

From the above discussion, it is inferred that self-efficacy is a belief and not a skill or action, but it is possible that individuals can improve their lives by believing in their own capabilities, taking charge and controlling the outcomes of events in their lives. Personal efficacy is not fixed from childhood, but it is the self-assurance that develops through mastery experiences. It can also not be generalised or transferred to other situations. However, people cannot control their lives totally through beliefs because there are a number of forces besides individual will and action that help to determine the course their lives take, such as social, geographic and institutional influences.

3.6 THE EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES ON TEACHERS' EFFICACY

The discussion below focused on the effects of leadership strategies on teachers' efficacy. These strategies were divided into staff development strategies, school improvement strategies, school problems strategies and physical resources strategies.

3.6.1 Staff development strategies

The staff development strategies focused on principals supporting teachers, building teacher commitment, building trust and establishing clear lines of communication.

3.6.1.1 Supporting teachers

Teacher efficacy can be improved by great support from principals (Silverman & Davis, 2009:5). Teachers who perceive low levels of support from their principals display lower levels of self-efficacy to seek help (Ware & Kitsantas, 2011:184). Self-efficacy beliefs also predict the level of burnout in teachers, which includes emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and declining personal accomplishment. The extent to which shifts in teacher efficacy take place thus depends upon the support they receive in the institution.

Principals can support teachers by ensuring that each teacher feels known and valued as a person, feels safe in the school environment, feels that their efforts are appreciated, is recognised for his or her accomplishments, his or her ideas and contributions are valued, feels informed about

what is going on in the school, feels included in decisions and changes that affect him or her, and feels safe to try new ideas and seek assistance (Brock & Grady, 2012:80).

Principals can also contribute to enhancing teacher efficacy by building a sense of mastery amongst teachers (Patterson & Kelleher, 2005:83; Ellis et al., 2009:382). When people achieve repeated success, they may experience what is called enactive mastery. This means that having accomplished something, people tend to have the strongest feeling of self-efficacy. Thus, success is viewed as the primary basis of self-efficacy.

The interactions between principals and teachers can affect teacher efficacy (Walker & Slear, 2011:47). According to Walker and Slear (2011:47), principals can take actions in their daily work with teachers to enhance and promote teacher efficacy. Through these daily interactions, many principals can have an impact on teacher effectiveness and on teachers' confidence because teachers may feel that they are supported by the principal who is accessible. On the other hand, the lack of emotional support from principals has a significant negative impact on the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers (Ware & Kitsantas, 2011:184).

3.6.1.2 Building teacher commitment

Teacher commitment has been identified as a key aspect of a school's capacity for reform and renewal (Geijssel *et al.*, 2003:232). Teachers' commitment is necessary for sustainable improvement in schools, and succession to leadership is also more likely if there are many leaders at many levels who are able to set their sights on continuous improvement (O'Donoghue & Clarke, 2010:62). According to Sun (2004:29), principals' behaviours have an influence on teachers' commitment, which is an element of teacher efficacy. However, Sun (2004:29) argues that the influence of principals' behaviour is limited to some aspects of teacher commitment. These include the following (Sun, 2004:28):

- teachers' commitment to teaching – making extra efforts;
- pride in being a teacher;
- enjoyment of teaching;

- teachers' commitment to school – having a feeling that one is a part of the school.

A positive relationship between a principal and teacher is likely to increase a teacher's commitment, while a negative personal relationship has much less influence on a teacher's commitment (Sun, 2004:28). Sun (2004:28) outlines the following reasons for lack of principal influence on teacher commitment: a conflicted principal-teacher personal relationship; teachers' disrespect for the principal; teachers value orientations conflicting with those of the principal; and teachers' possession of intrinsic commitment independent of the principal.

Other ways of strengthening teacher commitment include the following (Van Vuuren & Van der Westhuizen, 2008:366): Firstly, the principal needs to ensure that there is identification of and agreement on shared values as a way to build common ground. Making the values operative would increase a sense of worth and belonging for teachers. Secondly, the principal should ensure that there is commitment to goals and objectives. Meaningful goals help to create a sense of belonging because teachers feel connected by participating in a meaningful venture. Lastly, teachers must be involved in decisions about rewards for excellence and incentive policies.

3.6.1.3 Effects of trust on teachers' sense efficacy

According to Wahlstrom and Louis (2008:462), there is overall satisfaction with the organisation when employees have trust in the decision-making capacity of their leadership. Principals can build trust in their colleagues through supportive behaviour (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008:462). Trust can be linked to shared leadership (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008:462). Schools that have high trust amongst colleagues and their leadership exhibit more collective decision-making (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008:462).

Although, intimate partners and family help to sustain personal efficacy when they believe in the potential and capability of a person, people outside families, such as principals who believe in their teachers, can also assist teachers to sustain their personal efficacy by maintaining strong personal relationships with teachers (Patterson & Kelleher, 2005:83; Ellis *et al.*, 2009:382). In other words,

self-efficacy is gained through persuasive experiences. Thus, when others who have faith in individuals persuade them of their own capabilities, such individuals are likely to try harder, persevere longer and perform better.

3.6.1.4 Establishing clear lines of communication

When principals establish clear lines of communication, which include keeping teachers informed and involved, it leads to higher levels of teacher efficacy (Walker & Slear, 2011:53). If teachers are kept informed of developments that affect their school, they feel that they are a valuable part of the school and may feel more connected to efforts to improve achievement in their school. This requires the principal to ensure that staff members know what is going on. Staff members may consequently be more likely to take ownership and work toward common school goals.

Principals need to keep in mind that one-way communication is not good because it can relay a message, but it rarely accomplishes a task (Hoerr, 2005:32). Thus, to avoid one-way communication and to ensure that there is open communication, the principal needs to make sure that all members receive written communication, such as minutes of meetings, agendas and notices of future meetings or cancellation of meetings, in good time. In addition, verbal communication should be made clear and unambiguous to avert misunderstandings (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:85). There are other activities that can assist principals to enhance good communication (Van der Westhuizen, 2008:209): firstly, the principal must ensure that the message is clear; secondly, the message should be accompanied by an explanation; thirdly, the message should be complete, and details should not be omitted; fourthly, the message should be reasonable; lastly, the principal as communicator should be competent to transfer ideas and information clearly to teachers.

The purpose of communication includes, amongst others, ensuring that there is flow of information by conveying messages to staff members, publicising planning, ensuring effective functioning of the school and informing people about what should be done, how it should be done, when it should be done, and by whom (Van der Westhuizen, 2008:206). These activities are likely to have a

positive impact on teacher efficacy because they are clear about what needs to be done, by whom, when and how. It may, therefore, be surmised that people perform better when they know what is expected of them.

3.6.2 School improvement strategies

The focus of the school improvement strategies was principals practising transformational leadership, empowering teachers, setting goals, monitoring and evaluating instruction, inspiring team work and modelling instructional expectations.

3.6.2.1 Practicing transformational leadership

Transformational leadership can be defined as “moving the follower beyond self-interests through idealised influence (charisma), inspiration, intellectual stimulation, or individualised consideration” (Kurt et al., 2012:75). This definition suggests several ways through which transformational leadership behaviour of the principal can influence self-efficacy of teachers. By emphasising visionary, inspirational messages and showing confidence in themselves and their followers, transformational leaders are able to enhance followers’ efficacy beliefs (Kurt *et al.*, 2012:75).

Transformational leadership can be identified by several leadership activities, namely: setting directions (includes vision-building, goal consensus and development of high-performance expectations); developing people (includes provision of individualised support, intellectual stimulation and modelling of values and practices that are important to the mission of the school); organising (includes culture-building, shared decision-making processes and problem-solving capacities); and building relationships (Harris, 2002:18). Harris (2002:18) explains that these behaviours have been shown to encourage teacher collaboration, increase teacher motivation and improve teachers’ self-efficacy.

On the other hand, Kurk *et al.* (2012:75) argue that transactional leadership focuses on the task and avoids the individual who performs the task. When compared to transformational leadership, transactional leadership emphasises procedures and data to inform decision-making.

Transactional leadership is also concerned with organisational purposes rather than people (Harris, 2002:18). As a result, a transactional approach may result in low teacher self-efficacy because the leader detaches employees from the task. Teachers prefer to work with principals who implement a transformational leadership rather than those who show a traditional attitude to leadership (Korkmaz, 2007:31).

Transformational leaders can also enhance teachers' efficacy beliefs by providing emotional and ideological explanations that link followers' individual identities to the collective identity of their school (Kurk *et al.*, 2012:75). For example, through individualised consideration, a transformational principal can help followers recognise their capabilities, which then provides a basis for elevating each follower's needs and performance beyond expectations (Kurk *et al.*, 2012:75). Furthermore, such leaders speak with an appealing tone of voice, make direct eye contact, display animated facial expressions, and have a powerful yet confident and dynamic interaction style (Kurk *et al.*, 2012:75).

A transformational leader can help followers think through the obstacles that confront their success by using intellectual stimulation, thus leading followers to develop a better understanding of what needs to be done to be successful (Kurk *et al.*, 2012:75). This process of thinking through the best ways to approach problems and challenges can help raise individual teachers' confidence to perform exceptionally, resulting in job satisfaction and commitment to the school (Kurk *et al.*, 2012:75).

3.6.2.2 Empowering teachers

According to Sharp (2009:10), teacher empowerment "is a process whereby participants develop the competence to take charge of their own growth, resolve their own problems, and believe they have the skills and knowledge to act on a situation and improve it". Thus, school improvement is dependent on increased opportunities for staff to participate in the decision-making process in vital areas within the school (Sharp, 2009:10). Through creation of opportunities to empowering staff, the principal provides opportunities for teachers to make decisions about their work and to be

involved in school-wide decisions. Teachers need to know that their inputs are important and that their efforts will make a difference: “[if] people believe they have no power to produce results, they will not attempt to make things happen” (Hoerr, 2005:121).

Luft (2012:35) refers to empowerment as enabling experiences, provided within an organisation, which fosters autonomy, choice, control and responsibility. Empowerment is the respect for individuals and the willingness to train them, to set reasonable and clear expectations for them, and to grant them the autonomy to contribute meaningfully and directly to their work (Kruger, 2003:210). Teacher empowerment provides the self-belief and opportunity to act on educational decisions that influence performance (Luft, 2012:35). In addition, empowerment occurs when educators develop the confidence to take charge of their own professional development and resolve problems. Power is thus vested in employees who exhibit a sense of ownership and control over their jobs (Luft, 2012:35).

Leadership plays a critical role in creating an empowering environment that is positive and motivating and promotes self-determination and self-efficacy (Davis & Wilson, 2000:349). Leaders can nurture intrinsic empowerment in the workplace by encouraging and establishing positive, collaborative relationships and by facilitating decision-making that enhances both personal and organisational growth (Davis & Wilson, 2000:349).

Strategies of empowering teachers can therefore be summarised as follows: involving teachers in problem-solving activities; asking teachers how they think about things and how projects can be handled rather than telling them how things will happen; sharing as much management information as possible to help foster their commitment; asking teachers what systems and procedures prevent them from executing their duties effectively and efficiently; developing their skills in conflict resolution, problem-solving and negotiations; being helpful without providing all the answers and without being condescending; exhibiting desired characteristics personally as a principal, being more like a coach and less like a boss; and allowing risk-taking (Sallies, 2002:68).

3.6.2.3 Goal setting

An educational leader who wants to manage effectively must have clearly defined goals (Van der Westhuizen, 2008:144). However, the goals of a school should be formulated with reference to the school mission. This means the principal has to be clear with what the school wants to achieve and how and when that can be achieved. Clashes would be avoided or eliminated if the various activities of a school are directed toward a particular goal and staff members know what is happening in the school.

A goal is a future state that an individual is striving to attain (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:162). Goals can also be outcomes or aims that an individual would like to achieve, which define an acceptable level of performance or direction of action to be taken (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:162). The importance of setting goals is captured well through advice given by the Cheshire Cat to Alice as she wandered through Wonderland – if you do not know where you are going, any road will get you there. This scenario suggests that without a focus, teachers are likely to spend time heading in several directions and wanting to do all things and do them well (Hoerr, 2005:47). Goal setting can be a tool to help teachers focus on a path that leads to professional growth. In addition, goal setting should be collaborative, with principals and teachers working together (Hoerr, 2005:47).

The following characteristics of goals are identified (Hoerr, 2005:47):

- Goals should be meaningful: Goals should lead to increased accomplishment by learners and teachers. This suggests that meaningful goals benefit both learners and teachers in the sense that goal setting should reflect learner achievement results from learner-teacher interaction. Thus, a meaningful goal addresses the growth of learners and teachers.
- Goals should be measurable: In order to determine whether you have succeeded, you need to measure a goal. This can be done by looking at mean scores, averages and standard deviations. However, not all goals are quantifiable; for example, to increase excitement about learning or to increase learner motivation. Such unquantifiable goals can be

measured by monitoring progress toward them; for example, through tracking learner attendance.

- Goals should be achievable: Teachers should feel that their goals are achievable and that through hard work and concentrated effort, they can attain them. This suggests that both principals and teachers must set realistic goals that are neither too easy nor too difficult. However, there must be some challenging goals, because if a teacher achieves all of his or her goals, then the goals were not ambitious enough. Similarly, if a teacher fails to achieve any one of his or her goals, it could imply that the goals were arduous and unrealistic. It therefore becomes imperative that principals and teachers have a dialogue about what constitutes a difficult or easy goal.

Sometimes individuals can choose their own goals, they can beset jointly, or they can be assigned by others (Hoy & Miskel, 2008:165). On the other hand, Hoy and Miskel (2008:165) argue that setting difficult goals can result in higher levels of performance in comparison to easy ones, if they are accepted. This goal-difficulty effect indicates that hard goals lead to greater effort and persistence in comparison to easy goals, assuming that difficult goals are accepted.

- Goals should be individualised: no teachers or school contexts are the same. Thus, goals should reflect a teacher's talents and his or her school context.

3.6.2.4 Monitoring and evaluating instruction

The principal "keeps an eye" on what is happening in the school and provides feedback to teachers regarding the instructional impact of classroom strategies. One of the most important tasks of principals is the supervision and leadership provision to teaching staff (Walker & Slear, 2011:47). In fulfilling that role, principals are tasked with assisting teachers to develop their skills so that they can better facilitate student learning. This means that principals must address issues that are related to teacher effectiveness and they must support teachers to develop skills that will help learners to achieve. By enhancing the efficacy of teachers, principals have the opportunity to influence the type and quality of instruction learners receive (Walker & Slear, 2011:47).

3.6.2.5 Inspiring group purpose or teamwork

Teamwork forms an essential component of an organisation because it can be used in decision-making, problem-solving situations, in building trust and improving communication (Sallis, 2002:72; Razik & Swanson, 2010:85). Examples of teams in a school are academic departments where teachers who share a subject are grouped together so as to deal with matters of common concern. Other kinds of teams are functional teams, such as work committees and project teams, to deal with specific aspects in a school. These include, for example, social committees, sports committees and tuck-shop committees (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:72). When committee members are allowed to participate in decision-making, problem-solving and are communicating frequently, they tend to develop more confidence in their own abilities. This confidence in their abilities may encourage them to handle more difficult situations, which could contribute to optimising teacher efficacy.

The creation of an environment conducive to team work requires openness and trust from the principal (Kirtman, 2014:36). Principals create an environment where all teachers are part of a team and work together toward shared goals that result in learner and teacher success. This process of being open and developing trust can begin when principals allow team members to be free to speak the truth without any repercussions. However, principals need to first demonstrate that they are willing to look at their own strengths and weaknesses, which helps to set the tone for openness and honesty. Principals also need to encourage team members to look at their weaknesses and strengths. This will allow for filling of the gaps and building on others' strengths (Kirtman, 2014:36).

Principals need to ensure that teams are staffed with people who possess adequate experience and expertise to accomplish the task (Van Deventer, 2003:102; Brock & Grady, 2012:70). Thus, each team needs a predetermined goal, a structure, measure of accountability, and time and resources to accomplish the task, including a measure of autonomy (Brock & Grady, 2012:70).

Squelch and Lemmer (1994:83) agree that principals can build winning teams by making sure that the team has a common goal shared by all members, motivating members through encouragement and reward, keeping channels of communication open, allowing everyone to participate in decision-making, holding regular meetings, making information and resources available, and reviewing progress.

The above implies that principals should not make decisions that disregard teams' inputs. Instead, when principals demonstrate respect and trust in the team, it has the potential to enhance teacher efficacy because teachers' morale and job satisfaction are likely to be lifted (Van Deventer, 2003:102). Again, principals need to demonstrate that true teamwork becomes genuine and is based on respect for the team. At the end of the journey, team members need to be recognised for their contribution. However, if the initiative fails, the principal needs to accept responsibility (Brock & Grady, 2012:70).

3.6.2.6 Modelling instructional expectations

Principals model their beliefs in the instructional process and emphasise the importance of the instruction that takes place in each classroom. The efficacy of teachers can also be improved by observing the performances of other successful teachers or by modelling of inspiring and supportive principals (Kurt et al., 2012:73). For example, equitable distribution of work amongst teachers has a positive influence on employee work performance.

The above discussion suggests that principals need to allow teachers to visit their colleagues who are doing well to observe how they conduct their lessons and are able to maintain a sound classroom control. This requires flexibility in the timetable.

3.6.3 School problems: strategies

Principals have a positive influence on teacher efficacy when they address school problems promptly. This means principal should not leave problems unresolved for a long time. However, a more consultative approach would be ideal so that teachers should be part of the decision-making

and in turn learn how to handle difficult situations from their principals and other capable colleagues.

3.6.3.1 Addressing in-school problems

Principals affect teacher efficacy by addressing in-school problems that fall within their control, such as creating and supporting learner discipline policies (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008:467). In addition, Sharp (2009:24) concurs that principals and teachers need to work collaboratively to solve educational problems. According to Walker and Slear (2011:49-50), teacher efficacy can be enhanced when principals protect teachers from disturbance of or intrusion on their instructional time by ensuring that there is good discipline in the school. This includes limiting announcements and preventing disruptions of classes. Establishing and maintaining good discipline involves several steps that principals can follow (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:55-56):

- a) Make discipline a priority: The principal talks about the need for good discipline at every meeting or assembly and lets parents, teachers and learners know that he or she considers good discipline to be very important.
- b) Support teachers: The principal demonstrates to the staff that he or she supports teachers' efforts to maintain discipline by responding promptly to cases of reported misbehaviour.
- c) Establish a referral system within the school that involves teachers and parents: The principal should thus not attempt to handle all disciplinary issues alone as this can become overbearing. Some problems might take a long time before being attended to or remain unresolved.
- d) Work with parents by keeping them informed and letting them know what behaviour is tolerable and intolerable: This can be done by providing parents with a copy of the school discipline policy.
- e) Practise preventative behaviour: This can be done by identifying situations that are likely to promote misbehaviour and prevent problems before they occur. According to Walker and Slear (2011:50), the principal needs situational awareness which means that he or she is

aware of the details and concerns regarding the functioning of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.

3.6.4 Physical resources strategies

The physical resources or environment of a school has an important influence on the behaviour of teachers (Kruger, 2003:7). For example, it can affect teachers' flexibility in teaching. Thus, it is imperative that principals recognise that the physical environment and the availability of facilities and equipment are essential elements in creating a positive environment for teachers to perform their duties confidently.

An inviting school helps to create pride and ownership in teachers (Frase & Hetzel, 1990:95). Teachers enjoy being in a safe and orderly environment (Frase & Hetzel, 1990:95). Principals can create such an inviting school by ensuring that the school is clean, nicely decorated with the mission of the school, well maintained with fresh paint, clean windows, and cleared of dirt and litter.

The above discussion suggests that principals should view it as one of their important roles to provide teachers with the much needed resources. Experiments cannot be conducted if there are no chemicals and equipment, therefore they should be catered for in the school budgets.

3.6.5 People strategies

The people strategies have influence on teacher efficacy when principals are fair, reward teachers promptly and publicly, use empathy and model certain behaviours.

3.6.5.1 Effects of fair treatment, rewards and punishment on teachers' efficacy

When leaders show fair treatment and have clear rewards and punishments for staff members, subordinates show improved work performance (Cheng, 2013:253). In other words, fair rewards and punishments are positively correlated to teachers' work performance. Clear rewards and punishments can also help with the retention of personnel. It helps employees to believe that there is hope for a workplace without hypocrisy (Cheng, 2013:253). Squelch and Lemmer (1994:84) recommend that rewards or recognition be made as soon as teachers have achieved their goals. In

addition, the rewards must be specific, and principals need to be consistent in rewarding teachers for work well done.

Effective principals convey a sense of certainty that teachers can and do influence learner achievement and that learners are capable of learning (Hipp, 1997:1). These affirmations help to give direction, purpose and meaning to the work done by teachers and give credence to the notion that principals' leadership behaviours do make a difference in increasing the self-belief of teachers (Hipp, 1997:1). Nir and Kranot (2006:205) share a similar view, saying that school principals' leadership style and personal teacher efficacy are directly linked.

Providing contingent rewards: The principal formally and informally recognises outstanding work inside and outside the classroom and shares this recognition in tangible and visible ways.

The above discussion implied that principals should not hold back from praising teachers who have done well. However, the praise must be authentic and honest. There should be no unfair praise as this might mean it is not important to work hard. The possibility is that there are pockets of excellence in every school which need to be noticed and acknowledged by the principal as a way of encouraging other teachers to emulate good practices.

3.6.5.2 Using empathy

The use of empathy and care is considered to be one of the effective methods in dealing with people (Cheng, 2013:252). Having empathy does not mean that a leader agrees with an employee, but rather that the leader understands employees as if he or she were in their shoes (Fullan, 2013:65). Cheng (2013:252) continues to state that empathetic concern on the part of leaders appeals to emotions and has been shown to enhance teacher work performance.

Teachers' sense of efficacy can also be improved when the principal expresses genuine concern for their welfare and makes efforts to get to know each individual. According to Ware and Kitsantas (2011:184), the decline in teacher efficacy is dependent on collaboration and attention from the supervisor, amongst other variables.

The use of empathy requires that the principal should spend some time with the teachers in order to know and understand them better. This will help principals to be in touch with individual teacher issues and where intervention would be required so as to help the teacher to focus better on the work at hand. However, the principal needs to guard against showing too much empathy which can be exploited by some teachers to their own advantage, but to the disadvantage of the school.

3.6.6 Effects of other principal behaviour on teachers' sense of efficacy

Hipp (1996:17) mentions certain behaviours of school principals that also play an important role in the development of teacher efficacy, work satisfaction and job commitment. Behaviours that reinforce and sustain teacher efficacy are as follows: principals model good behaviour, inspire group purpose, recognise teachers' efforts and accomplishments, provide personal and professional support, promote teacher empowerment and decision-making, create a positive climate for success, foster teamwork and collaboration, and encourage innovation and continual growth (Hipp, 1996:17). Such behaviours can be used to promote learner achievement through teacher efficacy, because there is a link between teacher efficacy and learner achievement; moreover, the primary focus of principals' instructional leadership is learner achievement (Hipp, 1996:28).

The above discussion suggests that it is imperative that principals should be aware of their actions all the time and to realise that their behaviours have an influence on teachers. In other words the behaviour of principals should be exemplary to teachers. It would serve little or no purpose for principals to emphasise punctuality whereas they are not around when the school starts.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The discussion presented in this chapter suggests that principals' leadership behaviours could influence teacher efficacy. Principals' leadership behaviours seem to have an impact on the self-beliefs of teachers, their self-confidence and self-worth. It is apparent from the discussion that a transformational school leader can enhance followers' efficacy beliefs by, *inter alia*, emphasising messages that are visionary, inspirational and display confidence in employees. By empowering

and being supportive to teachers, transformational leaders can assist teachers to believe more in their capabilities, which may result in teachers persisting during difficult times and making extra effort in their work. Empowered and supported teachers may focus more on their quality of teaching as opposed to focusing on external factors (such as poverty) that impact learners, which are beyond teachers' control. As instructional leaders, principals affect the self-beliefs of teachers through how they address teachers, manage the curriculum and monitor and supervise teachers.

3.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Principals require positive leadership strategies so that they can influence their teachers' self-belief. Through their leadership strategies principals can influence teachers to stay longer in the profession because the leadership strategies of principals have an impact on teachers' job satisfaction, their efforts and commitment. So, South African teachers can benefit from such positive leadership strategies. South African teachers are exposed to a lot of criticism, unsafe schools, community protests which disrupt teaching and learning, sometimes difficult learners and pressure to perform. Thus they would benefit from leadership strategies that give them confidence and certainty that their teaching can and do have an influence on learner achievement. The next chapter, chapter 4 deals with research design and methodology for the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous two chapters focused on the literature on the nature of teacher efficacy and principals' leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy, respectively. Chapter 2 dealt with the nature of teacher efficacy, theoretical perspectives on efficacy development, sources of self-efficacy, teaching practices related to teacher efficacy, teacher efficacy and motivation, teacher efficacy and learner achievement, correlates of self-efficacy and the nature of teacher motivation. Chapter 3 focused on the influence of principal leadership strategies on teacher efficacy. The actions of teachers with higher efficacy levels and teachers with low efficacy levels were also discussed in chapter 3. This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology used to investigate leadership strategies that principals use to optimise teacher efficacy.

4.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The main aim of this research was to develop or propose leadership strategies to assist principals to optimise teacher efficacy in township and rural schools in a district of the North West province.

The objectives of this research were as follows:

- i. to explain the nature of teacher efficacy;
- ii. to determine the views of teachers and principals with regard to leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy;
- iii. to substantiate what leadership strategies could be used by principals to optimise teacher efficacy.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.3.1 Research design

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001:166), a research design refers to a plan for selecting subjects, research sites and data collection procedures so as to answer the research question(s). The research design shows what individuals would be studied, when, where and under which circumstances they would be studied (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:166). Mouton (2001:55) expresses a similar view, saying that a research design is a plan or blueprint of how a researcher intends to conduct the research. The research design encompasses a strategic view of the research and the techniques intended to be used to collect data (Trafford & Leshem, 2010:93). In other words, a research design describes the procedures to be followed for conducting the study, including what happens to the subjects, who are the subjects, when the research will be conducted, and what methods of data collection will be used.

