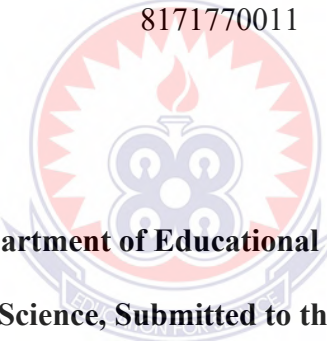UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHING PRACTICE PROGRAMME ON THE SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS OF PARTNER SCHOOLS IN THE AHAFO-ANO NORTH MUNICIPALITY

MALIHATU SALIFU

8171770011

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MARCH, 2022

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, MALIHATU SALIFU, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE: ………………………………

DATE: ………………………………………

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of project work laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: REV. FR. DR. FRANCIS K. SAM

SIGNATURE: …………………………….

DATE: …………………………………….

DEDICATION

To my husband Mr. Abubakari Hussein and children, Maria, Samia, Maisura, Hussein, Najeeb, Nana Ayisha, Munira and Ummamat for their unconditional love, support, understanding and guidance throughout this work, may Allah continue to strengthen the bond between us. This work is also dedicated all to the memory of my late Mother, Hajia Martha who, always had faith in me and continue to be a source of motivation for me even after her demise, may Allah have mercy on my parents and all departed souls.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are times that we begin to lose trust in ourselves because of the challenges that life throws at us, but if not for the people around us who have faith in us and know our abilities even beyond our own imagination. These are people who see the best in us even more than ourselves and encourage us to break all odds to achieve our goals in life. First and foremost, I would like to thank the Almighty Allah for being at my side during the time of my life. He has been my guide throughout this work even when there were times I felt like quitting. The spiritual support has helped to keep me focused.
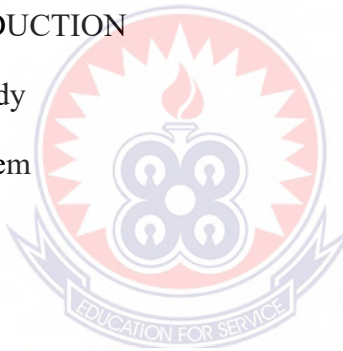
I would also like to thank my Supervisor Rev. Fr. Dr. Francis Sam who, I know had faith than I possibly had in myself. You were always ready to render your unflinching support and patience for me even at times I knew I appeared a lot clumsier than one could ever imagine. Your high level of expectation made me work harder than I ever could imagine. I really appreciate every effort you had to put in to see to the completion of this work. May God Almighty continue to bless you.

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Thanks to Mr. Joseph Gyamfi, Assistant Headmaster of Tepa senior high school for your constant encouragement towards the completion of the work. And to all those who helped in diverse ways for the completion of this work, may God bless you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

The study sought to explore the effectiveness of teaching practice programme on the self-efficacy beliefs of beginning teachers of the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. The objectives of the study are to; identify the relative levels of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality; determine the influence teaching practice programme has on the beginning teachers' self-efficacy on teaching and assess the influence of gender on self-efficacy on teaching of beginning teachers. The sample for the study was 110 beginning teachers using purposive sampling method. The study adopted the mixed method approach. Questionnaires, interview and observation were used to collect data for the study. The study revealed that teachers possessed high classroom management skills, with moderate level of students' academic engagement whilst adopting a rather poor instructional strategies in their lesson delivery. Again, teaching practice programme had provided opportunities for the development in classroom management and also teaching to meet the learner's level and classroom management; both larger number of male and female newly trained teachers' exhibited classroom management efficacy whiles female teachers highly related to job satisfaction. It was concluded that teaching practice programme greatly influnced the beginning teacher's self-efficacy. It was recommended therefore that the District Educational Directorate and heads of partner schools should provide effective assistance to improve the teaching efficacy of both female and male newly trained basic school teachers to predict and enhance teaching efficacy among the newly trained basic school teachers.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Good teaching practice is a key influence on teachers work performance and student learning, yielding a desired outcome of teaching. Teaching practice makes beginning teachers strive to meet the principles of good practice in an effort to provide the best learning experience for their students (Oduro, 2003). Student teachers teaching practice programme is the most important experience in teacher education programme for the enhancement of beginning teachers teaching competency and efficacy. Teaching practice is a compulsory course for all aspiring student teachers registered in a teacher preparation programme in Ghana (Oduro, 2003).

Bush and Oduro (2006) indicated that student teachers' teaching practice programme at any higher institution is a well-structured programme designed to provide an opportunity to develop and evaluate aspiring teachers' competence in an actual classroom within school settings. The teaching practice exercise is the culminating point where the relationship among the three major players: university supervisor, host teacher, and aspiring teacher interface to determine the quality of experience the aspiring teaching will take away. It becomes the bedrock on which the aspiring teacher, once certified and employed, builds their professional identity. It is therefore, necessary that aspiring teachers are paired with competent, knowledgeable and concerned university supervisors to help them assume the full range of duties of a teacher during this hands-on training period. Host teachers have equally vital influence in aspiring teachers' professional growth and development (Oduro, 2003).

According to Gibson and Dembo (2014), teaching practice plays a significant role in formation of perception of pre-service teachers', regarding their roles and responsibilities as professional teachers. Teaching practice invites the student-teachers to exercise all the skills learned in a real classroom situation (Freeman, 2012). Teaching practice will be the time that trainee teachers will get to work with experienced teachers. This is a crucial step in learning to be an effective teacher. It is also the time for trainees to put into practice the theories that they have learned in their course. Learning to teach typically involves spending considerable time in schools participating in field experiences of varying lengths, the staples of teacher preparation programs (Freeman, 2012). Teaching practice also provides a multi-source feedback to the teacher trainees regarding their activities in the cooperating schools. The school's principal will orient, observe and evaluate them. They will also obtain academic feedback from experienced specialists, supervisors, cooperating teachers and other student teachers in the same school (Eseryel, 2012).

Soodak and Podell (2016) indicated that among the key outcome of teaching practice for the teacher trainees is the development of teacher self-efficacy in teaching. Self-efficacy beliefs are a component of social cognitive theory, as postulated by Bandura (1977), who considers it to be the key construct of human agency. Therefore, self-efficacy operates through its impact on cognitive, motivational, affective, and decisional processes (Bandura, 1977). For example, teachers prefer to teach content that is more familiar rather than following prescribed curriculum content. Moreover, if teachers do not believe that they are capable of coping with the demands of teaching, they may choose to abandon their careers prematurely (Pajares, 2016).

In the domain of teaching, self-efficacy is defined as a teacher's judgement of their capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated (Pajares, 2016). In other words, the judgement teachers make about their own capacities are not directly related to the abilities they possess, but rather to what they can effectively do with those abilities (Coladarci, 2012). Coladarci (2012) noted that studies on self-efficacy regarding learning and teaching have shown the predictive role of this belief on self-regulating processes and other variables, such as satisfaction with teaching and greater commitment. Soodak and Podell (2013) posit those teachers with high self-efficacy design interesting and challenging programs to motivate students and also create a better learning atmosphere for student' learning process, set different teaching objectives and adjust the difficult level of the curriculum for students. Pajares (2016) noted positive relationship between self-efficacy and the teaching practice programme and teacher self-efficacy beliefs in teaching effectiveness.

A society without effective teachers does not bear thinking about. Teachers educate and shape the minds of the younger generation and prepare them to be contributing citizens to their specific communities and the world at large. Kurz (2010) indicated that teachers bring into the classroom dictates the quality of the educational experiences of their students. In order to understand how to create optimal learning environments that promote interest in academics, it is essential that we study teacher variables linked to student interest via teacher self-efficacy beliefs. Agreeably, teachers perform a myriad of tasks including, but not limited to, managing the classrooms, preparing and delivering lessons, assessing the work of students, and enhancing student

3

motivation for achievement. Perhaps one of the best documented attributes of effective teachers is a strong sense of efficacy (Pajares, 2016).

Guskey (2008) related a strong sense of teacher efficacy to a variety of positive teaching behaviours and student outcomes. Teachers' sense of efficacy can be viewed as the belief in their capability to make a difference in student learning, to be able to get through even to students who are difficult or unmotivated developed via teaching practice programmes (Fullan, 2011). According to Guskey(2008), teacher efficacy has been linked to positive student outcomes and to student motivation and concluded that teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy find innovative ways to ensure that students learn. Efficacious teachers are not satisfied with underachievers and work diligently with students to promote student self-efficacy (Guskey, 2008).

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Students' population is growing in Ghana and the need for the beginning teacher in the profession is also growing. The various methods to adopt to enhance the performance of beginning teachers must be an issue of outmost importance for management in educational institutions. The quality of the educational process, to a very large extent, depends on the quality of teachers. This is especially true at the initial stages of education, because if beginning teachers are discouraged or do not have the necessary expertise, pupils learn very little.