The goal of a sound research design is to provide results that are deemed as credible (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:102). Credibility refers to the extent to which the results approximate reality and are judged to be accurate, trustworthy and reasonable (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:102). A quantitative mode of inquiry was used in this study as numbers were used to report the results. Quantitative research has its roots in positivism, which is defined as the epistemological doctrine that physical and social reality is independent of those who observe it and that observations of this reality, if unbiased, constitute scientific knowledge (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005:83). Quantitative research has three main characteristics: reliability, validity, and generalisability (Durrheim & Painter, 2010:132). In addition, a quantitative mode of inquiry aims to provide the most valid and accurate answers possible to the research questions through the use of statistical analysis to describe, compare and attribute causality (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:31; Hittleman & Simon, 2002:27). Thus, this research design showed the type of data sought by the researcher in this study, the sources from which the data were sought (i.e. teachers and principals from township and rural schools) and how the data were accessed and collected (Trafford & Leshem, 2010:90).

4.3.2 Methodology

4.3.2.1 Research instrument: questionnaire as a research instrument

A questionnaire is defined as a printed or electronic list of questions that is distributed to a selected group of people who respond to the same set of questions or statements in an order predetermined by the researcher (Anderson, 2000:166). There are two types of questionnaires, namely closed, which is structured, and an open questionnaire, which is unstructured. In a closed questionnaire, respondents choose between predetermined responses, while in an open questionnaire, respondents respond in an unrestricted manner (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:260-261). The former calls for brief responses, is easy to fill out and takes little time to complete, whereas the latter calls for free responses and requires greater effort because respondents should use their own words (Best & Kahn, 2003:301-302).

A structured questionnaire (Appendix G) was designed for this research with the assistance of the experts of the Faculty of the Education Management and Leadership of the North-West University. The questionnaire was preferred for this research because respondents could respond to the items more quickly and without direct supervision of the researcher. Secondly, the structured form was chosen because respondents (in this case, teachers and principals) had to perform other time-consuming administrative duties. Thus, this decision was made not to take too much of respondents' teaching time. Other reasons why this form was chosen included the following: as a commonly used research technique, the questionnaire could assist the researcher to cover a wide spectrum of subjects. Furthermore, if properly constructed, a questionnaire serves as a reliable data collection method (Mouton, 2006:67).

4.3.2.2 Advantages of the questionnaire

For this study, the use of the questionnaire as data collection method suited the researcher better. This was because a lot of data could be collected in a short period of time, covering a wide geographical area (Schmuck, 2006:47). Secondly, respondents needed little assistance from the researcher because they consisted of teachers and principals who could complete the questionnaire by simply following the directives on the questionnaire itself (Warwick & Chaplain,

2013:71). Thirdly, a questionnaire was selected for the purpose of this study because it is most widely used as a research technique to obtain information from several respondents (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:257).

The questionnaire used in this study had a closed form, which means respondents chose between predetermined responses. This is also called structured-, selected- or closed-ended responses (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:197). Other advantages of a questionnaire as a research instrument include the following (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:257; Best & Kahn, 2003:301):

- if administered personally, the researcher has an opportunity to establish rapport with the respondents;
- to explain the purpose of the study and unclear items;
- it is relatively economical in terms of time and expense;
- it carries the same questions for all respondents;
- it can ensure anonymity,
- respondents respond to something written for a specific purpose.

4.3.2.3 Disadvantages of the questionnaire

The use of a questionnaire as a research instrument has numerous disadvantages that should not be ignored. Several of these disadvantages are as follows (Tuckman, 1994:229; Anderson, 2000:168-169):

- the researcher cannot probe for more information;
- the researcher has little control over who actually answers the questionnaire once it is out of his or her hands;
- the response rate can be low;
- questionnaires are restricted to people who can read and write,
- respondents have little or no opportunity to ask the researcher questions or to clear up any misunderstandings and consequently, respondents may misinterpret items on the survey;

- the researcher must make follow-ups on unreturned questionnaires, which can be time consuming and hold financial implications;
- some respondents may give misleading answers or fail to respond to all the questions.

4.3.2.4 Construction of the questionnaire

A newly designed questionnaire was used so as to cover the literature study (chapters 2 and 3). The existing questionnaire called Teacher Beliefs (TSES) did not fully cover the aspects the researcher wanted to examine. The questionnaire consisted of three sections. Section A consisted of the biographical data of the respondents. Section B consisted of the demographic data of the respondents, but this section was supposed to be completed by principals only, as principals carry more information about the demographic data of the school as compared to teachers. So, the aim was to obtain as much accurate information as possible about the demographics of each school. However, despite this clear instruction on the questionnaire, that Section B should be completed by principals only, some teachers completed this section. Section C consisted of 50 items that focused on the sources of teacher efficacy and leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy.

The questionnaire had a Likert-type rating scale whereby a decision was made to use the 5 point scale. Respondents were asked to indicate their view about each of the questions by marking anyone of the responses ranging from (1) "Not at all" to "A great deal" (5). The internal reliability of the questionnaire was measured through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha is used to measure the internal reliability of an instrument (Pietersen & Maree, 2012b:216). If the measured items correlate strongly with each other, their internal consistency is high. In the questionnaire, respondents were requested to respond to a set of structured questions in writing and not verbally.

In addition, the questionnaire as a research instrument was carefully selected, considering the following characteristics of a good questionnaire (Best & Kahn, 2003:307):

- the questionnaire should be brief and focus on essential data;

- it should be neat, attractively laid out and clearly printed;
- the questions should be easy to respond to;
- each question should deal with one specific idea only;
- items and pages should be numbered;
- the questions should follow a logical sequence.

4.3.2.5 Structure of the questionnaire

The questionnaire in this study required principals and teachers to respond to 61 items. The questionnaire consisted of three sections, namely:

- Section A: biographical data
- Section B: Demographic data (to be completed by principals only)
- Section C: Sources of teacher efficacy leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy

4.3.2.6 Distribution of the questionnaire and administrative procedures

A letter requesting permission to conduct research was sent to the Superintendent-General of Basic Education and Sport Development in the North West province. A copy of this letter together with the response of the Superintendent-General was submitted to the district director of the identified district before the researcher could proceed to the selected schools.

The researcher chose to deliver the questionnaires to selected schools personally. Firstly, this was done in order to ensure a good return of responses as well as to establish relationships with respondents where possible. Secondly, the return rate for a mailed questionnaire is 50% or less (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:198). Thirdly, mailing the questionnaires to respondents would take time before they receive them, and it would again take time for mailed responses to reach the researcher. Fourthly, to send reminders for unreturned responses would cost additional money and time.

During each visit to the schools, the researcher would request to meet with the principal or the deputy principal to present a letter of permission for research and to explain the purpose of the visit. It was important to secure the co-operation of school managers to give them a reason to want to respond and to offer the results of the study if they wish it in return for the time and courtesy of responding to the questions. An arrangement was also made by the researcher with the school managers to return to the school after three days to collect the completed questionnaires.

The questionnaires were collected after three days. This was done to respect teaching time and to give the respondents time to complete the questionnaires during their spare time and not during teaching time. Therefore, the respondents were not pressured to complete the questionnaires immediately because that may have resulted in hasty or incomplete responses.

However, the research was not without its difficulties. Despite attempts by the researcher to ensure a maximum and timely response, some teachers had not completed the questionnaires by the time the researcher arrived at their schools. Others claimed that they had just started filling the questionnaire when the researcher arrived. The researcher consequently waited for some time for the teachers to complete the questionnaires. Many principals also did not complete theirs, citing a busy schedule, which included submission, workshops, ill-discipline cases and meetings.

Another difficulty the researcher encountered was that some teachers who had been given questionnaires to complete were either absent or attending peer-support forums on the day of collection. Some teachers claimed to have forgotten the questionnaires at home, whilst a few were said to be on sick leave. Others claimed that they misplaced the questionnaire after completing it.

4.3.2.7 Reliability of the research instrument

Reliability (dependability) is the extent to which a measure yields similar results across different times, groups of people or versions (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009:63). A reliable measure is reproducible and precise (Fink, 2008:188). This means reliability is an indication of consistency or similarity when the same instrument is applied on two occasions or whether the same instrument is

administered by two different people (Gray, 2009:158). For example, when a person undertakes an intelligence test several times and the test produces similar intelligence scores each time, the test is deemed to have high reliability (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009:63). Thus, a reliable instrument is expected to yield the same results when something was measured yesterday and again today provided the underlying traits being measured have not changed.

Three procedures are used to establish consistency, namely: test-retest procedure; equivalent form procedure; and split-half reliability (Tolmie, Muijs & Mcateer, 2011:146). During test-retest, the same test is administered to the same people on two separate occasions with a time interval in between. If the test is reliable, the scores should be highly correlated, which means scores should be more or less the same on both occasions. However, having seen the items before may influence how individuals deal with them, which may deflate the measure of reliability. To counter this, the equivalent form procedure was developed with two slightly different approaches. In the alternate forms procedure, two separate sets of items with the same characteristics are chosen from the original item pool and administered on two separate occasions. In the parallel forms version, two separate tests are constructed from the outset. Both tests are designed to produce the same distribution of scores. Individual scores across the two tests should be highly correlated if reliability is good. Furthermore, split-half reliability requires the researcher to divide a measure into two equal halves – for example, choosing all odd-numbered questions to be in the first half and even-numbered questions to be in the second half. The researcher then calculates the correlation between the two halves (Fink, 2008:350; Tolmie et al., 2011:147).

Cronbach's alpha is the most common way of assessing the reliability of an instrument (Tolmie *et al.*, 2011:147). Cronbach's alpha reflects the extent to which a set of test items can be treated as measuring a single latent variable (Fink, 2008:191). Latent variables are those variables that cannot be directly observed but are inferred from other variables that can be observed and directly measured. Examples of latent variables include, *inter alia*, attitudes toward school, self-efficacy, and quality of life. Cronbach's alpha can range from 0 and 1. A measure with an alpha .61 and above is considered to be internally consistent (Fink, 2008:191).

4.3.2.8 Validity of the research instrument

Validity refers to the degree to which data in a research study are accurate and credible (Gray, 2009:582). Vogt (2007:117) agrees that validity refers to the truth or accuracy of the research. Validity means the relevance of the measure being investigated, or the appropriateness of the design or measure for coming to accurate conclusions (Vogt, 2007:118). Validity can also refer to the degree to which the research conclusions are sound (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2006:147). Thus, a valid research design tells researchers what they want to know about their respondents. For example, do the survey questions truly inquire about the beliefs, attitudes or opinions that the researcher wishes to study? (Vogt, 2007:118).

There are three aspects of validity, namely: measurement validity; generalisability; and causal validity (Check & Schutt, 2012:38). Measurement validity refers to the process of linking abstract concepts to empirical indicants (Check & Schutt, 2012:392). Van der Riet and Durrheim (2006:147) view measurement validity as the extent to which the constructs in the research question are successfully operationalised. This means the degree to which a measure or instrument does what it is intended to do. Generalisability or representativeness relates to whether the findings are likely to have broader applicability beyond the focus of a particular study (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010:245). Another term for generalisability is external validity. In other words, are the findings of the research of any relevance beyond the group of respondents? Causal validity or internal validity refers to the extent to which changes in the dependent variable can be attributed to the independent variable rather than to an extraneous or unrelated variable (Gray, 2009:577). The ability to make accurate inferences about a programme's outcomes and effectiveness is called internal validity (Programme A caused Outcome A) (Fink, 2008:128).

Although validity and reliability are discussed separately here, research instruments need to be both valid and reliable (Gray, 2009:161).

4.3.3 Study population and sample

4.3.3.1 Study population

A population refers to a group of elements, individuals, objects or events that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalise the research results (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010:129). Population can also be referred to as the universe or target population. As a group of individuals or organisations, the target population has some common defining characteristics that can be identified and studied (Creswell, 2008:152). In this study, the target population consisted of teachers and principals of township and rural schools in the North West province. At the time of this study, the province was divided into four education districts. However, because of the vastness of the province, only one district that was closer to the researcher was selected in order to save time and reduce travelling costs.

4.3.3.2 Sample

For this study, simple random sampling was used. A sample is a group of subjects or respondents from whom the data are collected (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010:129). The sample can be selected from a larger group of persons identified as the population. From the district chosen, a total of 40 schools were randomly selected. Twenty-five (25) schools were primary schools and 15 were secondary schools, as there were more primary schools in one area than secondary schools.

A list of primary and secondary schools was sought from the district identified. Thereafter, a stratified, systematic, random sample of the schools was drawn (Best & Kahn, 2006:13). This stratified, systematic random sampling method was used because each township and rural school in a district had an equal chance of being selected. The method is also less sophisticated (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:207).

From the 40 schools, 8 respondents (the principal and seven teachers) per school were asked to complete the questionnaire. Therefore, the total sample consisted of approximately 320 respondents (n=320).

4.3.4 Response rate

A response return rate refers to the percentage of questionnaires respondents return to the researcher (Creswell, 2008:402). A high response rate creates a stronger claim in generalising results from the sample to the population (Creswell, 2008:402). The researcher can apply several strategies to encourage respondents to return completed questionnaires (Creswell, 2008:403):

- ensuring that the problem under study is of interest to the population under study. If individuals in the population are interested in the issue being investigated, they are more likely to complete the survey;
- a brief instrument encourages high return rate;
- pre-notifying respondents in a letter asking them to participate in the study;
- using follow-up procedures.

4.4 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study is a preliminary study on a small sample that helps to identify potential problems with the research instrument (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2006:94). This means piloting occurs before the researcher spends time and expense to collect data (Brown, McDowell & Race, 1995:18). It enables the researcher to test the method of data collection, in this case, the questionnaire (Appendix G). Piloting helps to eliminate or reduce questions that are likely to mislead (Gray, 2009:340). In addition, research costs money and therefore it is a good idea to test an instrument before implementing it and incurring large unnecessary expenditures.

All three sections of the questionnaire were piloted. A pilot questionnaire was administered to a group of teachers and principals who worked in schools situated in township and rural areas. The schools that were selected for the pilot study were similar to the ones sampled in the study.

4.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is about conducting oneself with honesty and integrity (Stutchbury, 2013:91). Researchers must act within the confines of the law to ensure that they have sufficient data to draw conclusions,

report the evidence accurately and are open about assumptions and the limitations of the conclusions. Most educational research deals with human beings and therefore it is imperative for the researcher to understand and be fully aware of the ethical and legal responsibilities of conducting research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:117). This means there is a need for the researcher to protect the rights and welfare of respondents in the study. For example, when research is conducted in an educational setting, it is necessary to obtain permission from the principal (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005:450).

4.5.1 Full disclosure

The researcher should generally be open and honest with respondents about all aspects of the study that they participate in (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:117). This involves a full disclosure of the purpose of the research, but there are some circumstances where withholding information about the research or deceiving respondents may be justified (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:117). Withholding information means that respondents are informed about only a part of the purpose of the research. This is possible where full disclosure would seriously affect the validity of the results. In this study, there was no need to withhold information from the respondents, thus a full disclosure was made concerning the purpose of the study.

4.5.2 Voluntary participation

Participation in this study was strictly voluntary, as the letter of consent indicated (Appendix F). No participant was coerced to complete the questionnaire.

4.5.3 Informed consent

Informed consent was achieved by providing respondents with an explanation of the research, an opportunity to terminate their participation at any time with no penalty, and the risks that may be associated with the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:117). Consent was obtained by asking respondents to sign a form that indicated that they understood the research and thus consented to participate (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005:451). Informed consent also addressed the purposes and procedures of the research. The subjects were informed of the possible duration of the research.

The contact person was clearly indicated on the instrument if any questions arose (Wiersma & Jurs, 2005:451).

For the purpose of this study, a letter asking for permission to conduct research was first sent to the North West Department of Basic Education (Appendix C). This letter sought permission of the authorities to conduct research in schools in North West. A similar letter was addressed to the school governing bodies (Appendix D) and school principals (Appendix E), requesting their permission to conduct research in their schools. This letter was accompanied by an information and consent letter for all the principals who agreed to complete the questionnaires together with the selected teachers (Appendix F).

4.5.4 Confidentiality

Respondents were given the assurance that their responses and the findings of the study would be treated with the utmost confidentiality (Maree & Van der Westhuizen, 2012: 42). Their identities and those of their schools would be protected (Maree & Van der Westhuizen, 2012: 42). They were also informed that the research formed part of the studies of the researcher, thus no information would be disclosed for any other purpose except for the study.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

The retrieved questionnaires were analysed with the professional assistance of the Statistical Consultation Services North-West University (Potchefstroom campus). This analysis was done through the SPSS program, which reflects frequencies, mean scores and standard deviations. The research results were presented in the form of tables that show frequencies, mean scores and standard deviations. The usual statistical techniques assumed that data were independent. In this study, it was assumed that respondents from each school were dependent with regard to the leadership style of the principal and therefore hierarchical linear models that took this dependence into account were used to identify differences between the views of respondents from primary schools and secondary schools, township and rural schools, male versus female, and teachers versus school principals.

Descriptive statistics was used to summarise the numerical data that were collected (i.e. means, medians, frequency distributions, standard deviations). The inferential statistical technique (hierarchical linear models) was used to compare the results and to analyse differences with regard to teacher efficacy in primary and secondary schools, township and rural schools.

4.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher encountered problems with regard to the response time and rate, despite all the attempts to ensure a maximum and timely response. One of the problems encountered was that some teachers and principals, mostly, had not completed the questionnaires by the time the researcher arrived at their schools. Others could not locate the questionnaires immediately. So, collection at some schools was minimal, with half of the distributed questionnaires retrieved.

As indicated earlier, most principals did not complete the questionnaire because of various reasons. Their reasons for not completing the questionnaire included, *inter alia*, the following: they were too busy with meetings, they had forgotten to complete the questionnaire, or they misplaced the questionnaire. Some principals were not available during collection due to other commitments or sickness. This poor response from principals made it difficult to compare the views of teachers and principals during data analysis.

The study required teachers to evaluate the leadership activities of principals. There was a possibility of some respondents being in favour of the principal, which could have led to a more positive evaluation. In cases where the teacher was not in good terms with the principal, it could have led to a negative evaluation of the principal's leadership activities. In addition, principals had to evaluate their own activities. This could have led to a more positive response or no response at all as is indicated by the low response of principals.

A further limitation of the study was that it was a purely quantitative in nature. A qualitative study could have provided more insight into the leadership activities of principals. This excluded the

everyday experiences that teachers had in their working environments with regard to the leadership activities of their principal.

Another limitation of the study was that the quantitative study provided for a limited number of respondents. Consequently, the limited number of respondents might have given a limited view of the underlying associations of principals' leadership activities.

4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the aim and objectives of the research were recapped, and the research design and methodology of the study were explained. The advantages, disadvantages, construction, structure and distribution of the questionnaire as the research instrument were discussed. This was followed by a discussion on the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The study population, the pilot study and ethical considerations were also discussed. The method of data analysis was discussed and, finally, the limitations of the study were highlighted. The next chapter, chapter 5 deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data gathered by means of a questionnaire.

4.9. Concluding remarks

Based on chapter 4, it was concluded to draw up a new structured questionnaire because the existing questionnaires on teacher efficacy did not exactly cover what was intended, which was to develop or suggest leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy in township and rural schools. It was concluded to undertake a pilot study as a preliminary study to identify potential problems with the research instrument. The ethical and legal responsibilities of conducting research were given due attention. After gathering data the results were presented and analysed in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter was to present, analyse and interpret the data gathered by means of questionnaires distributed to teachers and principals of primary and secondary schools in a district of the North West province. Chapter 4 focused on the research design and methodology which were used to gather data through a questionnaire. The discussion in chapter 5 started with an analysis of the biographical information of respondents, in this case, teachers and principals, respectively. The demographic information of respondents was discussed. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were discussed, thereafter the findings that emerged from the data analysis of Section C of the questionnaire were presented by means of frequencies, means and percentages. Correlations and effect sizes were also discussed.

5.2 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

This section presented the biographical information of respondents occupying post levels 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. Frequencies, percentages and the mean were used to explain the biographical information of respondents (Tables 5.1 to 5.3). These responses were based on Section A of the questionnaire, which consisted of items A1 to A8. The statistics in the tables are used to summarise and describe large sets of data gathered for the study.

5.2.1 Gender

It was evident from Table 5.1 that 54.0% of the respondents were female, whilst 44.3% were male. It could be derived from Table 5.1 that there were more female respondents than males. It may also suggest that there were more female teachers than males in the sampled schools. Another possibility could be that some of the male teachers chose not to complete the questionnaires. However, determining the numbers of male and female teachers was not an essential part of this study.

Table 5.1: Gender (A1)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Male	105	44.3	45.1	45.1
	2 Female	128	54.0	54.9	100.0
	Total	233	98.3	100.0	
Missing		4	1.7		
Total		237	100.0		

5.2.2 Age

Table 5.2 indicated the age categories of the respondents. The ages of most of the respondents ranged from 40 to 49 years (37.1%).

Table 5.1:Age in completed years (A2)

Age category	Frequency	Percent
20 - 29	51	25.2
30 - 39	24	11.8
40 - 49	75	37.1
50 - 59	49	24.2
60+	3	1.4
Total	202	

Table 5.2:Minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of the respondents' ages

On the other hand, Table 5.3 below showed the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of the respondents' ages: the ages of the respondents ranged from 20 (min) to 61 (max) years. The average age of respondents was between 40 and 41 (40.90). However, out of the number of respondents (n=237) (Table 5.1), 35 respondents did not complete A2 on the questionnaire, possibly opting not to disclose their ages.

N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard deviation
202	20	61	40.90	11.16

5.2.3 Home language

The most common home language of the respondents was Setswana (68.8%) (Table 5.4).

This was not surprising as the research was conducted in an area where Setswana as home language dominates. There were no respondents who spoke the other three home languages, namely Siswati, Tshivenda, and Xitsonga. Table 5.1: Home language (A3)

The purpose of Table 5.4. was to indicate responses according to home language of the respondents.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Afrikaans	8	3.4	3.5	3.5
	2 English	6	2.5	2.6	6.1
	4 isiXhosa	13	5.5	5.7	11.7
	5 isiZulu	7	3.0	3.0	14.8
	6 Sepedi	3	1.3	1.3	16.1
	7 Sesotho	29	12.2	12.6	28.7
	8 Setswana	163	68.8	70.9	99.6
	12 Other (foreign language)	1	0.4	0.4	100.0
	Total	230	97.0	100.0	
Missing		7	3.0		
Total		237	100.0		

According to Table 5.4 the dominant home language of the respondents was Setswana. This could be attributed to the fact the district under research was BaTswana dominated.

5.2.4 Teaching experience

Table 5.5 presented the teaching experience of respondents in years.

Table 5.1: Teaching experience in years (A4)

Teaching experience in years category	Frequency	Percent
0 – 10	90	43.2
11 – 20	41	19.7
21 – 30	65	31.2
31 – 40	12	5.7
41 - 50	0	0
Total	208	

Table 5.5 showed that most of the respondents (43.2%) had 0 to 10 years of teaching experience. This could augur well for the future of the teaching profession because it suggests that there are still people entering the profession and staying for up to ten years or more. Very few respondents had 31-40 years of teaching experience. This could suggest that teachers do not stay until full retirement in the profession or they joined the profession later in their lives.

Table 5.2: Average number of teaching years of respondents

N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard deviation
208	0	38	14.43	10.59

Table 5.6 presented the respondents' average number of teaching years, which were 14 years. This suggested that the experience of the teachers put them in a good position to operate with confidence, which is an element of teacher efficacy. Twenty-nine (29) responses were omitted because the respondents chose not to complete this part of the questionnaire.

5.2.5 Current post level

Table 5.7 presented the current post levels occupied by respondents.

Table 5.1: Current post level (A5)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Educator (PL 1)	169	71.3	74.4	74.4
	2 Head of department (PL	37	15.6	16.3	90.7

2)				
3 Deputy principal (PL 3)	17	7.2	7.5	98.2
4 Principal (PL 4)	3	1.3	1.3	99.6
5 Principal (PL 5)	1	0.4	0.4	100.0
Total	227	95.8	100.0	
Missing	10	4.2		
Total	237	100.0		

It was evident from Table 5.7 that few principals returned the questionnaire. Thus, a decision was made that the responses of principals be combined with those of the deputy principals for effect size analysis. However, it needs to be noted that the responsibilities of principals are not the same as those of deputy principals. Thus, the low response rate of principals was regarded as the limitation of the study as their views could not be compared with those of teachers (par 4.7).

5.2.6 Number of years in present position

The average number of years in their present position was 9 (Tables 5.8 & 5.9). This implied that most of the respondents had close to 10 years of experience in their positions. This augurs well for teacher efficacy because mastery of work helps to build self-belief, which is an essential element of efficacy.

Table 5.1: Number of years in present position (A6)

Number of years in present position	Frequency	Percent
0 – 10	143	67.1
11 – 20	30	14.0
21 – 30	37	17.3
31 – 40	3	1.4
41 – 50	0	0
Total	213	

Table 5.2: Minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of number of years in current position

Table 5.9 presented the minimum, maximum mean and standard deviation of number of years of respondents in current position. The maximum number of years was 32 which could be an indication of commitment to the teaching profession.

N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard deviation
213	0	32	9.30	8.75

5.2.7 Highest qualification

Table 5.10 showed that 27.8% of the respondents had three years of teacher training. This was followed by 27.4% with a bachelor's degree. Twenty-six percent (26.2%) of the respondents indicated that they had a BEd honour's degree. Respondents with an Advanced Certificate in Education formed 8.9% of the respondents. Those with a two-year training certificate formed 5.5% of the group. Only 1.3% of the respondents indicated that they held a master's degree. No respondent held a PhD degree. This was an indication that the majority of the respondents had the required minimum qualifications to practise as educators, which is a three-year teacher training diploma. It was also noticeable that those with a BEd Honours degree made up 26.2% of the respondents. This was a good number, which implies that a good number of the respondents felt confident that they were well qualified, which, in turn, augurs well for optimising their efficacy.