In Ghana much emphasis is placed on education because it is believed to be the only avenue for national development (Adetunde & Asare, 2009). However, this can only be achieved if the teachers who are at the center of impacting knowledge have a firm grip

of what they are supposed to do as well as being efficacious about it. How well a beginning teacher is able to perform stems greatly from how effective his or her teaching practice programme was carried out. All over the country and for that matter the Ahafo Ano North Municipality, beginning teachers have been accused of ineffective classroom management and poor instructional strategies which has usually left learners with poor academic performance.

At the various teacher training institutions, teachers are trained to acquire and cultivate the habit of competencies and capabilities, initiative, responsibility and assistance to those in need and even go to the extent of serving as role models. Unfortunately, some of these trainees, when they complete school, college or the university and are newly employed, tend not to be on top of teaching and start to practice poor classroom management strategies, instructional strategies and unable to enhance students' academic or learning engagement. Thus, beginning teachers are accused of not being able to teach effectively with poor classroom management and poor instructional strategies. Although some measures have being adopted by major stakeholders in the academic field to tackle this situation, there is the need for a deeper and further investigation. It is against this background that this study seeks to explore the effectiveness of teaching practice programme on beginning teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the effectiveness of teaching practice programme on the self-efficacy beliefs of the beginning teacher. The study which adopts the mixed research method seeks to find out how teaching practice programme can

influence or contribute to the competency of the beginning teacher. The study involves all beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality.

1.4 Objective of the Study

The study sought to:

1. Identify the relative levels of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality

2. Determine the influence teaching practice programme on beginning teacher self-efficacy on teaching in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality

3. Assess the influence of gender on self-efficacy on teaching of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality

4. Analyse the contribution of the teaching practice programme to the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality

1.5 Research Questions

The study addressed the following questions:

1. What are the relative levels of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality?

2. How does the teaching practice programme influence the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality?

3. What is the influence of gender on self-efficacy on teaching of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality?

4. What is the contribution of the teaching practice programme to the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study will enhance the understanding of the real determinants of self-efficacy beliefs of beginning Teachers. Also, it will contribute to knowledge in the field that is relevant to academics, policy makers and educational practitioners. For academics, it will not only enhance their knowledge on the field but it will also provide information that will inform the conduct of future researchers. For policy makers and educational practitioners, the findings will enable them to formulate policies that will help promote self-efficacy beliefs of Beginning Teachers. It is hoped that teacher trainers could use the study as a platform to reflect on their practices and strategies in supervising and assessing students doing teaching practice. Researcher also hoped that insights gained through the study could stimulate further study.

1.7 Delimitations of the study

This study was delimited to the Ahafo Ano North Municipal Educational Directorate. Moreover, the study was delimited to the teaching practice programme and newly trained teachers teaching self-efficacy beliefs. Again, only the newly trained teachers who have served between one to three years in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality Educational Directorate participated in the study.

1.8. Limitations of the study

The findings represent a select group of participants; only basic schools in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. In addition, not all teachers of the selected school had the

time to participate, and the selected sample may have had an inherent bias. Therefore, the findings should be generalized with caution.

The focus of the study was to assess the effectiveness of teaching practice on the self-efficacy beliefs of beginning teachers hence most respondents were not ready to discuss their competences and capabilities in the classroom hence the validity of the responses is based on the assumption the respondents were being honest. Finally, the responses were limited to those who could be located and who returned the survey. Non-respondents who did not completely fill out the survey are a limitation of any data collection relying on voluntary responses. Even though these limitations were not significant could affect the findings of the research.

1.9 Definition of Terms

Partner school – This refers to a school selected by a college or university with which to collaborate in order to provide a geographically preferable location or to meet a subject area need in which a candidate may be placed for their clinical experience in order to prepare teacher candidates across all clinical experiences.

Self-efficacy - Perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1977).

Teaching Practice Programme

Student teachers teaching practice is a kind of apprenticeship stage during which they are sent out to schools to gain practical and professional experience by

8

translating all the educational theories they have acquired or learnt during training into practice (Calderhead & Shorrock, 2007).