Table 5.1: Highest qualification (A7)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Teachers certificate (2 years training)	13	5.5	5.7	5.7
	2 Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE)	21	8.9	9.1	14.8
	3 Teachers Diploma (3 years training)	66	27.8	28.7	43.5
	4 Bachelor's degree	65	27.4	28.3	71.7
	5 Honour's degree/BEd Honours	62	26.2	27.0	98.7

	6 Master's degree	3	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	230	97.0	100.0	
Missing		7	3.0		
Total		237	100.0		

5.3 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

Tables 5.11 to 5.15 presented the demographic information of respondents, which were reported by means of frequencies and percentages. The demographic information was briefly discussed below each table. The aim was to provide more information about the school location, school type, number of teachers in the school, number of learners in the school, as well as the school's quintile ranking.

5.3.1 School location

Table 5.11 showed that 38.0% of the respondents worked in schools situated in townships (former Black, Coloured or Indian). The table further showed that 17.3% of the respondents worked in village schools, while 10.1% worked in farm schools. This was an indication that the majority of the respondents worked in township schools, whereas the least number of respondents worked in farm schools.

Table 5.1: School location (B1)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Farm	24	10.1	15.5	15.5
	2 Village	41	17.3	26.5	41.9
	3 Township (former Black, Coloured or Indian)	90	38.0	58.1	100.0
	Total	155	65.4	100.0	

Missing	82	34.6		
Total	237	100.0		

5.3.2 School type

According to Table 5.12, 36.3% of the respondents worked in primary schools. This was followed by 21.5% of the respondents who worked in secondary schools. The least number of respondents (7.6%) worked in combined schools, which meant that both primary and secondary school learners attended the same school. This was an indication that combined schools still exist despite the efforts of Department of Basic Education to have schools classified as either primary or secondary schools.

Table 5.1: School type (B2)

Table 5.12 presented the responses according to school type, primary, combined and secondary schools. The majority of respondents came from primary schools. This was because more primary schools were selected than secondary schools. To be precise, 25 primaries were selected as compared to 15 secondary schools. Combined schools had primary and secondary learners in one school.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Primary	86	36.3	55.5	55.5
	2 Combined	18	7.6	11.6	67.1
	3 Secondary	51	21.5	32.9	100.0
	Total	155	65.4	100.0	
Missing		82	34.6		
Total		237	100.0		

5.3.3 Number of teachers in the school

The majority of the respondents (23.2%) were from schools that comprised of more than 30 teachers (Table 5.13).

Table 5.1: Number of teachers in the school (B3)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1. 1-10	33	13.9	21.9	21.9
	2. 11-20	22	9.3	14.6	36.4
	3. 21-30	41	17.3	27.2	63.6
	4. 31+	55	23.2	36.4	100.0
	Total	151	63.7	100.0	
Missing		86	36.3		
Total		237	100.0		

5.3.4 Number of learners in the school

First, it was evident from Table 5.14 that 24.9% of the respondents worked in schools that had more than a thousand (1 001+) learners. Second, 9.7% of the respondents worked in schools that had 401 to 600 learners. Third, 8.0% of the respondents worked in schools that had 601 to 800 learners. Fourth, 7.6% of the respondents worked in schools that had 201 to 400 learners. Fifth, 6.8% of the respondents worked in schools that had 1 to 200 learners. Lastly, 5.5% of the respondents worked in schools with 801 to 1 000 learners.

Table 5.1: Number of learners in the school (B4)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 0-200	16	6.8	10.8	10.8
	2 201-400	18	7.6	12.2	23.0
	3 401-600	23	9.7	15.5	38.5
	4 601-800	19	8.0	12.8	51.4
	5 801-1 000	13	5.5	8.8	60.1
	6 1 001+	59	24.9	39.9	100.0
	Total		148	62.4	100.0
Missing	System	89	37.6		

Total	237	100.0		
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5.3.5 School quintile ranking

The quintile ranking (1 to 5) of a school indicated the poverty level or socio-economic conditions in which the school existed. Schools were ranked from 1 to 5, with 1 being the poorest. Schools that were ranked quintiles 1 to 3 were regarded as no-fee schools. Table 5.15 showed that 35.0% of the respondents worked in quintile 1 schools. This was followed by 16.0% of the respondents, who worked in quintile 3 schools, while 4.2% of the respondents worked in quintile 2 schools. The least number of respondents (3.0%) worked in quintile 4 schools. There was no response to the quintile 5 column, which represented schools from more affluent areas because such schools were not part of the sample. It could be inferred from Table 5.15 that the majority of the respondents worked in schools classified as quintile 1 schools. Quintile 1, 2 and 3 (no-fee schools) depended mainly on the allocated funds from the Department of Basic Education. The Department of Basic Education allocates funds annually to such schools when the schools are situated in poorer communities. This means the socio-economic conditions of the community in which a school was located determined to a large extent whether the school would be classified as a quintile 1, 2 or 3 school.

Table 5.1: School quintile ranking (B5)

Frequency number of teachers per Quintile		Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 Q1	83	35.0	60.1
	2 Q2	10	4.2	67.4
	3 Q3	38	16.0	94.9
	4 Q4	7	3.0	100.0
	Total	138	58.2	100.0
Missing		99	41.8	
Total		237	100.0	

5.3.6 Synthesis

It was possible to summarise the profile of the respondents based on the analysis and interpretation of the biographical and demographic data. The majority of the respondents were female teachers whose home language was mainly Setswana, considering that the research was carried out in a predominantly Setswana-speaking territory. Many of the respondents were inexperienced teachers in post level 1 posts. It was interesting to note that the majority of the respondents were qualified to teach in South African schools. This suggested that, somehow, they had sufficient subject knowledge, which could have led to them becoming more self-confident when teaching. Furthermore, the schools where the majority of the respondents worked were situated in townships and were categorised as quintile 1 schools. Lastly, the majority of the respondents worked in primary schools. This correlated with the target of the population of the research, which was to have more primary school respondents than secondary school respondents. However, it needs to be noted that Section B was supposed to be completed by principals only as the instruction on the questionnaire stipulated. This should account for the varying number of responses. Apparently, teachers ignored the instruction.

5.4 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Validity and reliability are the two main criteria used to measure the quality of a measuring instrument (Punch, 2014). Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it intends or claims to measure (Best & Kahn, 2006). This means the instrument must measure what we want it to measure. On the other hand, reliability basically means consistency (Punch, 2014). To determine the validity and reliability of the questionnaire used in this study, factor analysis was done based on the responses of teachers and principals (n=237). Also, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to determine the reliability of the questionnaire.

5.4.1 Validity of the questionnaire

- **Content validity** entails making a judgement of the degree to which the items in the questionnaire measure or cover the domain of interest (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). In this research, the questionnaire items were constructed according to the literature in

chapters 2 and 3, based on leadership activities of principals. Leadership activities of principals were identified based on the synthesis of chapters 2 and 3. In the questionnaire, leadership activities of principals were linked with teacher efficacy. Thereafter, the questionnaire was submitted to experts in the field of educational management and leadership. In addition, after piloting the questionnaire items, the questionnaire was submitted to statistical analysts. These efforts were made to enhance the content validity of the instrument.

- **Face validity** is a judgement that the items appear to be relevant (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). In this study, feedback from education management experts, statistical analysts and information gathered from a pilot study regarding the instrument (language and understanding of the items) contributed to the face validity of the instrument.
- **Construct validity** refers to the extent to which a measurement can be shown to measure a hypothetical construct (Martella Nelson, Morgan, & Marchand-Martella, 2013). To this effect, an exploratory factor analysis was done in this study to identify correlations among test items in Section C. Factor analysis is used to identify factors or latent variables that underlie observed scores (Martella *et al.*, 2013). Factor analysis is done by means of principal axis factoring as the extraction method and Oblimin rotation with Kaiser normalization. In this study, factor analysis was used to reduce a set of 50 questions or items to a smaller set of 4 factors.

It needs to be noted that the response rate of principals in the study was minimal. Therefore the expected voices of principals were insufficient. However, the matter was handled as mentioned in paragraph 5.2.5.

- **External validity** refers to the generalisability of the results (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The results of this study can be generalised to a similar district where the respondents may have similar characteristics as teachers in township and rural schools of the district this study focused on.

5.4.1.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a statistical procedure in which the relationships among questionnaire items are analysed to determine whether a test is unidimensional or multidimensional (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The aim of factor analysis is to reduce the number of variables by finding the common factors among them (Punch, 2014). Data that correlate are reduced to a smaller number of factors, dimensions or factors. In this study, factor analysis was done by means of the extraction method of principal component analysis and oblimin rotation with Kaisernormalization.

Table 5.1:KMO, Bartlett’s test and correlation matrix for this study

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.968
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	10753.156
	df	1225
	Significance (p-value)	0.000

According to Hatcheson and Sofroniou (1999), Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values higher than 0.9 are excellent. The KMO measure for this study is 0.968 (Table 5.16). As this is above 0.9, it shows that enough data were obtained for factor analysis. Kaiser’s criterion indicates that all factors with a value greater than 1 should be extracted. The Bartlett’s test of Sphericity tests showed a p-value of 0.000, which was less than 0.001, and thus served as an indicator that there was sufficient correlation between the various items for factor analysis. In this study, communality varied from 0.464 (item C4) to 0.786 (item C25) after extraction. Four factors were extracted, which suggests that the test was multidimensional.

Furthermore, Table 5.17 above shows that four factors, explaining 68.4% of the variance in the data, were extracted following Kaiser’s criterion that factors with Eigen values greater than 1 could be extracted because they are considered meaningful factors (Tredoux Smith, 250). Table 5.17 shows that four factors that carried eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted. Factor 1 carried a large eigenvalue of almost 60% (59.5%), which indicated that there was sufficient information to work with 1 factor only. However, by adding the other three factors, we obtained 8% of the information, which gave a clearer distinction of the factors.

Table 5.2: Total variance explained by four factors

Factor	Initial Eigen values		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative
1	29.774	59.548	59.548
2	1.899	3.798	63.347
3	1.451	2.903	66.250
4	1.091	1.091	68.431

Table 5.18 indicates a pattern matrix for the items included in the questionnaire. As indicated earlier in this chapter (par. 5.4.1.3), four factors were determined based on the literature study. In this study, the majority of the items (28) were placed under factor 1 (communication and support). These 28 items had a factor loading greater than 0.3. Seven items were placed under factor 2 (resources). Three items (C27, C36, and C37) were loaded under factor 2 as well as factor 1. However, these items were best interpreted under factor 1. It was noticeable that item 27 had a factor loading of -0.335 under factor 2. Four items were placed under factor 3 (capabilities and abilities) (items 1, 4, 9 and 13). Item 9 was loaded in both factors 2 and 3. However, in terms of the literature, it would be best interpreted under factor 3. Moreover, it carried a factor loading of 0.469 under factor 3 and 0.336 under factor 2. Factor 4 has 5 items (C19, 40, 44, 47, 49). Four of these items (19, 40, 44, 47) were also loaded under factor 1. However, considering the literature, these items would be best interpreted under factor 4 (motivation/encouragement). Item 49 was loaded under factors 2 and 4. Under factor 2, the item carried a factor loading of 0.509 and 0.308 under factor 4. The interpretation of item 49 would best be done under factor 2 because, according to the literature, the school environment forms part of the physical resources of a school.

Table 5.3: Pattern matrix: teachers' and principals' responses

Item	Communication and support (1)	Resources (2)	Capabilities and abilities (3)	Motivation and encouragement (4)
C33 Communicates clearly to teachers.	0.936			
C32 Gives teachers complete details of the message.	0.912			
C31 Communicates verbally in a clear, unambiguous manner to teachers.	0.851			

C29 Communicates with teachers about the school goals.	0.785			
C23 Encourages teachers to try new ideas.	0.783			
C21 Informs teachers about what is going on in the school.	0.772			
C38 Does not criticise individual teachers publicly.	0.769			
C27 Addresses each teacher by surname and title to make them feel valued.	0.755	-0.335		
C22 Encourages teachers to persevere.	0.749			
C34 removes obstacles to effective teaching.	0.737			
C28 Establishes standards of excellence and targets to be achieved by teachers.	0.731			
C35 Sets clear directions for teachers.	0.720			
C36 Respects the decisions made by teachers in sub-committees.	0.717	0.311		
C14 Is visible in the school environment.	0.712			
C30 Distributes circulars, minutes of meetings, agendas and notices to teachers in good time.	0.702			
C39 Helps teachers to think through the obstacles that confront them.	0.692			
C18 Walks around the school to identify possible threats to the safety of teachers.	0.643			
C24 Shows empathy to teachers experiencing emotional problems.	0.642			
C45 Addresses school problems promptly.	0.617			
C20 Recognises the accomplishments of the teachers publicly.	0.609			
C25 Establishes a positive relationship with teachers.	0.601			
C15 Encourages teachers to be free to speak the truth without repercussions or victimisation.	0.596			
C26 Establishes sub-committees to involve teachers in the decision-making processes of the school.	0.593			
C44 Treats teachers with respect.	0.527			0.433
C37 Inspires and supports individual	0.490	0.310		

teachers regularly.				
C40 Encourages positive and collaborative relationships.	0.478			0.361
C47 Protects teaching time from unnecessary disturbances.	0.425			0.410
C19 Shows appreciation to the efforts of the teachers.	0.351			0.330
C50 Is consistent in rewarding teachers who have performed well.		0.615		
C49 Ensures that the school environment is clean.		0.509		0.308
C48 Ensures that the needed resources and facilities are available to teachers.		0.488		
C1 Reallocates teachers whose learners' results are poor to another grade or subject.			0.767	
C13 Supervises and evaluates teachers' work			0.579	
C4 Emphasises teachers' capabilities rather than the difficulty of the task.			0.514	
C9 Encourages teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues.		0.336	0.469	
C3 Attributes the success of teachers to their own teaching capabilities.			0.463	0.340
C8 Distributes work equally and fairly amongst all teachers.		0.358	0.408	
C12 Motivates teachers to attend professional development activities.				0.814
C11 Encourages teachers to participate in establishing school goals.				0.782
C41 Encourages teachers to put more effort in their work.				0.717
C17 Gives teachers feedback that is constructive.				0.633
C7 Encourages teachers to solve problems that are within their reach.				0.578
C5 Expresses faith in teachers' capabilities.				0.573
C43 Encourages teachers to lead sub-committees.	0.354			0.513
C16 Gives teachers a realistic appraisal about their performance.				0.476
C2 Expresses faith in teachers' capabilities.		-0.318	0.468	0.472
C10 Is a role model of values and practices that are important to the	0.373			0.461

school.				
C42 Is seen as trustworthy by teachers.	0.433			0.448
C46 Ensures that there is good discipline in the school.	0.346			0.445
C6 Shows calmness in a stressful situation.				0.330

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.
 Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.
 Rotation converged in 15 iterations.

The factors were determined by giving names, reading and logic, as Table 5.18 indicates. It needs to be noted that items with double loadings were grouped or colour-coded under the factor where they fit best according to the literature or where they carried more load. Items C27, C36 and C37 were colour-coded under factor 1 because they loaded more under factor 1 than under factor 2. Items C9 and C8 were colour-coded under factors 3 because they loaded more under factor 3 than under factor 2. Items C43, C10, C42 and C46 were colour-coded under factor 4 because they loaded more under factor 4 than under factor 1. Item C2 was colour-coded under factor 4 because it loaded more under factor 4 than under factors 2 and 3. Item C49 was colour-coded under factor 2 because it loaded more under factor 2 than under factor 4. Item C9 was colour-coded under factor 3 because it loaded more under factor 3 than under factor 2. Item C3 was colour-coded under factor 3 because it loaded more under factor 3 than under factor 4.

Table 5.19 identifies the four factors based on the pattern matrix, namely: communication and support; resources; capabilities and abilities; and motivation and encouragement.

Table 5.4: Items per factor

Items/Questions	Number of factors	Factor
14,15,18, 2021,22,23,24,25,26,27,28,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,37,38,39,45	1	Communication and support
48,49,50	2	Resources
1,3,4,8,9,13	3	Capabilities and abilities
2,5,6,7,10,11,12,16,17, 19, 40,41,42,43,44, 46,47	4	Motivation and encouragement

A factor correlation matrix gives an indication of the extent to which various factors correlate with one another. Table 5.20 indicates the correlation matrix for the factors used in this study.

Table 5.5: Factor correlation matrix

Factor	Communication and support	Resources	Capabilities and abilities	Motivation and encouragement
Communication and support	1.00	0.30	0.54	0.78
Resources	0.30	1.00	0.19	0.25
Capabilities and abilities	0.54	0.19	1.00	0.43
Motivation and encouragement	0.78	0.25	0.43	1.00

The following scale was used to determine correlations: 0.1, small correlation; 0.3, medium correlation; and 0.5 strong correlation. Table 5.20 shows that there was a strong correlation between factor 1 (communication and support), factor 3 (capabilities and abilities) and factor 4 (motivation and encouragement). The factor of resources (factor 2) had a small correlation with the other three factors. The resources factor had a p-value of ≤ 0.3 when compared with factors 1, 3 and 4, respectively (Table 5.20). Capabilities and abilities had a medium correlation with motivation and encouragement (0.43). The strongest correlation existed between communication and support and motivation and encouragement (0.73).

When the items have a strong correlation with each other, it means their internal consistency or internal reliability is high and the alpha coefficient will be close to one. If the items do not correlate strongly, the alpha coefficient will be close to zero, which means the items are poorly formulated (Pietersen & Maree, 2012b:216).

5.4.2 Reliability of the questionnaire

This section provides a brief description of how the reliability of the questionnaire was ensured. Reliability refers to the degree of consistency that the instrument demonstrates (Best & Kahn, 2006:289). This means the instrument must be consistent in yielding similar results across different

instances. Reliability helps to determine the extent to which measures are free of error. An instrument that has little error is reliable, unlike one that has numerous errors. The latter is unreliable. In other words, the results must be consistent if the questionnaire is administered many times and at different times. There are two main aspects to consistency, namely consistency over time (stability) and internal consistency (Punch, 2014:237). Consistency over time or stability means: if the same instrument is given to the same people under the same circumstances, but at a different time, to what extent would they obtain the same scores? On the other hand, internal consistency is concerned with the extent to which the items are consistent with each other or working in the same direction (Punch, 2014:238).

In order to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire used in this study, Cronbach's alpha was calculated on the four factors. Cronbach's alpha for the identified factors are tabulated below (Table 5.21).

Table 5.1: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for identified factors

Items/Questions	Factor number	Factor	Cronbach's alpha coefficient
14,15,18, 2021,22,23,24,25,26,27,28,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,37,38,39,45	1	Communication and support	0.98
48,49,50	2	Resources	0.81
1,3,4,8,9,13	3	Capabilities and abilities	0.79
2,5,6,7,10,11,12,16,17,19,40,41,42,43,44,46,47	4	Motivation and encouragement	0.96

According to Martella *et al.* (2013), reliability coefficients vary between values of 0.00 and 1.00, with 1.00 indicating perfect reliability and 0.00 indicating no reliability. In addition, Martella *et al.* (2013) state that reliability coefficients of 0.70 or above are usually considered respectable. In Table 5.18, Cronbach's alpha for all four factors is 0.79 (lowest, factor 3) or higher, the highest being factor 1 with 0.98 coefficient. Therefore, the questionnaire can be regarded as reliable. In this study, factor 1 (communication and support) showed a higher alpha coefficient of 0.98, whilst

factor 3 (capabilities and abilities) showed the lowest coefficient of 0.79. This could indicate that the respondents believed that principals placed more significance on communication and support.

5.4.3 Synthesis

The above sections discussed the biographical and demographic information of the respondents. This contributed to compiling the respondent profile. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were determined. Validity was determined through factor analysis. The reliability of the questionnaire was determined through Cronbach's alpha. The results showed that the questionnaire used for this research was valid and reliable.

5.5 FREQUENCY ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES TO ITEMS IN SECTION C OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 5.22 indicates the ranking of factors for the leadership strategies that principals apply. Following the mean scores of the factors, the factor of motivation and encouragement was the highest with a mean score of 4.29. The factor of communication and support followed and ranked number 2 with a mean of 4.25. The resources factor was ranked number 3 with a mean of 4.03, whilst the factor of capabilities and abilities was ranked number 4 with a mean of 3.81. The ranking order below could suggest that principals placed more emphasis on factors that are external to teachers.

Table 5.1: Ranking of factors

Ranking	Factor	Mean Scores	Standard deviation
1	Motivation and encouragement	4.29	0.73
2	Communication and support	4.25	0.77
3	Resources	4.03	0.93
4	Capabilities and abilities	3.81	0.81

It was interesting to note that, according to the ranking order above (Table 5.22), the respondents felt that principals placed less emphasis on teachers' capabilities and abilities as compared to motivation and encouragement, which was placed first, communication and support, placed

second, and resources, placed third. The significance of this was that principals placed more emphasis on motivation and encouragement, followed by communication and support, and resources, which seemed to have received more attention from principals. However, the literature reveals that teachers' beliefs about their capabilities play a major role in optimising their efficacy (par 2.4). This ranking order could suggest that principals focus more on factors that are external to teachers.

5.5.1 Motivation and encouragement

According to Table 5.23, the leadership strategy of treating teachers with respect (item 44) was ranked first (mean=4.40) by respondents. Protection of teaching time from unnecessary disruptions (item 47) was ranked second (mean=4.38). Encouraging positive and collaborative relationships (item 40) was ranked third (mean=4.29). Showing appreciation to teachers' efforts (item 19) was ranked fourth (mean 4.25). The majority (59.5%) of the respondents indicated that principals treated teachers with respect (item C44). Only a few respondents (1.3%) indicated that principals did not treat them with respect. A large number (61.2%) of respondents indicated that principal protected teaching time from unnecessary disruptions (item 47). As regards encouraging positive and collaborative relationships, 51.9% of the respondents indicated that principals did that a great deal (item 40). The majority of the respondents (48.5%) were of the view that their principal showed appreciation for teachers' efforts, whilst a few (1.3%) held a not-at-all view (item 19).

Table 5.1: Motivation and encouragement factor

Rank	Item no	Description	Mean	SD	Responses									
					1		2		3		4		5	
					f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	44	Treats teachers with respect	4.40	0.89	3	1.3	8	3.4	23	9.7	59	24.9	141	59.5
2	47	Protects teaching time from unnecessary disruptions	4.38	0.95	4	1.7	11	4.6	21	8.9	53	22.4	145	61.2
3	40	Encourages positive and collaborative relationships	4.29	0.91	3	1.3	9	3.8	29	12.2	69	29.1	123	51.9

4	19	Shows appreciation to teachers' efforts	4.25	0.90	3	1.3	8	3.4	32	13.5	75	31.6	115	48.5
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Key: 1=not at all; 2=very little; 3= some degree; 4=quite a bit; 5=a great deal

5.5.2 Communication and support

According to Table 5.24, the factor of communication and support had the most items under Section C. The means of these items ranged from the highest mean (4.45) (item 14) to the lowest mean (4.06) (item 20). Table 5.24 showed that item 14 was ranked number 1 under the communication and support factor with a mean of 4.45. However, the frequencies for item 14 showed that there was no response under key 1 (not at all). This suggested that the principals of the respondents made attempts to move around the school environment, starting from very little to a great deal. The lowest ranked item was item 20 with a mean of 4.06. Some of the items had the same mean value. These included items 28 and 29, which had the same mean value of 4.33 and were ranked sixth. Items 21 and 30 had the same mean value of 4.31 and were ranked eighth. Items 22 and 35 had the same mean value of 4.29 and were ranked ninth. Items 18 and 26 had the same mean value of 4.15 and are ranked thirteenth.

Table 5.1: Communication and support factor

Rank	Item no	Description 14,15,18, 20-39,45	Mean	SD	Responses									
					1		2		3		4		5	
					f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	14	Is visible in the school environment.	4.45	0.87			11	4.6	25	10.5	40	16.9	147	62.0
2	27	Addresses each teacher by surname and title to make them feel valued.	4.42	1.03	6	2.5	4	1.7	24	10.1	52	21.9	147	62.0
3	33	Communicates clearly to teachers.	4.39	0.89	1	0.4	5	2.1	32	13.5	59	24.9	136	57.4
4	25	Establishes a positive relationship with teachers.	4.36	1.02	2	0.8	8	3.4	29	12.2	62	26.2	135	57.0
5	31	Communicates verbally in a clear, unambiguous manner to teachers.	4.34	0.92	2	0.8	8	3.4	29	12.2	65	27.4	132	55.7

6	28	Establishes standards of excellence and targets to be achieved by teachers.	4.33	0.93	1	0.4	8	3.4	30	12.7	70	29.5	127	53.6
6	29	Communicates with teachers about the school goals.	4.33	0.85	2	0.8	8	3.4	28	11.8	70	29.5	128	54.0
7	32	Gives teachers complete details of the message.	4.32	0.88	1	0.4	10	4.2	32	13.5	63	26.6	130	54.9
8	21	Informs teachers about what is going on in the school.	4.31	0.92	3	1.3	8	3.4	32	13.5	62	26.2	130	54.9
8	30	Distributes circulars, minutes of meetings, agendas and notices to teachers in good time.	4.31	0.87	2	0.8	11	4.6	30	12.7	61	25.7	132	55.7
9	22	Encourages teachers to persevere.	4.29	0.92	2	0.8	11	4.6	30	12.7	66	27.8	125	52.7
9	35	Sets clear directions for teachers.	4.29	0.96	1	0.4	9	3.8	34	14.3	66	27.8	123	51.9
10	23	Encourages teachers to try new ideas.	4.28	0.92	2	0.8	11	4.6	31	13.1	64	27.0	125	52.7
11	45	Addresses school problems promptly.	4.25	0.92	3	1.3	9	3.8	33	13.9	29	29.1	119	50.2
12	38	Does not criticise individual teachers publicly.	4.17	1.00	9	3.8	10	4.2	37	15.6	56	23.6	123	51.9
13	18	Walks around the school to identify possible problems to the safety of teachers.	4.15	1.03	6	2.5	16	6.8	28	11.8	73	30.8	113	47.7
13	26	Establishes sub-committees to involve teachers in the decision-making processes of the school.	4.15	0.88	7	3.0	10	4.2	40	16.9	63	36.6	116	48.9
14	15	Encourages teachers to be free to speak the truth without repercussions or victimisation.	4.14	0.87	6	2.5	11	4.6	45	19.0	55	23.2	117	49.4
15	24	Shows empathy to teachers experiencing emotional problems.	4.13	0.92	4	1.7	16	6.8	37	15.6	64	27.0	112	47.3

16	39	Helps teachers to think through the obstacles that confront them.	4.12	1.08	6	2.5	7	3.0	45	19.0	70	29.5	104	43.9
17	37	Inspires and supports individual teachers regularly.	4.10	1.03	3	1.3	19	8.0	34	14.3	76	32.1	105	44.3
18	36	Respects the decisions made by teachers in sub-committees.	4.09	0.88	4	1.7	15	6.3	45	19.0	61	25.7	109	46.0
19	34	Removes obstacles to effective teaching.	4.07	0.83	3	1.3	13	5.5	42	17.7	81	34.2	94	39.7
20	20	Recognises the accomplishments of the teachers publicly.	4.06	1.02	3	1.3	19	8.0	39	16.5	71	30.0	101	42.6

Key: 1=not at all; 2=very little; 3= some degree; 4=quite a bit; 5=a great deal

5.5.3 Resources

Table 5.25 showed that item 49 was ranked number 1 under the resources factor with a mean of 4.29. Item 48 was ranked second with a mean of 4.04, and item 50 was ranked third and last with a mean of 3.78. The rewarding of teachers (item 50) was ranked third and last under the resources factor, possibly because teachers expected more meaningful or tangible rewards. The assumption could be that verbal rewards were interpreted as paying lip service, insufficient and not highly fulfilling. The frequencies per item under this factor showed that 52.7% of the respondents indicated that their principal ensured that the school environment was clean a great deal (item 49). For item 48, 43.5% of the respondents indicated that principals ensured that the needed resources and facilities were available. On the other hand, 38.0% of the respondents indicated that principals were consistent in rewarding teachers who have performed well (a great deal) (item 50), 24.5% indicated quite a bit, 21.1% indicated to some degree, 9.7% indicated very little, and 6.3% indicated not at all.

Table 5.1:Resources factor

Rank	Item no	Description 48,49,50	Mean	SD	Responses				
					1	2	3	4	5

					f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	49	Ensures that the school environment is clean.	4.29	0.92	4	1.7	6	2.5	34	14.3	65	27.4	125	52.7
2	48	Ensures that the needed resources and facilities are available to teachers.	4.04	1.08	7	3.0	19	8.0	35	14.8	72	30.4	103	43.5
3	50	Is consistent in rewarding teachers who have performed well.	3.78	1.23	15	6.3	23	9.7	50	21.1	58	24.5	90	38.0

Key: 1=not at all; 2=very little; 3= some degree; 4=quite a bit; 5=a great deal

5.5.4 Capabilities and abilities factor

The capabilities and abilities factor had four identified items. Table 5.26 showed that (item 13) was ranked number one with a mean of 4.09. Second was item 9 with a mean of 3.94. Third was item 4 with a mean of 3.87, and the fourth ranking was item 1 with a mean of 3.16. The ranking of item 1 as last in this factor could be driven by the fact that principals often did not have a wider choice of teachers on hand to reallocate. For example, having one or two maths teachers in a school leaves very little room for the principal to manoeuvre or reallocate. This was supported by the frequencies of item 1, which showed that 20.3% of the respondents indicated that principals reallocated teachers whose learners' academic results were poor to another grade or subject a great deal. The ranking of item 4 as the third or second last in this factor of capabilities and abilities suggested that principals did not spend more time to emphasise teachers' capabilities, which is an essential part of teacher efficacy (par 2.12.2).

Table 5.1: Capabilities and abilities factor

Rank	Item no	Description 4,9,13	Mean	SD	Responses									
					1		2		3		4		5	
					f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	13	Supervises and	4.09	1.0	4	1.7	10	4.2	53	22.4	61	25.7	107	45.1

		evaluates teachers' work.												
2	9	Encourages teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues.	3.94	1.1	7	3.0	21	8.9	46	19.4	66	27.8	96	40.5
3	4	Emphasises teachers' capabilities rather than the difficulty of the task.	3.87	1.0	4	1.7	20	8.4	53	22.4	79	33.3	74	31.2
4	1	Reallocates teachers whose learners' academic results are poor in a subject to another grade or subject which are more applicable to the teacher.	3.16	1.3	37	15.6	27	11.4	72	30.4	42	17.7	48	20.3

Key: 1=not at all; 2=very little; 3= some degree; 4=quite a bit; 5=a great deal

5.5.5 Ranking of the top 10 items according to the mean scores

Table 5.27 showed that, when ranked according to the mean scores, the items under the communication and support factor dominate. The significance of this could be that principals placed more emphasis on the leadership activities of communicating to and supporting their teachers. When principals showed support for teachers' efforts and communicated clearly with them (pars 3.6.1.1 & 3.6.1.4), it augurs well for building teacher efficacy. There were only two items under the motivation and encouragement factor. Items from the factor resources and teacher capabilities did not appear under the top 10.

Table 5.1: Ranking of the top 10 items according to the mean scores

Rank	Item	Factor	Mean score
1	14 Is visible in the school environment.	Communication and support	4.45

2	27 Addresses each teacher by surname and title to make them feel valued.	Communication and support	4.42
3	44 Treats teachers with respect.	Motivation and encouragement	4.40
4	33 Communicates clearly to teachers.	Communication and support	4.39
5	47 Protects teaching time from unnecessary disruptions.	Motivation and encouragement	4.38
6	25 Establishes a positive relationship with teachers.	Communication and support	4.36
7	31 Communicates verbally in a clear, unambiguous manner to teachers.	Communication and support	4.34
8	28 Establishes standards of excellence and targets to be achieved by teachers.	Communication and support	4.33
9	29 Communicates with teachers about the school goals.	Communication and support	4.33
10	32 Gives teachers complete details of the message.	Communication and support	4.32

5.5.6 Ranking of the lowest 10 items according to the mean scores

Table 5.28 showed the ranking of the 10 lowest items in a descending order. Two factors dominated the lowest-ranking order, namely communication and support and capabilities factors, with four items each. The factor of resources had two items, whilst there was no item from the motivation and encouragement factor. Noticeable from Table 5.28 was that item 1, which dealt with reallocating teachers who were not doing well to other subjects, was ranked last of all 50 items in the questionnaire. This indicated that the strategy of reallocating teachers whose learners' academic results were poor in a subject to another grade or subject, which were more applicable to the teacher, was applied to some extent and not a great deal by principals).

Table 5.1: Ranking of the lowest 10 items according to the mean scores

Rank	Item	Factor	Mean score
1	39 Helps teachers to think through the obstacles that confront them.	Communication and support	4.12
2	37 Inspires and supports individual teachers regularly.	Communication and support	4.10

3	13 Supervises and evaluates teachers' work.	Capabilities	4.09
4	34 Removes obstacles to effective teaching.	Communication and support	4.07
5	20 Recognises the accomplishments of the teachers publicly.	Communication and support	4.06
6	48 Ensures that the needed resources and facilities are available to teachers.	Resources	4.04
7	9 Encourages teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues.	Capabilities	3.94
8	4 Emphasises teachers' capabilities rather than the difficulty of the task.	Capabilities	3.87
9	50 Is consistent in rewarding teachers who have performed well	Resources	3.78
10	1 Reallocates teachers whose learners' academic results are poor in a certain subject to another grade or subject which are more applicable for the teacher	Capabilities	3.16

5.6 EFFECT OF BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES ON FACTORS

The following discussion focuses on the analysis of the practical significance and effect sizes of biographical variables on the four factors, namely communication and support; resources; capability; and motivation. A t-test was performed to determine the effect sizes of the responses of teachers and principals regarding their views on leadership activities applied by principals. This statistical technique was applied to achieve the second research objective, namely, to statistically determine the views in the responses teachers and principals have with regard to the leadership strategies applied by principals to optimise teacher efficacy (par 1.6). A t-test is used, amongst others, when two independent groups need to be compared based on their average score on a quantitative variable (Pietersen & Maree, 2012d:225). The independent groups in this study are teachers, heads of departments and principals of secondary and primary schools in a district of the North West province.

Effect sizes were interpreted according to the following guidelines (Pietersen & Maree, 2012a:211):

- Small effect: $d=0.2$, medium effect: $d=0.5$, large effect: $d=0.8$

- Effect sizes that have d-values higher than $0.8 \leq$ indicate a large practically significant difference. The p-values that are ≤ 0.5 show a medium statistically significant difference, whilst a p-value of $0.2 \geq$ shows a small effect.

5.6.1 Effects of the gender variable (A1) on the factors

From Table 5.29, it could be inferred that there was a small difference of opinion between male and female teachers with regard to the four factors of communication and support, resources, capabilities and abilities, and motivation and encouragement. It was notable that gender had a small effect on the four factors: the factor of resources had an effect size of 0.13; the factor of capabilities had an effect size of 0.00; the factor of motivation had an effect size of 0.02; and the factor of communication and support had an effect size of 0.04.

Table 5.1: Effect of the gender variable on the four factors

A1		N	Mean	Std. deviation	p-value	Effect size
Communication and support	1 (Male)	105	4.2224	0.77224	0.737	0.04
	2 (Female)	128	4.2569	0.78917		
Resources	1 (Male)	104	3.9744	0.91103	0.314	0.13
	2 (Female)	128	4.0964	0.92041		
Capabilities and abilities	1 (Male)	105	3.8084	0.80859	0.975	0.00
	2 (Female)	128	3.8117	0.81975		
Motivation and encouragement	1 (Male)	105	4.2747	0.75310	0.893	0.02
	2 (Female)	128	4.2878	0.73477		

5.6.2 Effect of the post level variable (A6) on the factors

Table 5.30 compares the views of teachers on post level 1 with teachers on post level 2 and those on post levels 3, 4 and 5. The following emerged in terms of the mean scores: teachers on post levels 1 and 2 differed with teachers on post levels 3, 4 and 5 with regard to communication and support. Teachers on post levels 3, 4 and 5 (mean=4.66) agreed more than those on post levels 1

and 2 (mean=4.20, post level 1; 4.17, post level 2) that the principal exercised communication and support. Teachers on post levels 3, 4 and 5 (mean=4.47) agreed more than teachers on post levels 1 and 2 (mean=3.97, post level 1; 4.04, post level 2) that the principal provided the much-needed resources. This trend was also observable with regard to capabilities and abilities and motivation and encouragement. Teachers on post levels 3, 4 and 5 differed with those on post levels 1 and 2 with regard to emphasis on teachers' capabilities and abilities and motivation and encouragement. Those on post levels 3, 4 and 5 agreed more that the principal emphasised teachers' capabilities and abilities (mean=4.23) and motivation and encouragement (mean=4.69). Noticeable from Table 5.30 was that teachers on post levels 1 and 2 agreed more with one another with regard to the principal placing less emphasis on teachers' capabilities and abilities (mean=3.76, post level 1; 3.75, post level 2) when compared with teachers on post levels 3, 4 and 5.

Table 5.1: Effect of the post level variable on the four factors

Post level (A6)		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	p-value	Effect sizes	
						PL1 with	PL2 with
Communication_ and support	1 (Post level 1)	169	4.2047	0.81361			
	2 (Post level 2)	37	4.1726	0.77618		0.04	
	3 (Post level 3,4, 5)	21	4.6653	0.37097	0.033	0.57	0.63
	Total	227	4.2421	0.78658			
Resources	1 (Post level 1)	168	3.9782	0.94783			
	2 (Post level 2)	37	4.0450	0.88945		0.07	
	3 (Post level 3,4, 5)	21	4.4762	0.61978	0.065	0.53	0.48
	Total	226	4.0354	0.92094			
Capabilities and abilities	1 (Post level 1)	169	3.7682	0.82681			
	2 (Post level 2)	37	3.7581	0.86140		0.01	
	3 (Post level 3,4, 5)	21	4.2333	0.52090	0.044	0.56	0.55

	Total	227	3.8096	0.81779			
Motivation and encouragement	1 (Post level 1)	169	4.2376	0.77738			
	2 (Post level 2)	37	4.2635	0.71543		0.03	
	3 (Post level 3,4, 5)	21	4.6971	0.31885	0.028	0.59	0.61
	Total	227	4.2844	0.74652			

Table 5.30 further shows that the p-values ranged from 0.028 (motivation), 0.033 (communication and support), 0.044 (capabilities) to 0.065 (resources). The three p-values of motivation (0.028), communication and support (0.033) and capabilities (0.044) show statistical significance. The resources p-value (0.065) shows no statistical significance.

5.6.3 Effect of the education qualifications variable (A7) on the factors

Table 5.31 compares the views of teachers according to their qualifications. The following emerged pertaining to the mean scores: as regards communication and support, teachers with a three-year teachers diploma (mean=4.35) agreed more that principals applied communication and support than those with a bachelor's degree (mean=4.11) who least agreed. This finding of teachers with a bachelor's degree agreeing less with the others was also observable for resources (mean=3.90) and capabilities and abilities (mean=3.61). However, teachers with a two-year teachers' certificate agreed less (mean=4.14) with others concerning motivation and encouragement applied by principals.

It was notable from Table 5.31 that education qualifications showed no statistical significance on three factors of communication and support (p-value=0.50), resources (p-value=0.64) and motivation (p-value=0.65). The three p-values were above 0.05. It is essential to note that post-graduate qualifications were grouped under 5. This included Honour's degree (BEd), Master's degree, and PhD. However, it should be noted that no respondents held PhD degrees.

Table 5.1: Effect of the education qualifications on four factors

	Education qualification	N	Mean	Std dev	p-value	Teachers certificate (2 years)	ACE	Teachers diploma	Bachelor's degree
Communication & support	1 Teachers' certificate (2 years)	13	4.1982	1.01102					
	2 ACE	21	4.2110	0.97709		0.01			
	3 Teachers' diploma	66	4.3552	0.67773		0.16	0.15		
	4 Bachelor's degree	65	4.1123	0.71468		0.09	0.10	0.34	
	5 Post-graduate: Honours, Master's, PhD	65	4.2791	0.83870	0.50100	0.08	0.20	0.09	0.20
	Total	230	4.2430	0.78468					
Resources	1 Teachers' certificate (2 years)	13	4.0256	1.30143					
	2 ACE	21	4.0952	1.10626		0.05			
	3 Teachers' diploma	66	4.1414	0.69691		0.09	0.04		
	4 Bachelor's degree	65	3.9010	0.91370		0.10	0.18	0.26	
	5 Post-graduate: Honours, Master's, PhD	65	4.0872	0.95612	0.64100	0.05	0.19	0.06	0.19
	Total	229	4.0480	0.91187					
Capabilities and abilities	1 Teachers' certificate (2 years)	13	3.8923	0.96821					

	2 ACE	21	3.928 6	1.000 57		0.04			
	3 Teachers' diploma	66	3.849 0	0.705 03		0.04	0.08		
	4 Bachelor's degree	65	3.619 2	0.839 91		0.28	0.31	0.27	
	5 Post-graduate: Honours, Master's, PhD	65	3.910 8	0.795 47	0.262 00	0.02	0.35	0.08	0.35
	Total	23 0	3.811 2	0.816 68					
Motivation and encouragement	1 Teachers' certificate (2 years)	13	4.149 0	1.176 08					
	2 ACE	21	4.244 2	0.958 51		0.08			
	3 Teachers' diploma	66	4.359 4	0.639 39		0.18	0.12		
	4 Bachelor's degree	65	4.188 2	0.646 30		0.03	0.06	0.26	
	5 Post-graduate: Honours, Master's, PhD	65	4.330 5	0.762 57	0.650 00	0.15	0.19	0.04	0.19
	Total	23 0	4.280 4	0.744 34					

5.7 EFFECT OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ON THE FOUR FACTORS

The purpose of this section was to report on the effect of demographic variables on the four factors. Cohen's effect sizes were used to illustrate the effect of demographic variables on the four factors so as to give effect to the third research objective, which was to determine what leadership strategies could be used by principals to assist teachers to optimise their efficacy (par 1.6). Effect

sizes with a small effect carry a d-value of 0.2, medium effect carries a d-value of 0.5, and large effect carries a d-value of 0.8. (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:211).

5.7.1 Effect of school location on the four factors

According to Table 5.32, teachers in farm schools (mean=4.55) agreed more that principals applied communication and support than teachers in village (mean=4.25) and township schools (mean=4.11), whereas teachers in township schools agreed least in terms of the mean scores. Also, there was an observable trend that teachers in township schools agreed least with others concerning provision of resources (mean=3.84), capabilities and abilities (mean=3.77), and motivation and encouragement (mean=4.13).

Table 5.1:Effect of the school location variable (B1) on the four factors

	School location	N	Mean	Std deviation	p-value	Effect sizes	
						Farm school	Village school
Communication and support	1 Farm	24	4.5544	0.46846			
	2 Village	41	4.2563	0.68878		0.43	
	3 Township	90	4.1182	0.88230	0.49000	0.49	0.16
	Total	155	4.2223	0.79354			
Resources	1 Farm	24	4.5139	0.52914			
	2 Village	41	4.0488	0.88053		0.53	
	3 Township	90	3.8407	1.04365	0.64000	0.64	0.20
	Total	155	4.0000	0.96400			
Capabilities and abilities	1 Farm	24	3.9271	0.69626			
	2 Village	41	3.8837	0.77193		0.06	
	3 Township	90	3.7711	0.88575	0.18000	0.18	0.13
	Total	155	3.8251	0.82754			
Motivation and encouragement	1 Farm	24	4.5104	0.46835			
	2 Village	41	4.2952	0.63662		0.34	
	3 Township	90	4.1352	0.88391	0.42000	0.42	0.18
	Total	155	4.2356	0.77985			

School location, Key: 1=farm school; 2=village school; and 3=township school

Further, it was notable from Table 5.32 that the p-values of the school location variable showed no statistical significance. However medium effect sizes indicated that farm schools were more in agreement than village schools and township schools on factors of communication and support, resources, and motivation. There was no significant correlation between school location and factor 3 or capabilities (0.18).

5.7.2 Effect of school type on the four factors

Table 5.33 compared the views of teachers in primary schools, combined schools and secondary schools. The following emerged in terms of the mean scores: teachers in combined schools agreed least on all four factors, whereas teachers in primary schools agreed more on all four factors.

Table 5.33 shows that the p-values of school type variable on the four factors showed no statistical significance. However, medium to large effect sizes indicated that primary schools were more in agreement than combined and secondary schools. It may, therefore, be concluded that the school type variable had a medium to large effect size in the four factors.

Table 5.1: Effect of the school type (B2) variable on the four factors

	School type	N	Mean	Std deviation	p-value	Effect sizes	
						Farm school	Village school
Communication and support	1 Primary	86	4.5013	0.54236			
	2 Combined	18	2.8044	1.04688		1.62	
	3 Secondary	51	4.2757	0.54478	0.41000	0.41	1.41
	Total	155	4.2300	0.81181			
Resources	1 Primary	86	4.3488	0.72654			
	2 Combined	18	3.0185	1.10538		1.20	
	3 Secondary	51	3.7974	0.93352	0.59000	0.59	0.70
	Total	155	4.0129	0.95034			
Capabilities	1 Primary	86	4.1110	0.71659			

and abilities							
	2 Combined	18	2.9000	0.86840		1.39	
	3 Secondary	51	3.7448	0.67992	0.51000	0.51	0.97
	Total	155	3.8499	0.81485			
Motivation and encouragement	1 Primary	86	4.4938	0.53600			
	2 Combined	18	3.0463	1.17130		1.24	
	3 Secondary	51	4.2544	0.59455	0.40000	0.40	1.03
	Total	155	4.2469	0.79204			

5.8. CORRELATION BETWEEN FACTORS AND VARIABLES

The statistical process to determine whether two or more variables are associated with one another is called correlation. The resulting statistic is called a correlation coefficient and is a number between -1 and +1 (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Most correlations coefficients are decimals (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

5.8.1 Correlation of number of teachers

Table 5.34 shows that there was a negative correlation ($r = -.265$) between the factor of resources and the number of teachers (B3). This could mean that, the larger the number of teachers in a school, the less teachers are worried about resources.

5.8.2 Correlation of number of learners

Table 5.34 shows that there was a negative correlation ($r = -.176$) between the factor of resources and the number of learners (B4). This could mean that there was a tendency not to worry about resources in a school with a large number of learners.

5.8.3 Correlation of school's quintile ranking and resources

Table 5.34 shows that there was negative correlation ($r = -.181$) between the factor of resources and the variable school's quintile ranking (B5).

5.8.4 Correlation of age (A2)

Table 5.34 shows that there was a weak or no correlation between resources and age ($r= 0.078$).

5.8.5 Correlation of teaching experience (A5)

Table 5.34 shows that there was a weak or no correlation between resources and teaching experience ($r=0.006$).

5.8.6 Correlation of years in present position (A6)

Table 5.34 shows that there was a weak or no significant correlation between resources and number of years in present position ($r= 0.065$).

Table 5.1:Correlations of factors and variables

		A2	A5	A7	B3	B4	B5	Communica tion & support	Resources	Capabilities & abilities	Motivation & encourage ment
Communica tion & support	Correlation coefficient	0. 11 1	0.0 69	0.0 17	- 0.1 16	- 0.0 63	- 0.1 00	1.000	.706**	.716**	.898**
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0. 11 5	0.3 25	0.8 06	0.1 57	0.4 48	0.2 43		0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	20 2	20 8	21 3	151	14 8	138	237	236	237	237
Resources	Correlation coefficient	0. 07 8	0.0 06	0.0 65	- 265 **	- 17 6*	- 181 **	.706**	.651**	.651**	.642*
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0. 27 2	0.9 35	0.3 49	0.0 01	0.0 32	0.0 34	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000
	N	20	20	21	151	14	138	236	236	236	236

		1	7	2		8					
Capabilities & abilities	Correlation coefficient	0.042	-0.041	-0.113	-0.114	-0.049	-0.099	.716**	.651**	1.000	.712*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.558	0.557	0.099	0.163	0.552	0.246	0.000	0.000		0.000
	N	202	208	213	151	148	138	237	236	237	237
Motivation & encouragement	Correlation coefficient	0.130	0.093	0.003	-0.058	-0.025	-0.019	.898**	.642**	.712**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.064	0.183	0.963	0.478	0.765	0.823	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	202	208	213	151	148	138	237	236	237	237

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

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Key: A2=age in completed years; A5=teaching experience in completed years; A7=number of years in present position; B3=number of teachers in school; B4=number of learners in school; B5=school's quintile ranking.

5.9 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE FACTORS

This section provides a report of the analysis conducted to determine the correlation between the factors. Spearman's correlation coefficient was used to determine if there was a relationship between the four factors. The correlations were found to have a practical significance of $r=0.5$ and above. An analysis and interpretation of the correlations follows.

Table 5.1: Correlation coefficients between the factors

Number of respondents	Factor	Communication and support	Resources	Capabilities	Motivation and encouragement
237	Communication and support	1.00	0.70**	0.71**	0.89**
236	Resources	0.70**	1.00	0.65**	0.64**
237	Capabilities	0.71**	0.65**	1.00	0.71**

237	Motivation and encouragement	0.89**	0.64**	0.71**	1.00
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According to Table 5.35, there was a strong correlation between communication and support and resources ($r=0.70$), between communication and support and capabilities ($r=0.71$), as well as between communication and support and motivation and encouragement ($r=0.89$).

A strong correlation existed between resources and capabilities ($r=0.65$) as well as between resources and motivation and encouragement ($r=0.64$). There was also a strong correlation between capabilities and motivation and encouragement ($r=0.71$).

5.9.1 The correlation between communication and support and resources

A correlation ($r=0.70$) was found to exist between communication and support and the provision of resources by principals to assist teachers to optimise their efficacy (pars 3.6.1.4 & 3.6.4.). It is through open and clear lines of communication with the principal that teachers would express their needs for resources. The provision of the resources and a clean school environment can have a positive effect on the efficacy levels of teachers. In addition, the extent to which shifts in teacher efficacy occur depends on the support teachers receive from their principal (par 3.6.1.1).

5.9.2 The correlation between communication and support and capabilities

There was a correlation between communication and support and teacher capabilities ($r=0.71$) as indicated in Table 5.35 (par 3.6.2.2). When principals communicate with teachers, asking them their opinions on issues and how projects can be handled, they can share management information with teachers. Through open communication, teachers participate in problem-solving and decision-making in matters that affect their daily work of teaching. Thus, teachers would feel empowered to attempt new ideas, which has the potential to enhance their efficacy (par 3.6.2.2).

5.9.3 The correlation between communication and support and motivation and encouragement

A strong correlation was found between communication and support and motivation and encouragement ($r=0.89$) (par 3.6.1.4). When principals reward teachers for their efforts, are consistent and specific in communicating the rewards, there is a possibility that teachers' self-beliefs would be uplifted. Recognition of teachers' efforts need to be communicated promptly or as soon as they have reached the goals. This recognition must include work done inside and outside the classroom.

5.7.3 Synthesis

Strong correlations were discovered between communication and support, resources, capabilities and motivation; however, the resources factor showed a small correlation. All four factors have a correlation that ranges from $r=0.70$ to $r=1.00$. Therefore, the correlations revealed that there was a need for leadership guidelines that can be used by principals to optimise the efficacy of teachers in their schools. Moreover, paragraph 2.19 revealed that there is a positive link between teacher efficacy and learner achievement. Therefore, it can be surmised that principals of low-performing schools need to include leadership strategies that will contribute to optimising teacher efficacy in their schools. The identified limitation of this study was that it was not possible to compare the views of principals to those of the teachers because of the low response of principals.

5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented and discussed the results that were obtained by applying various statistical techniques. The biographical and demographic information of the respondents was presented by means of frequencies and percentages. The reliability and validity of the questionnaire was discussed. The factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were determined. The data that emerged from Section C of the questionnaire were analysed by

means of descriptive statistics. There were no significant statistical differences to a large effect found. Instead, there was a significant correlation between all four factors. The four factors that developed from this chapter were used to develop a model of leadership strategies to be used by principals to enhance teacher efficacy.