1.10 Organization of the Study

The study would be organized into five chapters. The first chapter dealt with the introduction which consists of background of the problem, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, and significance of the study, delimitation of the study, the limitations of the study and organization of the study. The second chapter reviews the relevant literature while the third chapter discusses the research methodology. The chapter four deals with the data presentation, analysis and discussion of data. The fifth chapter presents the summary, conclusion, and recommendation for the study findings.
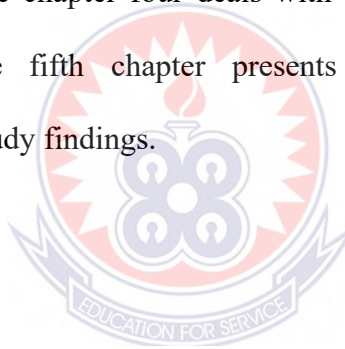
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews and discusses the existing literature relevant to the topic. Here, basic theories that underpin this study were reviewed and these include: teaching practice, teacher competency, the roles and responsibilities of the supervising teacher, self-efficacy, instructional strategies, concepts on classroom management and pupils' engagement.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded on Bandura (1977) social cognitive theory because the focus of the study is on beginning teacher's self-efficacy beliefs. Social cognitive theory stipulates that the environment provides models for behaviour and that environment and people influence each other through behavior. According to Hoy and Spero (2005), Bandura (1977) used the term "reciprocal determinism" to describe this relationship where personal factors, behaviors, and the environment equally interact and influence each other. Consequently, humans learn by observing others' behaviors in a social environment, internalizing what they observe others' doing, and imitating those behaviors (Bandura, 1977).

Beginning teachers teaching practice program embodies social cognitive theory because it provides a non-evaluative social environment where beginning teachers learn instructional techniques, observe and collaborate with their mentors, and attempt implementation of new skills and knowledge. Social cognitive theory also contends that

10

any type of learning must include reinforcement of correct behaviors, opportunities for learners to observe the actions of others, and incremental changes to learners' behaviors so that confidence are built over time. Bandura (1977) social cognitive theory asserts that these opportunities activate learners' self-efficacy. As claimed by Badura (1977), self-efficacy is defined as the way in which one views his/her ability to succeed in a given situation or environment. Self-efficacy is grounded in social cognitive theory because it emphasizes human agency, or the belief that humans have some influence over their actions. This perception of ability works alongside environmental factors and observing the behavior of others to impact learning. Self-efficacy, the environment, and learner behaviors reciprocally influence one another. Therefore, if beginning teachers feel ineffective, their instruction and school environment will be negatively impacted. Similarly, if beginning teachers teach in a negative school environment or perform poorly, their self-efficacy dwindles (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003).

Self-efficacy is important because research has shown it can predict teachers' inclinations towards innovation, implementation of teaching strategies, and finally, commitment to remain in the profession (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003). Bandura (1977) noted four sources of self-efficacy: mastery experiences, verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, and psychological and emotional arousal. Mastery experiences include actual teaching accomplishments regarding student achievement or learning. If teachers encounter success, they are more likely to believe they will be competent in the future. Verbal persuasion is influenced by the verbal feedback a teacher receives about her instruction from parents, colleagues, mentors. Those who receive consistent positive and/or constructive feedback are more likely to feel efficacious (Woolfolk & Hoy, 2010).

Vicarious experiences involve the impact of teachers viewing models of instructional techniques or strategies. If teachers identify with the modeler, then self-efficacy increases (Woolfolk & Hoy, 2010).

Finally, psychological and emotional arousal is shaped by the emotions that occur as a result of implementing a lesson (Woolfolk & Hoy, 2010). If teachers believe they successfully delivered instruction, then those positive emotions will help them associate teaching with a positive state of mind and ultimately be more receptive to additional teaching experiences. If teachers believe they were unsuccessful in delivering instruction, their emotional and psychological states will be negatively impacted and teachers might be less willing to improve their practice. Further, if teachers are too overwhelmed or stressed, they are not psychologically or emotionally ready to receive feedback about their practice (Woolfolk & Hoy, 2010).

In short, relying on social cognitive theory and beliefs about self-efficacy, the teaching practice program is based upon the following assumptions:

i. Teaching practice program that offers teachers professional development creates a supportive environment with mastery experiences. Beginning teachers are able to meet and co-plan with supervisors and colleagues, have time to discover and implement innovative instructional strategies successfully, and receive feedback on their instruction in a non-evaluative environment.

ii. Beginning teachers benefit from observational or vicarious learning; they watch the actions of mentors and find role models for their targeted behavior. During the beginning teachers teaching practice sessions, they will have opportunities

12

to observe the experienced teachers and master teachers employ effective instructional strategies and will have opportunities to adjust their instruction accordingly.

iii. Reinforcement or verbal persuasion from the mentors during teaching practice will help promote effective instructional practices while limiting the use of ineffective ones. Beginning teachers will receive various means of feedback to modify their behavior and reflect upon their instruction.

iv. The teaching practice program encourages learning in small increments; teachers have time to develop self-efficacy and develop positive emotional and psychological arousal. No one is expected to become a master teacher in the course of ten months; teachers have time to reflect upon and improve their instruction without being overwhelmed by unrealistic expectations.