5.9. CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the above data presentation and analysis it may be concluded that principals do implement positive strategies that influence teacher efficacy, particularly motivation and encouragement, communication support and providing resources more than emphasising teachers' capabilities and abilities. Thus principals focused on factors that are external to teachers whereas teacher efficacy is an internal factor which deals with the self-belief of teachers. It may therefore be concluded that principals need to emphasise teachers' capabilities and abilities more, especially in the South African context where teachers are faced with difficult circumstances including learner ill-discipline, poor learner motivation and poor teacher morale. The following chapter, chapter 6 focused on leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy.

CHAPTER 6: LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 presented the empirical evidence on leadership strategies that were applied by principals of township and rural schools to optimise teacher efficacy. The results from the empirical investigation and the outcomes of the literature review were used to inform the development of leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. This chapter focuses on the development of leadership strategies that principals could use to optimise teacher efficacy in township and rural schools. Firstly, the four factors that emerged from factor analysis in chapter 5 are linked with the theories and literature presented in chapters 2 and 3. Secondly, the top 10 items identified from chapter 5 as regards the mean scores are also linked with the theories and literature in chapters 2 and 3. These top 10 items are regarded as the strengths of principals' leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. Thirdly, and similarly, the last 10 items as regards the mean scores identified in chapter 5 are linked with the theories and literature in chapters 2 and 3. These last items are regarded as the weaknesses of principals' leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy.

6.2 LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY

This section deals with the development of leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy in township and rural schools as derived from the literature and empirical data. Leadership strategies are identified by linking the data in chapter 5 with the relevant literature in chapters 2 and 3. This section links the major findings (the four factors) with the literature in chapters 2 and 3. The four factors were identified after extraction (Table 5.4). The sequence of the discussion of the four factors that is based on the ranking of the four factors in terms of their mean scores (Table 5.1). Motivation and encouragement is the first (mean score=4.29); second, communication and support (mean score=4.25); third, resources (mean score=4.03); and lastly, capabilities and abilities (mean score=3.81).

6.2.1 Motivation and encouragement

The factor of motivation and encouragement was ranked number one, according to Table 5.22 (mean score=4.29). Motivation is defined, *inter alia*, as “the reason or reasons behind one’s actions or behaviour” (par 2.7). The literature revealed that there is a relationship between teacher efficacy and teacher motivation (par 2.18). On the other hand, low teacher motivation is identified as one of the reasons for poor performance in schools (par 2.18.1). It is therefore imperative for principals to ensure that their teachers remained motivated to teach, because the literature reveals that teachers who are demotivated and lacked courage often display apathy, indifference to the work, high absenteeism, late-coming, lack of cooperation in handling problems and exaggeration of the effect of difficulties encountered when facing problems (par 2.17).

The problems displayed by demotivated teachers meant that they attributed the problem of low-achieving learners to learners’ lack of ability or poor background rather than their own (teachers’) ability (par 2.17). Such teachers might end up believing that their teaching has no positive impact on learner achievement as they might feel disempowered, have a lack of courage to innovate and feel ill-equipped (par 2.17).

However, teacher motivation is identified as a key factor that affected the quality of education, because teachers’ level of enthusiasm and commitment are important factors that affect learners’ motivation to learn (par 2.18.1). Furthermore, two dimensions of teacher efficacy were found to reciprocally boost teacher motivation, namely teaching efficacy (competence) and personal efficacy (confidence) (par 2.18.1).

Self-efficacy is identified as a critical source of human motivation (par 2.18). This implies that, when teachers held strong beliefs in their capabilities, they were likely to be persistent and put more effort into their task(s) (par 2.18). Thus, principals should ensure that their teachers are motivated, because motivated teachers show commitment to their work, professional development and resilience during setbacks. Motivated teachers are also likely to innovate and change their teaching practices (2.16.14).

According to Bandura's social cognitive theory, motivation plays a role during the modelling process, especially observational learning (item C9, with mean score=3.94, Table 5.23) (par 2.11.7). There are four cognitive steps during observational learning, namely: attention, retention, reproduction and motivation (par 2.11.7.3). All four steps require that teachers should be motivated to see their principal serving as their role model. This means that motivation is required during the attention phase of observational learning, whereby the observer, in this case, the teacher, pays attention to the principal's modelled behaviour, such as his or her approach to problem-solving or handling disciplinary matters.

According to Bandura's theory, teachers would be motivated to give attention to principals' modelled behaviour if they believed their principal is competent and knowledgeable (par 2.11.7.3). Furthermore, motivation influences the activities of observers (or, in this case, teachers) retained whilst observing the principal operating (par 2.11.7.3). If teachers deemed principals' behaviour as important, they were likely to retain such behaviour. Teachers were also likely to reproduce the retained behaviour or something similar if reinforced for doing so. Reinforcement could be external or come from the individual (self-reinforcement) (par 2.11.7.3). Reproducing the observed behaviour or something similar could improve the capability of teachers, thus raising their efficacy levels (par 2.11.7.3).

6.2.2 Communication and support

As regards the data analysis, the factor of communication and support was ranked the second most important factor as a leadership strategy of principals to optimise teacher efficacy (mean score=4.25, Table 5.22). When there were clear lines of communication between the principal and teachers, whereby the principal kept teachers informed and involved in school matters, it led to higher levels of teacher efficacy (items C29, mean score=4.33; C30, mean score=4.31; C31, mean score=4.34; C32, mean score=4.32; C33, mean score=4.39; Table 5.24) (par 3.6.1.4). Enhancing good communication required that the principal had to make the message clear to teachers, provide an explanation, give all the details of the message and be competent to transfer ideas

clearly to teachers without confusing issues (par 3.6.1.4). Thus, good, open communication could be used by principals to enhance teacher efficacy (par 3.6.1.4).

Principals could also improve the efficacy of teachers by greatly providing personal and professional support to teachers (pars 3.6.1.1 & 3.6.6). This support could be done by ensuring that each teacher feels known and valued as a person – for example, addressing each teacher by title and surname (item C27, mean score=4.42, Table 5.24). In addition, the principal could show support by encouraging teachers to persevere, try new ideas and refrain from scolding or admonishing teachers for taking initiative (items C22, mean score=4.29; C23, mean score=4.28; C38, mean score=4.17, Table 5.24) (par 3.6.1.1).

Teachers were also provided support when the principal showed empathy for them. Empathetic concern by the leader is shown to enhance teacher performance (par 3.6.5.2). If the principal expresses genuine concern for the welfare of teachers and knows each individual, it could improve teacher efficacy (par 3.6.5.2).

In addition, principals could support the self-efficacy of teachers by focusing their feedback on teacher performance more on what teachers had achieved rather than giving feedback on what teachers could not achieve (par 2.15.1). This was elucidated further by the assertion that specific positive feedback from the principal has the potential to reinforce self-efficacy when he or she indicates how a teacher's skills and strategies match the demands of a particular task (par 2.15.1).

6.2.3 Resources

The provision of resources to teachers was ranked the third factor in terms of the mean scores (4.03) (Table 5.21). The mobilisation of resources (items C48, mean score=4.04; C49, mean score=4.29, Table 5.25) could positively change teachers' attitude and performance to make them more effective in dealing with adverse environmental circumstances (par 2.4). Dealing with these adverse environmental circumstances and overcoming them was an indication that teachers had confidence in their abilities (par 2.5.2). This meant that such teachers reflected the confidence they

had experience to develop strategies to overcome obstacles to learning. When teachers express or show confidence in their ability, it is called personal teaching efficacy, which refers to an internal orientation of the teacher. Such teachers believed they had confidence in their abilities to teach even difficult learners (par 2.5.2).

However, principals could provide mastery experiences for teachers by increasing the mobilisation of instructional resources and providing adequate time with successful colleagues (par 2.12.1). The physical resources of the schools had an important influence on the behaviour of teachers, because resources gave teachers flexibility and allowed them variation in their teaching methods (par 3.6.4). School resources were also essential elements in creating a positive environment for teachers to perform their duties with confidence (par 3.6.4). On the other hand, inadequate resources in schools could be associated with low job satisfaction among teachers and was an element of low teacher motivation (par 2.18.2). Thus, it is imperative that principals ensure that teachers are provided with adequate resources so that they could acquire mastery experiences, exercise flexibility in their teaching and develop confidence in their abilities to teach effectively.

6.2.4 Capabilities and abilities

The emphasis of the capabilities and abilities of teachers was ranked fourth and last of the factors extracted during data analysis in terms of the mean scores (3.81) (Table 5.22). This ranking showed that less emphasis was placed on teachers' capabilities and abilities (item C4, mean score=3.87, Table 5.26) even though belief in one's capabilities to perform behaviours needed to achieve desired outcomes is regarded as the core element of self-efficacy (par 2.4). Individuals who have stronger beliefs about their capabilities tend to be more successful and are persistent in their efforts (par 2.4).

Even though teachers knew what to do in a given situation and possessed the required skills to perform well, they would not necessarily have performed well if they had serious doubts about their capabilities (par 2.11.7.3). This implies that teachers could learn, develop and optimise their self-efficacy by believing in their own capabilities. Therefore, it is incumbent upon principals to assist

teachers to optimise their efficacy by, *inter alia*, encouraging them to solve their own problems (par 2.12).

According to Bandura, the difficulties that human beings experience serve a purpose because they teach people that success is achieved through sustained effort (par 2.12.1). This could be applicable to teachers who work under difficult circumstances in township and rural schools. Such teachers need to be encouraged by principals to learn how to turn difficulties into success by sharpening their capabilities so as to exercise better control over events (par 2.12.1).

Furthermore, the mastering of difficult tasks or circumstances conveys new efficacy information, which could increase self-belief in one's capabilities (par 2.12.3). Therefore, principals need not to assist whenever a teacher encounters a difficult situation. Rather, principals could give teachers the opportunity to try out their own solutions and only intervene when their help is absolutely required, because some experienced teachers might not require the same amount of assistance as novices (par 3.3.2).

Principals could also use vicarious experiences and modelling as effective ways to develop personal teacher efficacies, because people often judge their capabilities using social comparisons (item C9, mean score=3.94) (par 2.14). Allowing teachers to observe performances of their successful colleagues and an inspiring or supportive principal could increase their efficacy (par 2.14).

6.3 LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES IN WHICH TOWNSHIP AND RURAL SCHOOL PRINCIPALS WERE DOING WELL TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY

The following leadership strategies emerged from the data analysis (Table 5.27). In terms of their mean scores, they were the top 10 leadership strategies. These top 10 leadership strategies indicate the leadership strategies that principals of township and rural schools implemented well. Furthermore, these top 10 items (C14, C27, C44, C33, C47, C25, C31, C28, C29, C32), out of 50 items, were regarded as the strengths of rural and township school principals. These actions

should therefore be upheld and maintained by principals in township and rural schools in order to optimise teacher efficacy in their schools.

6.3.1 Principals were visible in the school environment (item C14)

Item C14 (The principal is visible in the school environment) was ranked the highest in terms of the mean scores (4.45) (Table 5.27). This was an indication that participating teachers felt that their principals were visible in the school environment. By being visible in the school environment, principals were modelling the kind of behaviour they expected of teachers because, according to social learning theories, most human behaviour is learned by observing others (par 2.8.1).

On the other hand, social cognitive theories see people as influencing their environment (par 2.9). Therefore, we could make the conclusion that the visibility of the principal was aimed at influencing teachers to perform better. Therefore, applying Julian Rotter's social learning theory (par 2.10.2), principals expected that a certain consequence (optimised teacher efficacy) would occur if they were visible in the school environment. In addition, Rotter stated that people learn by adjusting their perceptions and expectations based on meaningful experiences in their environment (par 2.9.1.1). This implies that teachers could learn from the visibility of the principal if they find such visibility meaningful to their work performance and experience.

Bandura's social cognitive theory emphasises that people learn by observing the behaviour of models and then acquire the belief that they could produce behaviours to influence events in their lives (par 2.11). This theory (par 2.11) further states that much of the behaviour displayed by humans is learned by example, which means that learning includes observing others and then repeating their behaviour or something similar. Therefore, by being visible in the school environment, principals became accessible to teachers who might learn from their visibility (par 3.6.1.1).

Thus, it was through the daily interactions with teachers that principals could have had an impact on teacher effectiveness and teachers' confidence, with the latter being an element of teacher

efficacy (par 2.5). When teachers had access to their principal because he or she was visible, they were likely to learn from him or her as to how to handle difficult situations or problematic learners. By learning from their principal, teachers may develop more confidence in their abilities to handle such difficult or similar situations themselves in the future. This is likely to lead to the development of more self-belief in one's capabilities, thus contributing to optimising personal teaching efficacy (par 2.5.2).

In addition, principals had the opportunity to set direction and build teacher capacity during daily visibility. The qualities of setting direction and building teacher capacity are closely aligned with the practice of transformational leadership, which could contribute to the development of teacher efficacy (par 3.4).

The literature also revealed that there is a positive relationship between the behaviour of the principal – in this case, being visible in the school environment – and high levels of teacher efficacy (par 3.4). Principals who practised transformational leadership were more likely to create job circumstances that enabled individual teacher satisfaction and therefore allowed teacher efficacy to develop (par 3.4).

The visibility of principals also showed that they valued teaching and learning as instructional leaders (par 3.4). Instructional leadership is related to variables such as job performance, learner achievement, teachers' professional development, and teachers' attitudes (par 3.4). As explained in paragraph 3.6.2.2, for principals to empower teachers, they need to exhibit desired characteristics, for example, being visible.

Furthermore, principals need to be more like a coach and less like a boss (Sallies, 2002:68) (par 3.6.2.2). Therefore, the principal has to do more coaching while being visible and walking around. Teachers would not be threatened by the visibility of their principal if they viewed their principal's visibility in the school environment more as serving a coaching purpose rather than bossing them around.

The visibility of the principal could also be regarded as a way of communicating with teachers. During visibility, the principal could apply verbal- or nonverbal communication with teachers. Principals can communicate nonverbally by making direct eye contact with teachers and displaying animated facial expressions (par 3.6.2.1). Making direct eye contact and displaying animated facial expressions are elements of communication used by transformational leaders. Such leaders also have a confident and dynamic style of interaction with teachers (par 3.6.2.1).

According to the literature, a principal as transformational leader can help teachers recognise their capabilities, which would then provide a basis for elevating each teacher's needs and performance beyond expectation (par 3.6.2.1). The contribution of communication as a leadership strategy to enhance teacher efficacy is discussed further in paragraph 6.3.4.

6.3.2 Principals addressed each teacher by surname and title to make them feel valued (item C27)

Item C27 (The principal addresses each teacher by surname and title to make them feel valued) was ranked the second highest in terms of the mean scores (4.42). Respondents in this study indicated that principals treated teachers with respect by addressing them in a professional manner, such as using their relevant titles and surnames (Table 5.27). Addressing each teacher by surname and title suggested that there was a relationship of professionalism between teachers and their principals. Similarly, the literature revealed that teachers who are addressed properly, feel that they are valued and known as individuals (par 3.6.1.1).

By making teachers feel known as a person, the principal sends a message to teachers that their efforts are appreciated and that their accomplishments are recognised, and also that their ideas and contributions are valued. Hence, teachers who felt that they were supported by their principals were likely to feel safe to try new ideas and seek assistance (par 3.6.1.1). This kind of treatment and support from principals to teachers augur well for optimising teacher efficacy (3.6.1.1).

When principals allowed teachers to try new ideas and become successful, they contributed to optimising teacher efficacy by building a sense of mastery amongst teachers (par 3.6.1.1). When people achieve repeated success, it is referred to as enactive mastery (par 3.6.1.1). By achieving something, teachers tend to have the strongest feeling of self-efficacy (par 3.6.1.1). According to Bandura's social cognitive theory (par 2.12), the most powerful source of efficacy information is mastery experiences. Thus, successes build a belief in one's personal efficacy, whereas failure undermines one's efficacy. If there is a perception in the school that teaching has been successful in the past, it could raise efficacy expectations amongst teachers that teaching would be proficient in the future (par 2.12.1). This implies that the past successes of the school could build teachers' beliefs in their capability as individuals and as a collective (par 2.12.1).

6.3.3 Principals treated teachers with respect (item C44)

Principals who demonstrated respectful treatment toward teachers had the potential of optimising teacher efficacy (mean score=4.40, Table 5.27) (par 3.6.1.2). Teachers' commitment could be increased when the principal has a positive relationship with them (par 3.6.1.2).

According to the literature, commitment is an element of teacher efficacy and principals could elicit this commitment by treating teachers with respect. A committed teacher would thus put in extra efforts, such as conducting extra lessons during non-teaching times, in order to ensure that the academic performances of learners improve.

By treating teachers with respect and subsequently eliciting their commitment, principals contribute to the commitment of such teachers to the teaching profession, thus retaining experienced teachers in the school (par 2.5). Experienced teachers reflected that they had the ability to develop strategies to overcome obstacles to learning. This is referred to as personal teaching efficacy where teachers express confidence in their ability to teach difficult learners (par 2.5.2).

Therefore, it is imperative that principals continue to treat their teachers with respect, because such teachers could contribute positively to improving learner achievement through their many

years of experience in the profession. This is supported by Rotter's social learning theory, which states that people learn from their experiences with their environment (par 2.9.1.1).

6.3.4 Principals communicated clearly to teachers (item C33)

Communication was a way of exchanging ideas and exerting influence on staff members (mean score=4.39, Table 5.27). In other words, through communication, principals could motivate and provide guidance to teachers (par 3.6.1.4). When principals had clear lines of communication, which included keeping teachers informed and involved in school matters, it had the potential to lead to higher levels of teacher efficacy (par 3.6.1.4). Furthermore, teachers who were informed about the developments that affected their school felt that they were a valuable part of the school and therefore felt connected to the efforts to improve learner achievement in their school (par 3.6.1.4).

According to the data, teachers felt that their principals communicated clearly to them (Table 5.24). This implied that principals of township and rural schools informed teachers about and involved them in matters that affected their schools. The literature shows that being informed and involved in school matters is a contributory factor to teacher efficacy (par 3.6.1.4).

Another way of communicating with teachers, which had the potential to optimise teacher efficacy, was when principals communicated the goals of the school to teachers. The type of efficacy increased by communicating school goals is called collective teacher efficacy, and the focus of principals is not on individual teachers but the whole staff (par 2.15).

6.3.5 Principals protected teaching time from unnecessary disruptions (item C47)

The township and rural school teachers who participated in this study indicated that principals protected teaching time from unnecessary disruptions (mean score=4.38, Table 5.27). By so doing, principals enabled teachers to work effectively and afforded them the opportunity to focus on academic matters of imparting knowledge to their learners. Protecting teaching time from unnecessary disruptions also enhanced teaching efficacy, which is another dimension of teacher

efficacy (par 2.5.3). Teaching efficacy refers to teachers' expectations that teaching can influence learning outcomes (pars 2.5.3 & 3.6.3.1).

Teachers with a high teaching efficacy believe that their learners are capable of learning and that teaching can influence learner performance despite external obstacles such as family background (par 2.5.3). Therefore, it is imperative that principals create a climate that allow teachers to practise under a supportive and protected environment because, if support is taken away and the teaching environment becomes more complex, efficacy levels would drop, which could have an adverse effect on learning (par 2.5.3 & 3.6.3.1).

6.3.6 Principals established positive relationships with teachers (item C25)

A principal with whom a teacher had a positive relationship was likely to have a positive impact on increasing the teacher's commitment, which was an element of teacher efficacy (mean score=4.36, Table 5.27) (par 3.6.1.2). Township and rural school teachers who participated in the study expressed that their principals established a positive relationship with them (Table 5.24, item C25). This suggested that they worked collaboratively. Maintaining positive relationships was identified as one of the elements of principal leadership that could also contribute to optimising teacher efficacy (par 3.6.1.2).

According to Bandura's social cognitive theory, people are more likely to believe they have mastered a problem successfully if they are not agitated or tense (par 2.13). This implies that the relationships the principal has with teachers should not be perceived as a threat by teachers; rather, the relationship should be positive in order for their self-efficacy to be greater (par 2.13). In other words, if teachers feel composed in the presence of the principal, they are likely to have greater self-efficacy, because people expect success when they are not faced with aversive arousal compared to when they are agitated and tense (par 2.13).

6.3.7 Principals communicated verbally in a clear, unambiguous manner to teachers (item C31)

Table 5.24 shows that the majority of the participating teachers believed that their principals used verbal communication well (mean score=4.34). This strategy would serve as one of the strengths that principals of township and rural schools should maintain and use to make their views and messages clear and unambiguous so as to avert misunderstandings (par 3.6.1.4). The value of communication in optimising teacher efficacy has already been explained in paragraph 6.3.4.

6.3.8 Principals established standards of excellence and targets to be achieved by teachers (item C28)

It was through a right vision that the principal could establish standards of excellence for teachers, especially if his or her vision was explicit about what he or she wanted to achieve (mean score=4.33, Table 5.24) (par 3.2.2). This leadership action of establishing standards of excellence was applied well by principals who participated in this study (par 3.2.2). The set standards of excellence and targets could be used to prioritise the activities of teachers and give direction to their behaviours (par 3.2.2).

Setting standards of excellence for teachers demand that the principal should be seen by teachers as living up to the set standards that he or she expects from them. This was further emphasised by Bandura, who stated that people learn from observing role models in day-to-day life (par 2.11.7). This implies that it would be of little benefit for teacher efficacy when the principal as a leader fails to live up to the set standards.

6.3.9 Principals communicated with teachers about the school goals (item C29)

This item was ranked ninth by the respondents and showed that principals of township and rural schools used communication to talk with teachers about school goals (mean score=4.33, Table 5.24).

When school members hold the belief that they could attain the desired goals as a group, it is called collective teacher efficacy (par 2.6). Collective teacher efficacy thus influences the school environment because it encourages certain actions and discourages others (par 2.6). For example, when the principal and teachers agreed that their goal was to improve the academic performance of learners as a school, they were likely to encourage each other to put extra effort into their teaching by developing a timetable for extra classes so as to give every subject teacher a fair chance. Putting in extra effort was regarded as an element of teachers with high efficacy levels (par 2.12.4).

6.3.10 Principals gave teachers complete details of the message (item C32)

The respondents ranked this item number 10 of the leadership strategies that principals applied well (mean score=4.32, Table 5.24). The literature reveals that giving teachers complete details of the message should include an explanation (par 3.6.1.4). The message should also be reasonable (par 3.6.1.4).

It was apparent from the literature that a transformational school leader could enhance followers' efficacy beliefs by, *inter alia*, emphasising messages that are visionary, and inspirational, and by showing confidence in employees (par 3.6.2.1). However, giving complete details of the message could be regarded as part of communication, which was discussed above (pars 6.3.4, 6.3.7 & 6.3.9).

6.3.11 Synthesis

From the above discussion, it can be surmised that the most important strategy is communication and support, because the three other strategies are based on communicating with teachers and supporting them. Thus, it could be inferred from the above that principals' support and communication – which was open and frank – could lead to motivation and encouragement of teachers. Again, it is through honest communication that principals could emphasise teachers' capabilities and abilities, noting that teacher capabilities and abilities are cornerstones of teacher

efficacy. The much-needed resources could also be identified through the establishment of clear lines of communication whereby teachers would be free to express their needs.

6.4 LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES IN WHICH TOWNSHIP AND RURAL SCHOOL PRINCIPALS WERE NOT DOING WELL TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY

The ranking of these last 10 items (items C1, C4, C9, C13, C20, C34, C37, C39, C48, C50) suggested that principals of township and rural schools were not doing well regarding implementing the leadership actions that appeared in the items. These items (given above sequentially) could be regarded as the weak points of rural and township school principals in terms of optimising teacher efficacy. This means that principals need to work more on these leadership actions in order to maximise their efforts to optimise teacher efficacy. The items are discussed below following the ranking order according to the mean scores.

6.4.1 Principals helped teachers to think through the obstacles that confronted them (item C39)

Item C39 was ranked by the respondents as the first of the last 10 items in terms of the mean scores (4.12) (Table 5.28). By being ranked among the last 10 items out of 50 suggested that this was not a well-applied strategy by principals of township and rural schools. It could therefore be regarded as part of the weaknesses of the leadership actions of principals in township and rural schools. Respondents felt that principals did not help them to think through the obstacles they faced. The possible reasons for the latter could be that principals did not have sufficient time, knowledge or were inexperienced and thus were unable to make immediate decisions on how obstacles could be handled (par 2.12.1). Principals would probably have to consult with other stakeholders first before assisting teachers. Such delays to assist teachers might not be a good contributory element to optimising teacher efficacy, because a teacher who is facing obstacles might not operate or teach with confidence.

However, Bandura viewed some setbacks and difficulties people face or experience as serving a purpose of teaching people that success requires sustained effort (par 2.12.1). In addition,

obstacles provide individuals with opportunities to learn how to turn failure into success by sharpening their capabilities to exercise better control over events (par 2.12.1). This means when teachers persevere and recover quickly from setbacks, they become convinced that they have what it takes to succeed. So, they emerge from obstacles stronger and more able to overcome and master difficult obstacles (par 2.12.1). Success builds a belief in one's personal efficacy. Therefore, teachers need principals who would encourage them to persevere in the face of obstacles (par 2.12.1).

6.4.2 Principals inspired and supported individual teachers regularly (item C37)

The ranking of item C37 (mean score=4.10) among the last 10 items could mean that teachers did not get more inspiration from the principal (Table 5.28). This suggests that teachers who did not experience inspiration and support from their principal were more likely to have low efficacy levels because they felt disempowered (par 2.17). Thus, it is imperative for principals to realise that they remain key to teacher efficacy development when they inspire and support their teachers (par 3.2.1). The literature reveals that principals inspire and support individual teachers through transformational leadership (par 3.2.1).

6.4.3 Principals supervised and evaluated teachers' work (item C13)

The ranking of item C13 (mean score=4.09) among the last 10 items (Table 5.28) was quite surprising, because part of the core duties of the principal is to supervise and evaluate teachers' work (par 3.6.2.4). By ranking the item among the last 10 could suggest that principals of township and rural schools were not carrying out this task effectively. The work of teachers was possibly not supervised and evaluated regularly, which could imply that teachers would not have known if they were on the right track or not. Lack of supervision and evaluation could contribute negatively to optimising teacher efficacy because it means that teachers' skills are not developing (par 3.6.2.4).

Regular supervision and evaluation of teachers' work means that principals are able to provide feedback to teachers regarding the instructional impact of classroom strategies. It also helps

principals to fulfil the role they were tasked with of assisting teachers to develop their skills so that they could better facilitate student learning (par 3.6.2.4).

6.4.4 Principals removed obstacles to effective teaching (item C34)

According to Table 5.28, participating teachers felt that their principals did not remove obstacles to effective teaching (mean score=4.07). The literature reveals that transformational leaders, by means of intellectual stimulation, can help followers think through the obstacles that confront their success (par 3.6.2.1). This process of thinking through the best ways to approach problems and challenges helps raise individual teachers' confidence to perform exceptionally, resulting in job satisfaction and commitment to the school. The discussion on obstacles was presented in paragraph 6.4.1.

6.4.5 Principals recognised the accomplishments of the teachers publicly (item C20)

The ranking of item C20 (mean score=4.06) among the last 10 indicated that principals did not recognise the accomplishments of teachers (Table 5.28). On the contrary, teachers needed to be recognised by the principal for their accomplishments, which is a contributory element to teacher efficacy (par 3.6.5.1). Leadership strategies such as when principals appreciate the efforts of teachers and value their ideas and contributions are likely to play an important role in the development of teacher efficacy (par 3.6.5.1).

6.4.6 Principals ensured that the needed resources and facilities were available to teachers (item C48)

The ranking of item C48 (mean score=4.04, Table 5.28) among the last 10 out of 50 items suggested that respondents were of the view that principals did not do well in ensuring that the much-needed resources and facilities were available in the schools. To provide resources and facilities in schools, require that principals seek additional funds elsewhere to augment the available funds from the Basic Education Department, because the financial resources that are (at the time of the study) provided to schools through Section 21 are usually insufficient to cover all the school needs. For example, recently, schools situated in townships and rural areas experienced

electricity cuts due to municipal debts. The cut-off affected the normal functioning of the schools negatively.

In the light of the above, it is imperative that principals recognise that the physical environment and availability of facilities and other resources are essential elements in creating a positive environment for teachers to perform their duties with confidence (par 3.6.4). So, without confidence, teachers would not be able to assist learners to perform academically. Confidence, therefore, is a critical element of teacher efficacy – teacher efficacy is defined as teachers' confidence or belief that they are capable of teaching in a way that could bring about learner achievement (par 2.5).

6.4.7 Principals encouraged teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues (item C9)

This item was ranked amongst the last 10 items by respondents (mean score=3.94, Table 5.28). Principals did not encourage teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues on a regular basis to observe successful practices, thus observational learning (par 2.11.7.3). Full timetables or overload did not allow for such flexibility (par 2.18.2). Another possible reason could be that other teachers might have chosen to remain in their classes to do some extra work, marking or other administrative duties that required prompt submission.

However, according to the literature, there is a need for principals to assist teachers to gain vicarious experiences by modelling instructional strategies for those who had challenges improving their learners' academic achievement, permitting time for teachers to observe colleagues who had high levels of self-efficacy and by arranging visits for teachers to observe instructional practices implemented in classrooms with high-achieving learners (par 2.14). In addition, principals could provide vicarious experiences by encouraging senior teachers to model exemplary classroom instruction to teachers with lower self-efficacy levels (par 2.11.7.3).

6.4.8 Principals emphasised teachers' capabilities rather than the difficulty of the task (item C4)

Respondents ranked this item amongst the last 10 out of 50 items (mean score=3.87, Table 5.28). This indicates that they did not regard this action as one of the most important leadership strategies implemented by their principals. In other words, principals emphasised teachers' capabilities less. The literature indicates that individuals who have stronger beliefs about their capabilities are more successful and persistent in their efforts (pars 2.4 & 2.5.1). Thus, the kind of leadership needed by the respondents was the kind that handed over power to teachers to encourage them to solve their own problems. This suggests that principals could play an essential role in boosting the self-belief of teachers in low-performing rural and township schools by emphasising their capabilities more often (par 2.12).

6.4.9 Principals were consistent in rewarding teachers who had performed well (item C50)

Item C50 was ranked the second-last of all 50 items (mean score=3.78, Table 5.28). This implied that respondents felt that principals were not consistent in rewarding teachers who had performed well. The literature recommends that rewards or recognition be made as soon as teachers have achieved their goals (par 3.6.5.1). In addition, rewards should be specific, and principals need to be consistent in rewarding teachers for work well done (par 3.6.5.1).

The literature further revealed that fair rewards and punishments are positively correlated to teachers' work performance (par 3.6.5.1). Thus, principals of township and rural schools need to be consistent in rewarding teachers who perform well because their leadership actions or behaviours make a difference in increasing teachers' self-belief (par 3.6.5.1).

6.4.10 Principals reallocated teachers whose learners' academic results were poor in a subject to another grade or subject which were more applicable to the teacher (item C1)

The respondents ranked item C1 the last of 50 items (mean score=3.16, Table 5.28). Principals were thus not swift to shift teachers who performed poorly. The possible reasons for why principals

of township and rural schools do not reallocate teachers whose learners' academic results were poor in a subject to another grade or subject could include, amongst others, that principals have limited human resources at their disposal.

Principals of poorer schools must rely entirely on the post-provisioning model, which is used to determine the number of teachers mainly according to the number of learners and subjects weighting. Another reason could be that principals avoid making changes that could unsettle or upset teachers. Rather than having disgruntled teachers, principals would rather try to satisfy teachers at the expense of academic results – thus, making popular decisions rather than unpopular ones. Trying to satisfy teachers could, in turn, perpetuate low teacher performance. When principals reallocated teachers whose learners are not performing well academically, such teachers failed to perform their allocated task. This experience of failure has strong effects on the self-efficacy of the reallocated teachers (par 2.12.1), as regular failures tend to produce self-doubts and reduce self-efficacy (par 2.12.1). In addition, besides lowering efficacy beliefs, the perception that one's performance had been a failure also contribute to the expectation that future performances would be inept (par 2.12.1). Thus, principals have to make decisions about reallocating teachers, considering that a school that is not performing well academically is labelled as an underperforming school and subsequently subjected to severe criticism and pressure (pars 1.1 & 2.13). Some reallocated individuals function well when subjected to pressure, whilst others react in a dysfunctional manner (par 2.13). The high levels of physiological arousal, how fearful or calm one is could debilitate or weaken performance (par 2.13). Thus, principals must be considerate when reallocating teachers as fearful people are more likely to doubt their competence (par 2.13).

As mentioned earlier (pars 6.3.1 & 6.3.2), it is critical that the principal approaches teachers to be reallocated to other subjects or grades as a coach and not as a boss. Thus, before reallocating teachers, principals need to give constructive feedback to the individual teacher with regard to his or her work performance (par 2.15.1). Feedback that is specific and positive could raise self-efficacy by indicating how the teacher's skills match the demands of a particular grade or subject

(par 2.15.1). On the other hand, feedback focused on deficiencies could detract from personal efficacy (par 2.15.1). This means that principals need not focus on teachers' shortfalls when reallocating them as that is likely to diminish the personal efficacy of teachers (par 2.15.1) So, the feedback should not undermine teachers' beliefs in their capabilities.

The last four items – item C1 (Reallocates teachers whose learners' academic results were poor in a subject to another grade or subject which were more applicable to the teacher), item C4 (Emphasises teachers' capabilities rather than the difficulty of the task), item C9 (Encourages teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues), and item C50 (Is consistent in rewarding teachers who had performed well) – had a mean score of less than four each. This suggested that principals of rural and township schools need to give a more serious attention to reallocating low-performing teachers, emphasising teachers' capabilities more, encouraging visits to classes of successful colleagues, and being consistent in rewarding teachers (pars 2.4, 2.5, 2.5.3 & 2.12).

6.5 AFFIRMATIONS OF THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS THROUGH THE LITERATURE AND RESEARCH RESULTS

This section is aimed at answering the research questions and objectives posed in chapter 1 (pars 1.5 & 1.6). The first objective was to determine the nature of teacher efficacy. The second objective was to determine the views of teachers and principals of township and rural schools regarding the leadership actions of the principal to optimise teacher efficacy. The third objective was to develop leadership strategies that principals of township and rural schools could implement to optimise teacher efficacy. The links between the literature and the empirical results are used to respond to the three research questions posed in chapter 1 (par 1.5).

6.5.1 Objective 1: The nature of teacher efficacy

According to the literature (par 3.2.4), principals build people, build people's capacities and their self-confidence. Principals could build teachers' capacity and self-confidence by, *inter alia*, encouraging them to persevere and to try new ideas (items C22 & C23). This was affirmed by 52.7% of respondents, who indicated that principals encouraged teachers to persevere a great

deal (Table 5.24). Secondly, 52.7% of the respondents indicated that principals encouraged teachers to try new ideas a great deal (Table 5.24).

The literature also affirms that persuasion or encouragement is another way of strengthening persons' conviction that they have the capabilities to achieve (par 2.15.1). It was thus derived that principals could contribute to optimising teacher efficacy through their positive daily interactions with teachers and giving feedback that emphasise teachers' abilities (par 2.15.1).

6.5.2 Objective 2: The views of teachers and principals with regard to the leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy

The second research objective was to determine the views of teachers and principals with regard to the leadership strategies that principals used to optimise teacher efficacy. The literature study affirmed that principals were likely to be influential in contributing to teacher efficacy when they attributed outcomes to particular actions of teachers (pars 3.2.1 & 3.2.4). The research results indicated in Table 5.28 affirmed that principals emphasised teachers' capabilities, which was an element of teacher efficacy. Item C4 in the questionnaire focused on teachers' capabilities.

The frequency analysis of item 4 showed that the majority (33.3%) of the respondents felt that principals somewhat attributed outcomes to teacher capabilities, whereas 31.2% of the respondents affirmed that principals emphasised teachers' capabilities rather than the difficulty of the task (Table 5.28). Only 1.7% of respondents indicated that principals did not emphasise teachers' capabilities.

6.5.3 Objective 3: Leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy

In order to reach this objective, the results from the literature and empirical study were used. Four factors were identified after extraction (Tables 5.16 & 5.17). The factor analysis narrowed the leadership actions of principals down from 50 items, as reflected in Section C of the questionnaire, to four factors. The literature indicates that principals who practise transformational leadership

could help teachers acquire and sustain feelings of competence and worth, which is teacher efficacy (pars 3.2.6 & 3.4.2.1).

The empirical research affirmed that principals of township and rural schools set clear directions for teachers. Table 5.24 shows that 51.9% of the respondents indicated that principals set clear directions for teachers a great deal. Setting clear directions included building a vision, goal consensus, setting high expectations, developing people, intellectual stimulation, modelling of values and practices that were important to the mission of the school, as well as organising and building relationships (par 3.4.2.1).

When principals established clear lines of communication and supported teachers, it led to higher levels of teacher efficacy (pars 3.4.1.1 & 3.4.1.4). The results of the empirical research affirmed that principals addressed each teacher by surname and title to make them feel valued a great deal. According to Table 5.24, 62.0% of the respondents said that the principals addressed each teacher by surname a great deal. Table 5.21 also shows that item C27 (addresses each teacher by surname and title to make them feel valued) appeared as number 2 of the top 10 ranked items. As regards communicating clearly to teachers, the results of the empirical study affirmed that principals communicated clearly to teachers a great deal. According to Table 5.24, 57.4% of the respondents confirmed that principals communicated clearly to teachers a great deal. Item C33 (communicates clearly to teachers) was ranked number 4 of the top 10 items (Table 5.27). When principals established clear lines of communication, which included keeping teachers informed and involved, it led to higher levels of teacher efficacy (par 3.4.1.4).

The literature indicates that the provision of resources has an important influence on the behaviour of teachers (par 3.4.4). The availability of facilities and a clean school environment are essential elements to create a positive environment for teachers to perform their duties with confidence. The results of the empirical study affirmed that principals of township and rural schools ensured that the needed resources and facilities were available to teachers. The majority of the respondents (43.5%) confirmed that the principal ensured that the needed resources and facilities were

available to teachers a great deal, whereas 30.4% stated quite a bit (4) (Table 5.25). However, it needs to be noted that item C48 (ensures that the needed resources and facilities were available to teachers) was ranked among the lowest 10 items in terms of the mean scores (4.04).

Lastly, the literature revealed that, by emphasising teachers' capabilities, could enhance their efficacy (par 2.15). It is possible to sustain a sense of efficacy if significant others express faith in one's capabilities rather than if they convey doubts, ridicule, criticism or belittle one's efforts. For example, principals could bolster teachers' self-efficacy if their positive appraisal of teachers is realistic (par 2.15).

The results of the empirical study revealed that emphasising teachers' capabilities (item C4) was ranked number 8 among the 10 lowest ranked items in terms of the mean scores (3.87, Table 5.28). This could be regarded as affirmation of the literature that teachers of township and rural schools tend to focus more on external factors as determinants of effective teaching than their quality of teaching (par 1.2).

From the above discussion, it can be inferred that teacher efficacy could be optimised through the leadership actions of the principals such as motivation and encouragement, communication and support, provision of resources, and emphasising teachers' capabilities and abilities. However, the ranking of the four factors revealed that the factor of motivation and encouragement scored the highest mean (4.29), followed by communication and support in second position (4.25). The third position was taken by the factor of resources (4.03) and lastly, the factor emphasising teachers' capabilities obtained the fourth and last position (3.81). The significance of the ranking order (Table 5.22) affirm that principals of township and rural schools need to emphasise teachers' capabilities more in order to optimise their efficacies.

6.6 ANALYSIS OF OPTIMISING TEACHER EFFICACY IN TOWNSHIP AND RURAL SCHOOLS

The purpose of Figure 6.1 was to analyse leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy following the four factors of communication and support, motivation and encouragement, resources and capabilities and abilities.

Table 6.1 depicts an analysis of optimising teacher efficacy in township and rural schools. It firstly identifies the main problem as the low levels of teacher efficacy in township and rural schools. Low efficacy levels culminated in poor quality of teaching because teachers tend to attribute poor learner academic performance to external factors over which they have little control rather than looking closely at their quality of teaching, which is within their control, to improve or deal with. When the quality teaching is poor, it is likely that academic results are poor as well. Secondly, the four factors that were extracted during data analysis were used as goals to optimise teacher efficacy, namely: motivation and encouragement; communication and support; provision of resources; and emphasising teachers' capabilities and abilities. Thirdly, leadership actions of the principal to optimise teacher efficacy were derived from Table 5.18. Fourthly, the table showed that there had to be constant evaluation of the implementation process, whether the actions were yielding positive results or not. Lastly, Table 6.1 shows that monitoring had to be carried out during the process of identifying and correcting deficiencies. If there is a need, a revised strategy could be drawn to address the identified deficiencies so as to bring about improvements.

Table 6.1:Schematic representation of leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy

PROBLEM OR NEED IDENTIFICATION
1. Low teacher efficacy in township and rural culminated in low quality of teaching, which subsequently contributed to poor academic performance.

GOALS TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY				
To communicate clearly and give support to teachers	To provide resources	To emphasise teachers' capabilities and abilities	To encourage and motivate teachers	
ACTIONS TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY				MONITORING
Principal was visible (item C14) (Table 5.24, par 6.3.1.) Encouraged free speech (item C15) (par 3.6.2.5) Walked around (item C18) (par 3.6.1.1) Recognised teachers' accomplishments (item C20) (par 2.12.1.) Kept teachers informed (item C21) (par 3.6.1.4.) Encouraged perseverance (Item C22) (par 2.20) Encouraged innovation (item C23) (par 3.6.1.3) Showed empathy (item C24) (par 3.6.5.2) Established positive relations with teachers (item C25) (par 3.6.1.2) Involved teachers in decision-making (item C26) (2.2.2) Addressed teachers professionally (item C27) (par 3.6.2) Established standards of excellence and targets (item C28) (par 3.2.2) Communicated clearly (items C31, C32, C33) (par 3.6.1.4) Communicated about school goals (item C29) (par 2.6)	Made resources available (item C48) (par 3.6.4) Ensured clean school environment (item C49) (3.6.4) Was consistent in rewarding teachers (item C50) (3.6.5.1)	Reallocated teachers according to their abilities (item C1) (pars 2.12.1) Emphasised teachers' capabilities (item C4) (pars 2.4 & 2.5.1) Encouraged colleagues to visit classes of successful teachers (item C9) (pars 2.11.7.3 & 2.14) Supervised and evaluated teachers' work (item C13) (par 3.6.2.4)	Showed appreciation for teachers' efforts (item C19) (par 2.21.2.) Encouraged positive and collaborative relationships (item C40) (par 3.6.2.2) Treated teachers with respect (item C44) (par 3.6.1.2) Protected teaching time (item C47) (pars 2.5.3 & 3.6.3.1)	Feedback Corrective actions
EVALUATION: Based on goals. Identification of merits and deficiencies. Corrective action taken.				

REVISED STRATEGY				
GOAL/S				MONITORING
ACTIONS				
EVALUATION				

Figure 6.1 represents the four leadership strategies that principals in township and rural schools could use to optimise teachers' efficacies. The figure suggests that principals' communication and support are the key strategy to achieve the other three. This suggests that when the principal communicated and supported teachers, motivated and encouraged them, emphasised teachers' capabilities and abilities and provided the much-needed resources, teachers were more likely to perform their duties with the self-confidence or belief, which allowed them to assist their learners to achieve academically. The figure also indicates that the strategies were linked to one another by the principals' communication and support to teachers.

Figure 6.1 shows that there is a link between the four leadership strategies. Principals could motivate and encourage teachers through communication: talk to teachers about their efforts and make them feel appreciated and safe in the school environment (par 3.6.1.1). Improved communication could be used to keep teachers informed and involved in matters pertaining to school decisions (par 3.6.1.4). The capabilities and abilities of teachers can become known when rewarding them for work well done and considering that rewarding teachers requires open communication, fairness and consistency (par 3.6.5.1). Communication is also linked with resources because the much-needed resources were identified through communication between principals and teachers. The physical environment and the availability of resources are essential elements in creating a positive environment for teachers to perform their duties with confidence, considering that teacher confidence is an essential element of teacher efficacy (par 3.6.4).

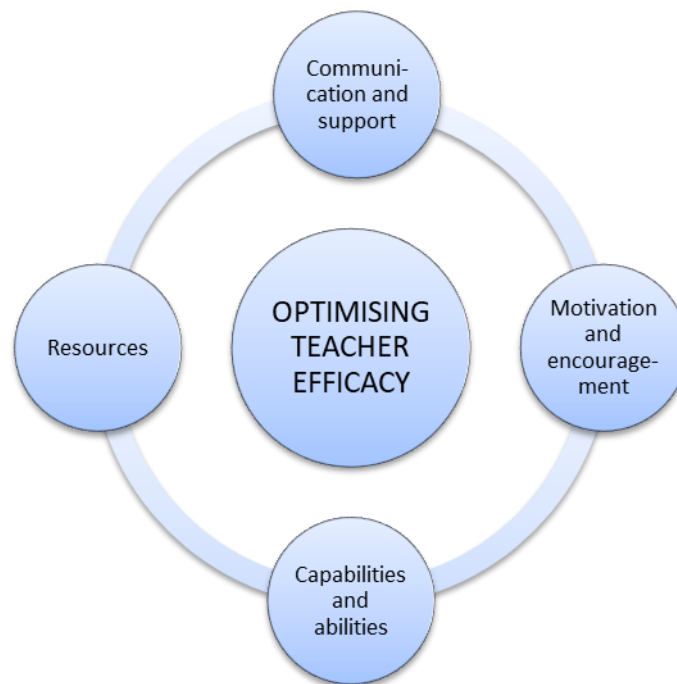


Figure 6.1: A schematic representation of leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy

6.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Principals can help teachers acquire and sustain feelings of competence and worth through their leadership strategies or actions (par 3.2.6). Feelings of teacher competence and worth were identified as some of the elements of teacher self-efficacy (par 2.5). In this chapter, leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy in township and rural schools were developed from the literature and empirical data. The top 10 items as well as the last 10 items in terms of their mean scores were presented. Lastly, the four goals to optimise teacher efficacy were tabulated together with leadership actions of principals (Table 6.1). A schematic representation of the four leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy were provided (Figure 6.1).

6.8. CONCLUDING REMARKS

It was evident from the above discussion that there were leadership strategies in which township and rural schools principals were doing well and leadership strategies in which they were not doing well to optimise teacher efficacy. The leadership strategies in which principals were doing well could be regarded as their strengths and the leadership strategies in which they were not doing

well could be regarded as their weaknesses. It is these weaknesses that have to be strengthened so as to assist principals to optimise teacher efficacy, which could subsequently contribute toward achieving effective schools, thus providing quality teaching and learning to South African schools. The next chapter, chapter 7 dealt with the summary, findings, recommendations and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER 7: SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 discussed the development of leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. The four factors that emerged as main findings were discussed. This was followed by leadership strategies in which principals of township and rural schools did well and that need to be upheld. Thereafter, leadership strategies in which principals did not do well were discussed. The three research questions were discussed through the literature and empirical results. Table 6.1 presented the problem, goals and actions to optimise teacher efficacy. The chapter concluded with a summary.

This chapter provides a summary of the study and the findings of the study are discussed and recommendations are made for future research. The contribution of the study is discussed, and the chapter is concluded with a summary.

7.2 SUMMARY

The purpose of the study was to determine leadership strategies that principals of township and rural schools could use to optimise teacher efficacy. Chapter 1 outlined how the quality of teaching in township and rural schools is affected by low teacher efficacy. The chapter also highlighted that principals need to apply leadership activities that could assist their teachers to optimise their self-efficacy, which could, in turn, contribute to teachers' performance in the classroom, improving their quality of teaching. This was followed by the research questions, the aims of the study, the research design, and chapter outline.

The nature of teacher efficacy was discussed in chapter 2. The conceptual framework and theories that explain characteristics of teacher efficacy as well as the possible reasons for low teacher efficacy in township and rural schools were further discussed. The sources of teacher efficacy were

identified. The practices of teachers with high efficacy as well as the practices of teachers with low self-efficacy were explored. The relationship between teacher efficacy and teacher motivation was also discussed.

Chapter 3 focused on the influence of leadership strategies or activities used by principals in their schools to optimise teacher efficacy. Several definitions of leadership were provided, wherefrom certain elements of leadership were extracted and explained. The concept of strategy was discussed. How principals can sustain their own efficacy and the effect of leadership strategies on teacher efficacy were also discussed. Leadership strategies were categorised as follows: staff development strategies; school improvement strategies; strategies for solving school problems; resources strategies; and people strategies. The last section of the chapter dealt with the effects of principal behaviour on teacher efficacy. The chapter ended with a summary.

Chapter 4 discussed the research design and methodology used to investigate the leadership activities that principals apply in schools. The aim and objectives of the research were outlined (par 4.2). The research design and methodology were explained. A closed-ended questionnaire was used as the research instrument to collect data. A total of 320 teachers were sampled from 40 schools in the identified district – 25 schools were primary schools and 15 were secondary schools. Ethical considerations were discussed, including full disclosure, voluntary participation, informed consent, and confidentiality. This discussion covered administrative procedures, the distribution of the questionnaire, response rate, data analysis, and limitations of the study.

The findings and interpretation of the data were discussed in chapter 5. The discussion started with an analysis of the biographical and demographic information of respondents. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were determined. This was followed by an analysis of data that emerged from Section C of the questionnaire by means of frequencies, means and percentages. The four constructs were determined through factor analysis. The correlations and effect sizes were determined and discussed.

The purpose of chapter 6 was to develop leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. The four factors that served as major findings were discussed in this section. This was followed by leadership strategies in which principals of township and rural schools did well and that need to be upheld. Thereafter, leadership strategies in which principals did not do well, were discussed. The affirmations of the three research questions were discussed through the literature study and the empirical results. The problem, goals and actions to enhance teacher efficacy was presented in Table 6.1. The chapter concluded with a summary.

In this chapter, the findings of the study are discussed, and recommendations are made for future research. Finally, the contribution of the study is discussed.

7.3 RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.3.1 Findings on Objective 1: To explain the nature of teacher efficacy

The findings pertaining to Objective 1 are based on the literature in chapters 2 and 3 as well as the data analysis in chapter 5. These findings can be divided into three categories, namely: theories underpinning teacher efficacy in schools; the nature of teacher efficacy in schools; and internal and external strategies applied to optimise teacher efficacy.

7.3.1.1 Theories on teacher efficacy in schools

The following findings emerged with regard to theories on teacher efficacy in schools:

- Theories on teacher efficacy differentiate between the behaviours of teachers with low efficacy and the behaviours of teachers with high efficacy (pars 2.16 & 2.17).
- The Rand Corporation studies explained that there is a relationship between teacher efficacy and learner achievement (par 2.19).
- Rotter's social learning theory explains that human behaviour is mainly learned, but individual expectations and the value one attaches to the expected outcomes are more important than reinforcements (par 2.9).
- Bandura's social cognitive theory explains the sources of self-efficacy as mastery experiences, physiological and emotional states as well as social persuasion (par 2.112).

This theory can be applicable to township and rural school teachers. Teachers can develop mastery experiences through collaboration with principals and experienced colleagues who have contributed to past successes of the school. Table 5.1 showed that the average years of experience of township and rural school teachers was 14 years, which put them in a good position to operate with increased confidence gained over the years. In addition, Table 5.1 revealed that the majority of the teachers in township and rural school fulfilled the minimum qualification requirements of three years. Teachers could operate with increased confidence, which also bodes well for optimising efficacy. Thus, township and rural school teachers can gain mastery experiences through collaboration and their acquired teaching experience.

- Principals as role models have an influence on the efficacy of individual teachers, because people learn from observing role models in day-to-day life (pars 2.11.7, 2.12, 2.22 & 3.4; item C10). According to the data analysis, item C10 did not appear in the top 10 ranked items and neither in the 10 lowest ranked items (Tables 5.27 & 5.28). This suggests that the respondents did not regard the role of principals as role models highly. By not appearing in the top 10 ranked items, could also suggest that principals in township and rural schools must improve on being role models to their teachers. Principals must bear in mind that serving as role models can optimise teacher efficacy as principals are leaders and therefore are expected to be influential and be exemplary to their followers. Thus, principals of township and rural schools can have an influence on the efficacy of teachers if they fulfil their leadership roles and responsibilities as expected.

7.3.1.2 Leadership challenges facing principals with low-efficacy teachers

- Principals did not reallocate teachers whose learners had performed poorly academically to other grades or subjects that were more applicable to the teacher (item C1, Table 5.26). Consequently, low academic performance of learners could be perpetuated by keeping underperforming teachers in the same subject or grade.

- Principals were not consistent in rewarding teachers who had performed well (item C50, Table 5.25). Teachers were likely to perform to the best of their ability if their work was recognised and appreciated by their principals (par 3.6.5.1).
- Principals did not emphasise teachers' capabilities and abilities more often (item C4, Table 5.26). When teachers are given the opportunity to apply their skills and abilities, they are likely to develop confidence in their capabilities (par 2.12).
- Principals did not encourage teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues a great deal (item C9). Principals provide teachers with vicarious experience when they allow teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues because vicarious experiences have an influence on self-efficacy (pars 2.11.7.3 & 2.14).
- Principals did not ensure that the needed resources and facilities were available to teachers a great deal (item C48). The essential resources enable teachers to perform their duties with confidence, which also enhances self-efficacy (par 3.6.4).
- Principals did not remove obstacles to effective teaching a great deal (item C34). Obstacles teachers face can prevent them from performing to the best of their ability. Thus, it is incumbent upon principals to assist teachers to overcome obstacles through intellectual stimulation (par 2.12.1).
- Principals did not supervise and evaluate teachers' work a great deal (item C13). When principals fail to supervise and evaluate teachers' work, it means that they are not performing their instructional leadership roles to assist teachers to perform better, thereby not contributing to optimising teachers' efficacy (par 3.6.2.4).
- Principals did not inspire and support individual teachers regularly (item C37). Lack of inspiration and support from the principal can negatively affect growing teachers' efficacy (par 3.2.1).

7.3.1.3 External strategies by the Department of Basic Education to optimise teacher efficacy

The following findings emerged regarding motivational factors that demotivate teachers and lower their efficacy:

- The Department of Basic Education pays teachers competitive salaries because poor pay leads teachers to abandon classes to go on strikes, demanding better pay and improved working conditions (par 2.18.2). Young teachers also leave the profession in large numbers in search of greener pastures (par 2.18.2).
- The Department of Basic Education improves school infrastructure in remote areas. Some schools still lack basic facilities, such as proper toilets for teachers and learners, running water, electricity, and sufficient classroom furniture (par 2.18.2).
- Increase professional support to teachers in rural areas and the focus should be on teacher development rather than administrative issues (par 2.18.2).
- Reduce the amount of administrative work that teachers perform so that they focus can on actual teaching in the classroom. This also includes reducing the heavy workload of teachers (par 2.18.2).
- Ensure that there is safety in schools because recently, there has been an increase in gangs, bullying, fighting, attacks on teachers, and political violence in schools (par 2.18.2).

7.3.2 Findings on Objective 2: To determine the views of teachers and principals with regard to the leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy

The following findings with regard to internal strategies employed by principals to optimise teacher efficacy derived from frequency analysis (par 5.5). Principals in rural and township schools implemented the following leadership strategies well:

- Principals were visible in the school environment (item C14). Teachers in township and rural schools felt that their principals were visible in the school environment. This item was ranked first of the top 10 items, which showed the significance of principal visibility to

teachers (Table 5.1). The visibility of the principal was aimed at influencing teachers to perform better.

- Principals collaborated and communicated with teachers to develop school goals (par 3.3.1; items C25, C29 & C32). Item C29 (Communicates with teachers about the school goals) was ranked amongst the top 10 items that principals of township and rural schools applied well. Leaders can use goal setting as a tool to help teachers focus on a path that leads to professional growth. Collaborating with teachers showed that there was a positive relationship which was likely to have a positive impact on increasing a teachers' commitment as an element of teacher efficacy (item C25). During communication, principals gave teachers complete details of the message (item C32). Thus, items C25, C29 and C32 have been combined because they can be categorised under communication as a strategy to enhance teacher efficacy.
- Principals boosted teachers' efficacy by addressing each teacher by surname and title (item C27). Addressing each teacher by surname was ranked second amongst the top 10 items (Table 5.27). Respondents felt that their principals treated them with respect by addressing them in a professional manner, such as using their relevant titles and surnames (Table 5.27). Addressing each teacher by surname and title suggested that there was a relationship of professionalism amongst teachers and their principals.
- Principals protected teaching time from unnecessary disruptions (item C47; Table 5.27). This enabled teachers to work effectively and also afforded them the opportunity to focus on academic matters of imparting knowledge to their learners. Protecting teaching time from unnecessary disruptions also enhanced teaching efficacy.
- Principals established standards of excellence and targets to be achieved by teachers (item C28). The set standards of excellence and targets could be used to prioritise the activities of teachers and direct their behaviour.

7.3.3 Findings on Objective 3: To substantiate what leadership strategies could be used by principals in order to assist teachers to optimise their efficacy

The following findings with regard to Objective 3 emerged from the empirical study and analysis (chapter 5). The findings were based on the leadership strategies that principals of township and rural schools did not apply well to enhance teacher efficacy (Table 5.1 & par 6.4). In other words, these findings could be regarded as the weaknesses that principals should attend to. However, these leadership strategies should be applied together with the findings under Objective 2, which could be regarded as strengths, because they are already applied well.

- **Principals need to reallocate teachers whose learners' academic results are poor in a subject to another grade or subject which is more applicable to the teacher (item C1)**

It is vital that a principal approaches a teacher to be reallocated to other subjects or grades. This should be done as a coach and not a boss so as to minimise resistance and tension that could arise. Before reallocating teachers, principals need to give constructive feedback to individual teachers with regard to their work performance (par 2.15.1). Feedback that is specific and positive could raise self-efficacy by indicating how the teacher's skills match the demands of a particular grade or subject (par 2.15.1). On the other hand, feedback that focuses on deficiencies could detract from personal efficacy (par 2.15.1). Table 5.28 showed that the reallocation of underperforming teachers was rarely done in township and rural schools. This could serve to perpetuate underperformance of teachers, which might culminate in recurring poor academic results.

- **Principals need to be consistent in rewarding teachers who have performed well (item C50)**

Rewards or recognition should be given as soon as teachers have achieved their goals (par 3.6.5.1). In addition, rewards must be specific, and principals need to be consistent in rewarding teachers for work well done (par 3.6.5.1). The literature further revealed that fair rewards and punishments are positively correlated to teachers' work performance (par 3.6.5.1). The rewarding of teachers was ranked second to last and meant that teachers were not recognised consistently

for the good work they had performed (Table 5.28). By not recognising teachers' good work, they could be demotivated, which would have a negative effect on teacher efficacy.

- **Principals need to emphasise teachers' capabilities rather than the difficulty of the task (item C4)**

Individuals who strongly believe in their capabilities are more successful and persistent in their efforts than individuals who doubt their capabilities (pars 2.4 & 2.5.1). Thus, it is imperative that principals emphasise the capabilities of teachers rather than the difficulty of the task.

- **Principals need to encourage teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues (item C9)**

Principals can assist teachers to gain vicarious experiences by modelling instructional strategies for those who have challenges of improving their learners' academic achievement. Furthermore, vicarious experiences can be gained when principals permit time for teachers to observe colleagues who have high levels of self-efficacy in practice and by arranging visits for teachers to observe instructional practices implemented in classrooms of high-achieving learners (par 2.14). In addition, principals could also provide vicarious experiences by encouraging senior teachers to model exemplary classroom instruction to teachers with lower self-efficacy levels (par 2.11.7.3).

- **Principals need to ensure that the needed resources and facilities are available to teachers (item C48)**

The availability of facilities and other resources are essential elements in creating a positive environment for teachers to perform their duties with confidence (par 3.6.4). So, without confidence, teachers would not be able to assist learners to perform academically. Confidence, therefore, is a critical element of teacher efficacy, because teacher efficacy is defined as teachers' confidence or belief that they are capable of teaching in a way that could bring about learner achievement (par 2.5). Principals in this study did not do well in providing teachers with the much-

needed resources (Table 5.28). Lack of resources could have a negative impact on the functioning of teachers, thus not assisting to optimise teacher efficacy.

- **Principals need to supervise and evaluate teachers' work regularly (item C13)**

Regular supervision and evaluation of teachers' work means that principals are able to provide feedback to teachers regarding the instructional impact of classroom strategies. It also helps principals to fulfil the role that they are tasked with of assisting teachers to develop their skills so that they could better facilitate student learning (par 3.6.2.4). The findings of this study revealed that principals did not regularly supervise and evaluate the work of teachers (Table 5.28). This deprived teachers of much-needed constructive feedback that could have enhanced their efficacy.

Principals need to help teachers to think through the obstacles that confront them (item C39). Principals remove obstacles to effective teaching (item C34)

Items C34 and C39 were combined in this case because they dealt with a similar aspect of teachers handling obstacles. When principals encourage teachers to persevere and to recover quickly from setbacks or difficult situations, they help teachers become convinced that they have what it takes to succeed. Such teachers would emerge from obstacles stronger and more able to handle and master difficult obstacles, which is a positive contributory element in optimising teacher efficacy (par 2.12.1). In addition, a transformational leader can help followers think through the obstacles that confront their success by using intellectual stimulation (par 3.6.2.1). This process of thinking through the best ways to approach problems and challenges helps raise individual teachers' confidence to perform exceptionally, resulting in job satisfaction and commitment to the school. These two aspects of helping teachers to think through the obstacles and removing obstacles to effective teaching were rated amongst the lowest 10 items which principals did not do well, thus not contributing positively to efficacy development (Table 5.28).

7.3.4 Major findings of the research

The following major findings of the research emerged after the questionnaire items were grouped according to their correlations during data analysis, forming four factors (Table 5.2). This was done

to reduce a set of 50 items to four manageable factors. The aim of factor analysis was to reduce the number of variables or items by finding the common factors among them. Thus, data that correlated were reduced to a smaller number of factors.

7.3.4.1 Motivating and encouraging teachers

Teacher efficacy can be improved by the principal by motivating and encouraging teachers. According to Table 5.19, the strategy of motivating and encouraging teachers was ranked number 1 with a mean score of 4.29. The literature showed that teacher efficacy can be enhanced when teachers are treated with respect, their efforts are appreciated, there are collaborative relationships, and teaching time is protected from unnecessary disruptions (pars 2.5.3 & 3.6.3.1). Items that dealt with motivation and encouragement of teachers were identified in Table 5.4 and the pattern matrix in Table 5.3 as follows: items 2, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 16, 17, 19, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 46, 47.

At the time of this study, teachers in rural schools of South Africa received a rural allowance of R1 600 per month, paid once annually. This can serve as extrinsic motivation to teachers to continue their teaching careers in rural areas if it is improved continuously. Table 5.2 revealed that the majority of the respondents in township and rural schools had almost 10 years of teaching experience. This should be interpreted as a good sign, because it indicates that there are well-experienced teachers in township and rural schools, which augurs well for teacher efficacy.

The Department of Basic Education can deal with overcrowding in classes by having a different model of teacher provisioning for rural and township schools, because the current model does not favour these schools, which often lack sufficient classrooms. This can assist by reducing the workload of teachers. The provision of basic infrastructure, such as toilets for teachers and learners, running water and classroom furniture, can improve the working conditions of teachers. Furthermore, subject specialists and circuit managers can provide professional support to teachers by visiting more often to give guidance and appraise where necessary. Reducing the amount of

administration work that teachers do is another way of reducing teacher frustrations and will enable teachers to focus on actual teaching in the classroom.

However, South Africa needs a patriotic public service that would be proud of serving its citizens. It would not be sustainable to rely on paying bonuses and allowances to teachers. Rather, it would be sustainable to cultivate the spirit of ubuntu in teachers who would be proud South Africans and willing to serve without material gain.

7.3.4.2 Communicating and supporting teachers

Teacher efficacy can be improved through principals' communication and support to teachers. The factor of communication and support was ranked second (Table 5.1). Teacher efficacy can be optimised when principals establish clear lines of communication, communicate clearly, encourage open communication, are visible in the school environment, encourage innovation, and set direction as well as standards of excellence (pars 3.3, 3.6.1.2 & 3.6.1.4). Items that dealt with communication and support of teachers were identified in Table 5.4 and the pattern matrix in Table 5.3 as follows: items 14, 15, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 45.

The technological era has made it possible for township and rural schools to have access to the internet and electricity or solar power. These can be used by principals to enhance their communication and support to teachers. Establishing group messages can serve as the quickest way to get the message across to teachers. Morning briefing sessions can also improve communication and support to teachers. However, a record of the deliberations should be kept, and briefings should not be turned into long meetings that require detailed discussions. Table 5.1 revealed that principals of township and rural schools were communicating well with their teachers. This is a strength that needs to be continued to optimise teacher efficacy.

7.3.4.3 Providing the much-needed resources to teachers

Teacher efficacy can be improved through the provision of the much-needed resources. The provision of resources was ranked third (Table 5.22). Physical resources and the availability of facilities and equipment are essential elements that create a positive environment for teachers to perform their duties with confidence, which is an element of efficacy (par 3.6.4). Items that dealt with provision of the much-needed resources to teachers were identified in Table 5.19 and the pattern matrix in Table 5.18 as follows: items 48, 49, 50.

The provision of the much-needed resources by principals was a weakness in township and rural schools (Table 5.28). However, this weakness can be overcome by recommendations made in paragraph 7.4.7.

7.3.4.4 Emphasising teacher capabilities and abilities

Teacher efficacy can be improved through principals' emphasis of teacher capabilities and abilities. Table 5.1 ranked the emphasis of teacher capabilities and abilities as the fourth and last strategy. However, teacher capabilities and abilities are the most essential elements of teacher efficacy, because they encompass self-belief in one's potential to carry out a particular task successfully (par 2.12). Thus, in order to improve efficacy of teachers, principals need to focus more on internal factors that deal with self-belief. Items that dealt with emphasising teacher capabilities and abilities were identified in Table 5.4 and the pattern matrix in Table 5.3 as follows: Items 1, 3, 4, 8, 9, 13. None of the items under this factor were categorised under the top 10 ranked items (Table 5.1). Furthermore, Table 5.1 indicated that the factor of emphasising teacher capabilities and abilities was ranked the lowest of the four factors. This suggests that this strategy was a weakness of the leadership strategies and therefore needs to be improved so as to optimise teacher efficacy (paragraph 7.4.3).

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made based on the literature and empirical study. The recommendations emanate from the issues that principals did not do well as leadership actions to

optimise teacher efficacy. Furthermore, the recommendations are deemed as practical and implementable in township and rural schools.

7.4.1 Recommendation 1

Principals should rotate teachers whose learners are not doing well academically to other grades or subjects (item C1)

Motivation

The empirical data revealed that only 20% of principals reallocated teachers whose learners' academic results were poor in a subject to another grade or subject which was more applicable to the teacher. Learners thus cannot get the benefit of better teaching and therefore may not improve their education. Further, teachers who are not reallocated could continue to underperform, which would be harmful to their self-belief. Such teachers could believe that they are not capable of assisting their learners to perform academically and they might end up thinking or believing that their teaching has no effect on learners (pars 2.5, 2.5.4 & 2.7). Thus, it is essential for principals to reallocate such teachers to subjects or grades in which they feel more confident about their abilities and capabilities. Principals can also recommend such teachers for further training or support from subject specialists. Such training can be used to address the content gaps that teachers experience. However, this requires principals to consult with teachers with the purpose of identifying the real causes of teacher underperformance so that the training or support is aligned to the teachers' needs or problem areas. By so doing, principals will assist teachers to gain confidence in their abilities to teach effectively.

7.4.2 Recommendation 2

Principals should reward teachers who have performed well more often and meaningfully (items C19, C20)

Motivation

The frequency analysis showed that only 38.0% of the respondents indicated that the principal was consistent in rewarding teachers who had performed well (item 50) (Table 5.1). This low percentage could suggest that principals in township and rural schools did not reward teachers who had performed well in a more consistent and meaningful manner. Rewarding teachers has the potential of making them feel that their efforts are recognised and appreciated. This can contribute to optimising the self-belief of teachers.

The current external system (to the school) of rewarding teachers who performed well is based on the performance measurement integrated into the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS). This rewarding system involves the Department of Basic Education mainly allocating 1% to teachers who performed well annually. However, the question can be raised as to whether teachers find these rewards meaningful. Internally, the principal can praise teachers who have performed well publicly during the assembly, staff meetings and parents' meetings. Rewarding teachers also serves as feedback to individuals on their work or behaviour. Specific feedback from the principal has the potential to reinforce self-efficacy. Some schools award certificates to teachers who have performed well in their subjects or for other work-related efforts. In other cases, principals can use persuasive statements such as "I know that you can do better". However, principals should ensure that the reward is deserved, genuine and not just sweet talk.

7.4.3 Recommendation 3

Principals should put more emphasis on teachers' capabilities and abilities rather than the difficulty of the task (items C3 & C4)

Motivation

Principals should support teachers by emphasising teachers' capabilities and abilities, especially when they have managed overcome minor obstacles and managed to assist learners to achieve better results academically. This could contribute to building teachers' confidence. Teachers who believe in their capabilities and abilities are more likely to acknowledge that their quality of teaching has a positive impact on learner achievement, thus they will constantly strive to improve their

quality of teaching. Emphasising the difficulty of the task can make teachers feel incompetent and they thus lose confidence in their abilities and capabilities.

7.4.4 Recommendation 4

Principals should encourage teachers to visit classes of successful colleagues who can subsequently serve as role models for inexperienced or underperforming teachers (item C9)

Motivation

The empirical data revealed that only 40% of principals in township and rural schools encouraged their teachers to visit classes of successful colleagues a great deal. Principals need to improve on this by realising that successful teachers can serve as role models for their colleagues by, *inter alia*, being punctual, working hard, being honest, being fair and objective, dressing professionally, communicating clearly, behaving calmly under pressure, and focusing on the task at hand. This modelling behaviour can positively influence the efficacy of teachers. Principals can also encourage team teaching where teachers who excel in specific topics be given an opportunity to present the specific topic. Such teachers can be from a neighbouring school if there is no one inside. Subject specialists can be invited to the school to present specific topics while the subject teacher observes. This can lead to the development of teachers' confidence that they can handle difficult topics.

7.4.5 Recommendation 5

Principals should emphasise the quality of teachers' work (item C28)

Motivation

The literature reveals that teachers in township and rural schools focus more on external factors as determinants of learner performance (par 1.3). Principals should encourage teachers to focus mainly on their quality of teaching as a major determinant of learners' academic performance rather than on external factors such as school conditions and other socio-economic factors. In this case, teachers need to be encouraged to prepare their lessons thoroughly, improvise and have the

courage to try new teaching methods. They also need to be encouraged to be masters of their subjects so that they are not found wanting when it comes to their content knowledge.

Principals can emphasise the quality of teachers' work by analysing tests or examination results per subject per teacher. This should be done by comparing the average scores as well as the number of high and low performers. Examining the areas where learners performed poorly can also assist teachers to consider improving their teaching in specific areas.

7.4.6 Recommendation 6

Principals should involve school management team members to supervise and evaluate teachers' work more often (C13)

Motivation

The empirical data revealed that 45% of principals in township and rural schools supervised and evaluated their teachers' work a great deal. Principals remain key figures to efficacy development; thus, it is critical to realise that empowering teachers can happen through supervision and evaluation of teachers' work. Giving positive and constructive feedback to teachers in regard to their work could boost their confidence. However, this also requires the effort of others in leadership positions in the school to provide support and inspiration to those under their care.

The possible reasons why principals do not supervise and evaluate teachers' work a great deal could be that they have too much administrative duties to perform and supervise, including attending meetings of the Department. They also have to deal with meetings in their own schools, *inter alia*, finance committee, school governing body (SGB), school management team (SMT) and staff. Disciplinary cases of teachers and learners should be attended to. Some principals have classes to teach. Principals must also attend to various stakeholders who just pitch up at the school without prior appointment.

However, principals can delegate some of the supervision and evaluation duties to deputies, departmental heads and senior teachers in the school. Delegating duties to other SMT members will leave the principal with ample time to view the reports on teachers' evaluation. The principal can also do control work to make sure that supervision and evaluation is done by asking for regular reports. Through delegation, the principal would share skills with other SMT members, which could contribute to optimising their efficacy.

7.4.7 Recommendation 7

Principals should ensure that they improve their fundraising strategies so as to ensure that the needed resources and facilities are available to teachers (C48)

Motivation

The empirical data revealed that only 45% of principals in township and rural schools ensured that the much-needed resources are available to teachers a great deal. Teachers need resources for experiments, illustrations and presentations. The Fourth Industrial Revolution also requires teachers to use or include technological gadgets in their teaching deliberations. These much-needed resources serve as essential aids to assist teachers to help their learners comprehend better. Therefore, principals have to do their utmost best to ensure that their teachers do not lag behind when it comes to the much-needed resources.

Principals in township and rural schools find it difficult to provide the much-needed resources because of insufficient funding. Their institutions are classified as no-fee schools. This means that parents do not pay school funds and schools depend heavily on Section 21 departmental allocations. The school environment also makes it difficult for principals to augment the funds allocated by the education department due to high levels of unemployment.

However, principals cannot afford to become powerless and give up on looking for additional funds. There are several ways they can employ to source additional funds: they need to improve their fundraising abilities by attending other fundraising activities in their areas; benchmarking with

already-sponsored schools could also assist them in acquiring skills of raising funds; applying for Lottery funds can be another consideration; some schools are situated near mining areas, which could be considered for fundraising purposes; the principal and SGB can avail a portion of the school for businesses to advertise at a cost; the school building can be leased during weekends or holidays to churches or other similar organisations; and the school can establish a tuckshop inside the yard. Sometimes, on certain days, schools allow learners to wear clothes of their choice (not uniform) as a way of raising funds – however, the money raised this way is too little to cover the school's needs.

The above recommendations were based on the items that were ranked amongst the lowest. The low ranking of the items suggested that principals did not do well to implement leadership actions that could optimise teacher efficacy together with the top-ranked items, which were regarded as the strengths of the principals. The lowest-ranked items were regarded as the weaknesses of the leadership actions of principals in township and rural schools that need to be improved in order to optimise teacher efficacy.

7.5 AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The aim of this study was to determine the nature of teacher efficacy in township and rural schools as well as to develop strategies that could be used by principals to optimise teacher efficacy. The following recommendations are made for future research:

- Future research on teacher efficacy needs to involve more teachers and principals. This could yield results that will illustrate clearly the underlying association between teacher efficacy and the leadership of principals. The increased participation of principals could also provide a clearer picture of the leadership strategies they apply to optimise teacher efficacy.
- Other methods of gathering data may also have some benefit to eliminate the influences of self-report measures in quantitative methods. Mixed or multiple methods may be used in future studies to gain insight into principals' leadership strategies and the perceptions of teachers with regard to the strategies.

- There should be more research on the opinions of teachers concerning their self-efficacy as a way of improving their quality of teaching.
- Retention strategies to investigate the attrition of young educators could be investigated.
- There should be more research on curbing political violence, closure of schools during community protests and gangs in schools.
- There should be more research on ubuntu factors that can motivate teachers to be proud public servants who are not entirely interested in material gains but are willing to serve the public by meeting the highest standards of professionalism.

7.6 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study provided insight into the leadership strategies of principals in township and rural schools to optimise teacher efficacy. The study revealed that principals need to emphasise teachers' abilities and capabilities more rather than the difficulty of the task. Furthermore, principals' leadership should assist teachers not to focus on external factors – such as poverty, school conditions and parental involvement, amongst others – but rather on the quality of teachers' work, which include being confident, being knowledgeable about their subjects and preparing stimulating lessons. This study also provided insight into the link between principal leadership and teacher efficacy. The study also contributes to the body of knowledge of education leadership by providing recommendations that principals could apply to optimise teacher efficacy. In addition, higher levels of teacher efficacy could contribute positively to improved learner academic performance. Higher teacher efficacy levels might help principals to achieve successful and effective schools despite the difficult teaching conditions under which teachers function. Teachers might also begin to take full responsibility for their learners' performance, thus rural and township schools could perform better academically.

In addition, this study is likely to contribute to the realisation that, despite the difficult circumstances that teachers face, it is possible that learners would achieve academic excellence if teachers believe more in their own capabilities. By approaching their lessons with greater confidence,

teachers are likely to instil greater levels of confidence in their learners to challenge and study concepts that they perceive to be difficult.

Another possible contribution of the study is that principals might become more aware that teachers perform better if their efficacy levels are greater. Therefore, principals need to support and encourage teachers by taking into consideration teachers' abilities and capabilities. The needs of teachers should not be ignored. Those who have been redeployed against their will should not be deemed as incompetent, lazy or troublemakers; rather, they also need to be supported and motivated.

The contribution of this study can help principals to choose their staff development topics more carefully as well as making the topics more relevant to teachers' needs. In addition, experienced and less experienced teachers have different needs with regard to professional development and personal needs. Principals should consider this factor when planning and doing staff development. For example, teachers who have been practising for longer than 10 years may not need the same kind of affirmation as novice teachers. Novice teachers need to be affirmed more often than experienced teachers.

Significant lessons can be learned from the teachers' and principals' responses in this study. The results might be generalised to schools in similar contexts in South Africa and other developing countries. Further studies could then be conducted based on the recommendations and findings of this study.

This study also contributes to the body of knowledge with regard to whether primary school teachers or secondary school teachers have greater levels of teacher efficacy. Working with learners in primary schools is different from working with learners in secondary schools. Secondary school learners tend to challenge teachers' authority more often than primary school learners. These factors can have a negative impact on efficacy levels of teachers in secondary schools as compared to those in primary schools.

The study was conducted in rural and township schools of a province in South Africa. Therefore, it contributes by providing an African perspective on leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy.

The findings of the research are consistent with the literature, which indicates that principals' leadership strategies have an influence on teacher efficacy. The findings also indicated that principals preferred four leadership strategies, namely: encouragement and motivation; communication and support; provision of resources; and emphasising teachers' abilities and capabilities. However, the leadership strategy of emphasising teachers' abilities and capabilities was least applied. This is contrary to the literature which reveals that teachers' abilities and capabilities is an essential element of teacher efficacy.

It should, however, be noted that each school is different and faces unique circumstances, problems and difficulties. Therefore, the recommendations of this study need to be applied after a school has undergone a SWOT analysis process to determine which leadership strategies need more attention and which ones have to be sustained. Principals can use the questionnaire in this study (Appendix G) to assist them during the SWOT analysis process, as some principals requested the researcher to use the questionnaire in their schools.

Finally, the study contributes to the understanding of practices of teachers with high efficacy versus those with low self-efficacy.

7.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher encountered problems with regard to the response time and rate, despite all the attempts to ensure a maximum and timely response. One of the problems encountered was that some teachers and principals mostly had not completed the questionnaires by the time the researcher arrived at their schools. Others could not locate the questionnaires immediately. So, collection at some schools was very minimal, with half of the distributed questionnaires retrieved.

As indicated earlier, most principals did not complete the questionnaire because of various reasons. Their reasons for not completing the questionnaire included, *inter alia*, the following: they were too busy with meetings; they forgot to complete the questionnaire, or they misplaced the questionnaire. Some principals were not available during collection due to other commitments or sickness. This poor response from principals made it difficult to compare the views of teachers and principals during data analysis.

The study required participating teachers to evaluate the leadership activities of principals. It is possible that some respondents might have favoured the principal, which could have led to more positive evaluations. On the other hand, in cases where the teacher was not on good terms with the principal, there could have been a negative evaluation of the principal's leadership activities. In addition, principals had to evaluate their own activities. This could have resulted in a more positive response or a no response at all, as was indicated by the low response rate of principals.

A further limitation of the study was that a purely quantitative study was conducted. A qualitative study could have provided more insight into the leadership activities of principals. This excluded the everyday experiences that teachers had in their working environments with regard to the leadership activities of principals. Another limitation of the study was that the quantitative approach yielded a limited number of respondents. The limited number of respondents may have given a limited view on principals' leadership activities.

7.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter provided a summary of chapters 1 to 6. The research findings on the three aims of this study were discussed. This was followed by recommendations and motivation for each recommendation as derived from the literature and the empirical research. Recommendations for further research were made. These recommendations were followed by contributions of the study.

From the literature and data gathered it can be concluded that principals of township and rural schools need to optimise the efficacy of their teachers by emphasising teachers' abilities and

capabilities more, because such teachers tend to focus more on external factors as major determinants of learner academic achievement rather than their own quality of teaching. The literature reveals that teachers with a high efficacy tend to accept responsibility for the academic outcomes of their learners. This is contrary to teachers with a low efficacy, who are more inclined to attribute poor academic performance of their learners to external factors, *inter alia*, poverty, learner ill-discipline, poor parental involvement, lack of resources, and working conditions. Furthermore, teachers with a low efficacy tend to believe that their teaching makes little or no difference in learner achievement. They also become easily demotivated, thus they put little or no extra effort into their teaching. It is therefore imperative that principals of township and rural schools inculcate amongst their various leadership strategies (mentioned in chapter 6) leadership actions that could optimise teacher efficacy.

The study was an eye-opener to the researcher because of the poor participation of principals who maybe did not have sufficient time or were under tremendous pressure to do other urgent matters and found no time to complete the questionnaires. It could also be that South African principals are overworked. However, principals did not resist or prevent the researcher from continuing with the study. This was humbling. Personally the researcher benefitted a lot from the study, going through the literature, data analysis and reporting on the findings was quite enlightening.

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APPENDIX A: ETHICS APPLICATION

NWU Ethics Application

Project Leader (Title, Initials & Surname)	Project Title (see § 3.1)
Dr BH Challens	LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY IN TOWNSHIP AND RURAL SCHOOLS IN A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE

NWU Ethics Number											
N	W	U	-							-	
<small>Institution</small>		<small>Project Number</small>						<small>Year</small>		<small>Status</small>	
<small>Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation</small>											
(for office use only)											

Sec 8e: Statistical Consultation Service

The statistician of the Statistical Consultation Service of the North-West University completes this section (where applicable).

More information

Prior consultation with Statistical Consultation Service can eliminate many problems, simplify and expedite the evaluation and also prevent applications from being returned due to poor project planning and/or statistical justifiability. Where the project leader has sufficient statistical expertise at his disposal, this is, however, not compulsory.


The Ethics Committee relies completely on the professional judgement of the statistician.

Have you ascertained the experimental design of the study and is it statistically justifiable according to your judgement?

(Please mark with X in the appropriate box and provide details)

Yes	No	Remarks
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-

Name (Title, Full Names & Surname)	Qualifications
Prof Susanna Maria Ellis (Pr Sci Nat)	PhD (Statistics)

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Signature	Date																				

Remember to save your document regularly as you complete it!

APPENDIX B: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FROM THE REGISTRAR TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY[®]
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom

South Africa 2520

School for Education Studies

Tel: 0182994754

Fax: 0182994712

Email: Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

The Registrar

North West University

Potchefstroom Campus

Dear Sir/Madame

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT

I herewith request permission from the Registrar of the North-West University to conduct research in schools of the Ngaka Modiri Molema District of the North West Province.

The details of the research are as follows:

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:

**LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY IN A DISTRICT IN THE
NORTH WEST PROVINCE**

Project Supervisor: Dr BH Challens

Room 211, Building C6, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2994754 / 072 200 3780 / Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

Members of Project Team:

Co-Supervisor: Prof J Heystek

Room G21, Building B10, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2991906 / 084 722 9136 / Jan.Heystek@nwu.ac.za

PhD-Student: Mr MV Mogonediwa

Address: 60 Second Street, Lichtenburg, 2740

Contact Details: 0738703238 / vicmaiketso@gmail.com

This study has been approved by the Ethics committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences of the North-West University, and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines of this committee.

What is this research about?

The aims of this research are:

- To determine the nature of teacher efficacy.
- To determine what the views of teachers and principals are with regard to the leadership strategies to enhance teacher efficacy.
- To determine which leadership strategies could be used by principals in order to assist teachers to optimise their efficacy.

To address these aims, the researchers will collect data from 40 schools in the District. Data will be collected from 7 teachers and the principals from each of the 40 schools by means of questionnaires that will be distributed to them.

Respondents

The respondents in the research will include both primary and secondary school teachers and principals.

What is expected of respondents?

It would be expected of respondents to participate by completing the questionnaires that will be distributed to them. The questionnaire will ask questions to determine which leadership strategies could be used to optimise teacher efficacy. Completion of the questionnaire will take about twenty minutes of the participant's time and will be conducted at a time that will suit them. Completing the

questionnaire will not be conducted during normal teaching hours and the formal school programme will not be disrupted by the research.

Benefits to respondents

Unfortunately, there will be no financial benefits to the respondents. They will not receive any remuneration for participation. They will however, play an important role in providing insights on leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. These insights could be used by school leadership to implement the findings of the research in order to improve teacher efficacy. The results will be made available on request to the school.

Risks involved for respondents

There are no anticipated risks foreseen for respondents in this research. The questionnaire will be completed after hours, at a time that suits the participant. The only discomfort they may have is that they would have to sacrifice about twenty minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire. Should they at any time feel uncomfortable to continue with the questionnaire, they are free to withdraw without any penalty. Their withdrawal will not be held against them and their participation is entirely voluntary.

Confidentiality and protection of identity

The respondents' names will never be published in this research. The information given by respondents in the questionnaire will be treated as confidential and will be used only for purposes of this research. All data collected will be stored in a safe place.

Dissemination of findings

The findings of this research will be made available to the district, schools and respondents on request.

We trust that you will consider our request favourably.

Yours sincerely

.....

Dr BH Challens
Supervisor

.....

MV Mogonediwa
PhD student

APPENDIX C: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FROM THE NORTH WEST DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SELECTED DISTRICT



Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom

South Africa 2520

School for Education Studies

Tel: 0182994754

Fax: 0182994712

Email: Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

The Superintendent General

North West Department of Basic Education

Mmabatho

Dear Madame

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT

I herewith request permission from the North-West Provincial Department of Basic Education, Ngaka Modiri Molema District to conduct research in 40 primary and secondary schools in the district.

The details of the research are as follows:

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:

LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY IN A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE

Project Supervisor: Dr BH Challens

Room 211, Building C6, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2994754 / 072 200 3780 / Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

Members of Project Team:

Co-Supervisor: Prof J Heystek

Room G21, Building B10, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2991906 / 084 722 9136 / Jan.Heystek@nwu.ac.za

PhD-Student: Mr MV Mogonediwa

Address: 60 Second Street, Lichtenburg, 2740

Contact Details: 0738703238 / vicmaiketso@gmail.com

This study has been approved by the Ethics committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences of the North-West University, and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines of this committee.

What is this research about?

The aims of this research are:

- To determine the nature of teacher efficacy.
- To determine what the views of teachers and principals are with regard to the leadership strategies to enhance teacher efficacy.
- To determine which leadership strategies could be used by principals in order to assist teachers to optimise their efficacy.

To address these aims, the researchers will collect data from 40 schools in the District. Data will be collected from 7 teachers and the principals from each of the 40 schools by means of questionnaires that will be distributed to them.

Respondents

The respondents in the research will include both primary and secondary school teachers and principals.

What is expected of respondents?

It would be expected of respondents to participate by completing the questionnaires that will be distributed to them. The questionnaire will ask questions to determine which leadership strategies could be used to optimise teacher efficacy. Completion of the questionnaire will take about twenty minutes of the participant’s time and will be conducted at a time that will suit them. Completing the questionnaire will not be conducted during normal teaching hours and the formal school programme will not be disrupted by the research.

Benefits to respondents

Unfortunately, there will be no financial benefits to the respondents. They will not receive any remuneration for participation. They will however, play an important role in providing insights on leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. These insights could be used by school leadership to implement the findings of the research in order to improve teacher efficacy. The results will be made available on request to the school.

Risks involved for respondents

There are no anticipated risks foreseen for respondents in this research. The questionnaire will be completed after hours, at a time that suits the participant. The only discomfort they may have is that they would have to sacrifice about twenty minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire. Should they at any time feel uncomfortable to continue with the questionnaire, they are free to withdraw without any penalty. Their withdrawal will not be held against them and their participation is entirely voluntary.

Confidentiality and protection of identity

The respondents’ names will never be published in this research. The information given by respondents in the questionnaire will be treated as confidential and will be used only for purposes of this research. All data collected will be stored in a safe place.

Dissemination of findings

The findings of this research will be made available to the district, schools and respondents on request.

We trust that you will consider our request favourably.

Yours sincerely

.....
Dr BH Challens

.....
MV Mogonediwa

Supervisor

PhD student

APPENDIX D: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FROM SCHOOL GOVERNING BODIES TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY[®]
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520

School for Education Studies

Tel: 0182994754

Fax: 0182994712

Email: Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

The School Governing Body Chairperson

Dear Sir/Madame

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL

I herewith request permission from the School Governing Body to conduct research in your school.

The details of the research are as follows:

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:

**LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY IN A DISTRICT IN THE
NORTH WEST PROVINCE**

Project Supervisor: Dr BH Challens

Room 211, Building C6, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2994754 / 072 200 3780 / Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

Members of Project Team:

Co-Supervisor: Prof J Heystek

Room G21, Building B10, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2991906 / 084 722 9136 / Jan.Heystek@nwu.ac.za

PhD-Student: Mr MV Mogonediwa

Address: 60 Second Street, Lichtenburg, 2740

Contact Details: 0738703238 / vicmaiketso@gmail.com

This study has been approved by the Ethics committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences of the North-West University, and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines of this committee.

What is this research about?

The aims of this research are:

- To determine the nature of teacher efficacy.
- To determine what the views of teachers and principals are with regard to the leadership strategies to enhance teacher efficacy.
- To determine which leadership strategies could be used by principals in order to assist teachers to optimise their efficacy.

To address these aims, the researchers will collect data from 40 schools in the District. Data will be collected from 7 teachers and the principals from each of the 40 schools by means of questionnaires that will be distributed to them.

Respondents

The respondents in the research will include both primary and secondary school teachers and principals.

What is expected of respondents?

It would be expected of respondents to participate by completing the questionnaires that will be distributed to them. The questionnaire will ask questions to determine which leadership strategies could be used to optimise teacher efficacy. Completion of the questionnaire will take about twenty

minutes of the participant's time and will be conducted at a time that will suit them. Completing the questionnaire will not be conducted during normal teaching hours and the formal school programme will not be disrupted by the research.

Benefits to respondents

Unfortunately, there will be no financial benefits to the respondents. They will not receive any remuneration for participation. They will however, play an important role in providing insights on leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. These insights could be used by school leadership to implement the findings of the research in order to improve teacher efficacy. The results will be made available on request to the school.

Risks involved for respondents

There are no anticipated risks foreseen for respondents in this research. The questionnaire will be completed after hours, at a time that suits the participant. The only discomfort they may have is that they would have to sacrifice about twenty minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire. Should they at any time feel uncomfortable to continue with the questionnaire, they are free to withdraw without any penalty. Their withdrawal will not be held against them and their participation is entirely voluntary.

Confidentiality and protection of identity

The respondents' names will never be published in this research. The information given by respondents in the questionnaire will be treated as confidential and will be used only for purposes of this research. All data collected will be stored in a safe place.

Dissemination of findings

The findings of this research will be made available to the district, schools and respondents on request.

We trust that you will consider our request favourably.

Yours sincerely

.....

Dr BH Challens

Supervisor

.....

MV Mogonediwa

PhD student

APPENDIX E: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FROM SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom

South Africa 2520

School for Education Studies

Tel: 0182994754

Fax: 0182994712

Email: Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

The Principal

Sir / Madam

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL

I herewith wish to request your permission to conduct research in your school. Permission have already been obtained from the Senior Manager of your District (See letter attached).

The details of the research are as follows:

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:

LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY IN A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE

Project Supervisor: Dr BH Challens

Room 211, Building C6, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2994754 / 072 200 3780 / Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

Members of Project Team:

Co-Supervisor: Prof J Heystek

Room G21, Building B10, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2991906 / 084 722 9136 / Jan.Heystek@nwu.ac.za

PhD-Student: Mr MV Mogonediwa

Address: 60 Second Street, Lichtenburg, 2740

Contact Details: 0738703238 / vicmaiketso@gmail.com

This study has been approved by the Ethics committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences of the North-West University, and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines of this committee.

What is this research about?

The aims of this research are:

- To determine the nature of teacher efficacy.
- To determine what the views of teachers and principals are with regard to the leadership strategies to enhance teacher efficacy.
- To determine which leadership strategies could be used by principals in order to assist teachers to optimise their efficacy.

To address these aims, the researcher will collect data from 40 schools in this District of the North-West Province. Data will be collected from 7 teachers and the principal from each of the 40 schools by means of questionnaires.

Respondents

The respondents in the research will include primary and secondary school teachers and principals.

What is expected of respondents?

It would be expected of respondents to participate by completing the questionnaires that will be distributed to them. The questionnaire will ask questions to determine which leadership strategies could be used to optimise teacher efficacy. Completion of the questionnaire will take about twenty minutes of the participant's time and will be conducted at a time that will suit them. Completing the questionnaire will not be conducted during normal teaching hours and the formal school programme will not be disrupted by the research.

Benefits to respondents

Unfortunately, there will be no financial benefits to the respondents. They will not receive any remuneration for participation. They will however, play an important role in providing insights on

leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. These insights could be used by school leadership to implement the findings of the research in order to improve teacher efficacy. The results will be made available on request to the school.

Risks involved for respondents

There are no anticipated risks foreseen for respondents in this research. The questionnaire will be completed after hours, at a time that suits the participant. The only discomfort they may have is that they would have to sacrifice about twenty minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire. Should they at any time feel uncomfortable to continue with the questionnaire, they are free to withdraw without any penalty. Their withdrawal will not be held against them and their participation is entirely voluntary.

Confidentiality and protection of identity

The respondents' names will never be published in this research. The information given by respondents in the questionnaire will be treated as confidential and will be used only for purposes of this research. All data collected will be stored in a safe place.

Dissemination of findings

The findings of this research will be made available to the schools and respondents on their request.

We trust that you will consider our request favourably.

Yours sincerely

.....

Dr BH Challens
Supervisor

.....

MV Mogonediwa
PhD student

APPENDIX F: INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom

South Africa 2520

School for Education Studies

Tel: 0182994587

Fax: 0182994712

Email: Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

I herewith wish to request your consent to participate in this research which involves both primary and secondary school teachers and principals. Before you give consent, please acquaint yourself with the information below.

The details of the research are as follows:

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:

LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY IN A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE

Project Supervisor: Dr BH Challens

Room 211, Building C6, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2994754 / 072 200 3780 / Branwen.Challens@nwu.ac.za

Members of Project Team:

Co-Supervisor: Prof J Heystek

Room G21, Building B10, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 2520

Contact Details: 018 2991906 / 084 722 9136 / Jan.Heystek@nwu.ac.za

PhD-Student: Mr MV Mogonediswa

Address: 60 Second Street, Lichtenburg, 2740

Contact Details: 0738703238 / vicmaiketso@gmail.com

This study has been approved by the Ethics committee of the Faculty of Education Sciences of the North-West University, and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines of this committee.

What is this research about?

The aims of this research are:

- To determine the nature of teacher efficacy.
- To determine what the views of teachers and principals are with regard to the leadership strategies to enhance teacher efficacy.
- To determine which leadership strategies could be used by principals in order to assist teachers to optimise their efficacy.

To address these aims, the researchers will collect data from 40 schools in the District. Data will be collected from 7 teachers and the principals from each of the 40 schools by means of questionnaires that will be distributed to them.

Respondents

The respondents in the research will include both primary and secondary school teachers and principals.

What is expected of respondents?

It would be expected of respondents to participate by completing the questionnaires that will be distributed to them. The questionnaire will ask questions to determine which leadership strategies could be used to optimise teacher efficacy. Completion of the questionnaire will take about twenty minutes of the participant's time and will be conducted at a time that will suit them. Completing the questionnaire will not be conducted during normal teaching hours and the formal school programme will not be disrupted by the research.

Benefits to respondents

Unfortunately, there will be no financial benefits to the respondents. They will not receive any remuneration for participation. They will however, play an important role in providing insights on leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy. These insights could be used by school

leadership to implement the findings of the research in order to improve teacher efficacy. The results will be made available on request to the school.

Risks involved for respondents

There are no anticipated risks foreseen for respondents in this research. The questionnaire will be completed after hours, at a time that suits the participant. The only discomfort they may have is that they would have to sacrifice about twenty minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire. Should they at any time feel uncomfortable to continue with the questionnaire, they are free to withdraw without any penalty. Their withdrawal will not be held against them and their participation is entirely voluntary.

Confidentiality and protection of identity

The respondents' names will never be published in this research. The information given by respondents in the questionnaire will be treated as confidential and will be used only for purposes of this research. All data collected will be stored in a safe place.

Dissemination of findings

The findings of this research will be made available to the district, schools and respondents on request.

If you have any further questions or enquiries regarding your participation in this research, please contact the researchers for more information.

Declaration by participant

By signing below, I agree to take part in a research study entitled:

LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO OPTIMISE TEACHER EFFICACY IN A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE

I declare that:

I have read this information and consent form and understand what is expected of me in the research.

I have had a chance to ask questions to the researcher and all my questions have been adequately answered.

I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary and I have not been pressurised to take part.

I may choose to leave the study at any time and will not be penalised or prejudiced in any way.

I may be asked to leave the research process before it has finished, if the researcher feels it is in my best interests, or if I do not follow the research procedures, as agreed to.

Signed at (place) on (date) 20....

Signature of participant

Signature of witness

APPENDIX G: QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRINCIPALS AND EDUCATORS

(For official use only)

Questionnaire no:

--	--	--

DIRECTIONS FOR COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE:

- You need not enter your name, the name of your school or stamp of the school. This means your honest answer will not affect you or your school negatively.
- Kindly give honest answers or opinions because confidentiality of your responses is guaranteed and assured.
- It is important to read the instructions to each section carefully, before answering it.
- Lastly, I would like to thank you for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Kindly answer the following questions by marking with an X in the box that corresponds with your choice or by entering the relevant answer.

A1 Gender

Male	1
Female	2

A2 Your age in completed years (last birthday)

--	--

A3 Home language

Afrikaans	1
English	2
isiNdebele	3
isiXhosa	4
isiZulu	5
Sepedi	6
Sesotho	7
Setswana	8
Siswati	9
Tshivenda	10
Xitsonga	11
Other (Specify)	12

A5 Your teaching experience in completed years

--	--

A6 Your current post level

Post level 1	1
Post level 2	2
Post level 3	3
Post level 4	4
Post level 5	5

A7 Your number of years in present position

--	--

A8 Your highest educational qualification

Teachers certificate (2 years training)	1
Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE)	2
Teachers diploma (3 years training)	3

Bachelor's degree	4
Honour's degree/Bed	5
Master's degree	6
PhD degree	7

SECTION B: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA (SECTION B IS TO BE COMPLETED BY THE PRINCIPAL ONLY)

B1 School location

Farm	1
Village	2
Township (former Black, Coloured or Indian)	3

B2 School type

Primary	1
Combined	2
Secondary	3

B3 number of educators in your school

1-10	1
11-20	2
21- 30	3
31 and more	4

B4 Number of learners in your school

0-200	1
201-400	2
401-600	3
601-800	4
801-1000	5
1001 and more	6

B5 Your school's quintile ranking

Quintile 1	1
Quintile 2	2

Quintile 3	3
Quintile 4	4
Quintile 5	5

SECTION C: SOURCES OF TEACHER EFFICACY AND LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES TO ENHANCE TEACHER EFFICACY

Please indicate with “X” the extent to which each of the statements below occurs in your school by marking any one of the five responses in the columns on the right side, ranging from (1) “Not at all” to (5) “A Great Deal” as each represents a degree on the continuum.

	Not at all	Very little	Some degree	Quite a bit	A great deal
The principal ...					
C1 ... reallocates teachers whose learners' academic results are poor in a subject to another grade or subject which are more applicable to the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
C2 ... expresses high expectations about teacher performance.	1	2	3	4	5
C3 ... attributes the success of teachers to their own teaching capabilities.	1	2	3	4	5

C4 ...emphasises teachers' capabilities rather than the difficulty of the task.	1	2	3	4	5
C5 ... expresses faith in teachers' capabilities.	1	2	3	4	5
C6 ... shows calmness in a stressful situation	1	2	3	4	5
C7 ... encourages teachers to solve problems that are within their reach.	1	2	3	4	5
C8 ... distributes work equally and fairly amongst all teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
C9 ... encourages teachers to visit classes of their successful colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
C10 ... is a role model of values and practices that are important to the school.	1	2	3	4	5
C11 ...encourages teachers to participate in establishing school goals.	1	2	3	4	5
C12 ... motivates teachers to attend professional development activities.	1	2	3	4	5
C13 ... supervises and evaluates teachers work.	1	2	3	4	5
C14 ... is visible in the school environment.	1	2	3	4	5

C15 ...encourages teachers to be free to speak the truth without repercussions or victimisation.	1	2	3	4	5
C16 ... gives teachers a realistic appraisal about their performance.	1	2	3	4	5
C17 ... gives teachers feedback that is constructive.	1	2	3	4	5
C18 ...walks around the school to identify possible threats to the safety of teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
C19 ...shows appreciation to the efforts of the teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
C20 ... recognises the accomplishments of the teachers publicly.	1	2	3	4	5
C21 ... informs teachers about what is going on in the school.	1	2	3	4	5
C22 ... encourages teachers to persevere.	1	2	3	4	5
C23 ... encourages teachers to try new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
C24 ... shows empathy to teachers experiencing emotional problems.	1	2	3	4	5
C25 ... establishes a positive relationship with teachers.	1	2	3	4	5

C26 ... establishes sub-committees to involve teachers in the decision-making processes of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
C27 ... addresses each teacher by surname and title to make them feel valued.	1	2	3	4	5
C28 ... establishes standards of excellence and targets to be achieved by teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
C29 ... communicates with teachers about the school goals.	1	2	3	4	5
C30 ... distributes circulars, minutes of meetings, agendas and notices to teachers in good time.	1	2	3	4	5
C31 ... communicates verbally in a clear, unambiguous manner to teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
C32 ... gives teachers complete details of the message.	1	2	3	4	5
C33 ... communicates clearly to teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
C34 ... removes obstacles to effective teaching. .	1	2	3	4	5
C35 ... sets clear directions for teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
C36 ... respects the decisions made by teachers in sub-committees.	1	2	3	4	5

C37 ... inspires and supports individual teachers regularly.	1	2	3	4	5
C38 ... does not criticise individual teachers publicly.	1	2	3	4	5
C39 ... helps teachers to think through the obstacles that confront them.	1	2	3	4	5
C40 ... encourages positive and collaborative relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
C41 ... encourages teachers to put more effort in their work.	1	2	3	4	5
C42 ... is seen as trustworthy by teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
C43 ... encourages teachers to lead sub-committees.	1	2	3	4	5
C44 ... treats teachers with respect.	1	2	3	4	5
C45 ... addresses school problems promptly.	1	2	3	4	5
C46 ... ensures that there is good discipline in the school.	1	2	3	4	5
C47 ... protects teaching time from unnecessary disturbances.	1	2	3	4	5
C48 ... ensures that the needed resources and	1	2	3	4	5

facilities are available to teachers.					
C49 ... ensures that the school environment is clean.	1	2	3	4	5
C50 ... is consistent in rewarding teachers who have performed well.	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Dr. JACKIE DE VOS

BA (Psychology & Communication studies), BAHons (Psychology) (NWU)
MEd, PhD (Educational Psychology) (NWU)
BAHons (Translation) (UNISA)



072 435 8024

Jackie de Vos

acadwritingconsult@icloud.com

LANGUAGE EDITING

01 May 2019

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that the dissertation titled "Leadership strategies to optimise teacher efficacy in a district of the North West province" was edited.

The onus rests on the client(s) to work through the proposed track changes and to accept or reject proposed changes. Clients/promoters may decide to make amendments after the editing process, which may possibly introduce language, technical or other errors. Clients must also make certain that all sources/references have been cited.

Yours sincerely.

Dr Jackie de Vos