2.3. Meaning of teaching practice

Student teachers teaching practice is a kind of apprenticeship stage during which they are sent out to schools to gain practical and professional experience by translating all the educational theories they have acquired or learnt during training into practice (Calderhead & Shorrock, 2007). It is a practical teaching activity by which the student -teachers are given an opportunity in actual school situations to demonstrate and improve training in pedagogical skill over a period of time (Calderhead & Shorrock, 2007). The term teaching practice has three major connotations: the practicing of teaching skills and acquisition of the role of a teacher; the whole range of experiences that students go through in schools; and the practical aspects of the course as distinct from theoretical studies (Connelly & Graham, 2009). Whatever definition is given to

teaching practice, the most important fact is that it is a professional exercise which is focused on helping the student-teacher to bridge the gap between theory and practice in education and develop competence as well (Farrel, 2011). In the process of bridging the gap between educational theories and practice, the student-teacher, through a program of cooperative and interactive guidance, acquires valuable skills in teaching and the management of teaching from experienced teachers thus improving their quality (Farrel, 2011).

2.4. Theoretical perspective of teaching practice

The teaching practice exercise is based on the social constructivist theory's concept of cognitive apprenticeship. Griffin (2009) succinctly defines cognitive apprenticeship as learning-through-guided-experience on cognitive and metacognitive, rather than physical, skills and processes. Learning in cognitive apprenticeship occurs through legitimate peripheral participation, a process in which newcomers enter on the periphery and gradually move toward full participation. According to Griffin (2009) much important learning by the child occurs through social interaction with a skillful tutor. The tutor may model behaviours and/or provide verbal instructions for the child. Griffin (2009) refers to this as co-operative or collaborative dialogue. The child seeks to understand the actions or instructions provided by the tutor (often the parent or teacher), then internalizes the information, using it to guide or regulate their own performance. In the context of teaching practice, the child represents the learner or teacher candidate while the tutor represents the supervisor who through collaborative dialogue, modelling, coaching or mentoring, guides the student teacher into acquiring teaching competencies.

According to Gujjar and Bajwa (2010), the central issue in learning is becoming a practitioner, not learning about practice. Huber and Hutchings (2005) identify four important aspects of traditional apprenticeship: modeling, scaffolding, fading, and coaching. To Huber and Hutchings (2005), modeling, a form of demonstration followed by imitation, is frequently used as a way of helping the learner progress through the Zone of Proximal Development. The work of Bandura (1977) showed that modeling is a more efficient way of learning than trial and error. In modeling, the apprentice observes the master demonstrating how to do different parts of the task. The master makes the target processes visible, often by explicitly showing the apprentice what to do. Similarly, during teaching practice the student teacher observes the school supervisor or the cooperating teacher for a specified period of time before they begin teaching in order to be able to imitate the supervisor (Griffin, 2009). Huber and Hutchings (2005) added that scaffolding is the support the master gives apprentices in carrying out a task. This can range from doing almost the entire task for them, to giving occasional hints as to what to do. Fading is the notion of slowly removing the support, giving the apprentice more and more responsibility. Usually, the student teacher works under the guidance of the supervisor who must correct their lesson plans and have pre and post conferences with the students to give them tips/hints and feedback respectively on their teaching and emphasized that with time the student teacher takes increasing responsibility of her teaching (Griffin, 2009). According to Huber and Hutchings (2005), coaching and mentoring are sometimes used synonymously. A mentor, by its most basic definition, according to Huber and Hutchings (2005), is one who mediates expert knowledge for novices, helping that which is tacit become more explicit. Gujjar and Bajwa (2010) indicated that the two most

common uses of the word mentoring are to describe: (a) a professional development relationship in which a more experienced participant assists a less experience done in developing a career and (b) a guiding relationship between an adult and a youth focused on helping the youth realize his or her potentials and perhaps overcome some barriers or challenges.

Nakpodia (2011) indicated that the master coaches the apprentice through a wide range of activities: choosing tasks, providing hints and scaffolding, evaluating the activities of apprentices and diagnosing the kinds of problems they are having. They also challenge them and offer encouragement, give feedback, structure the ways to do things and work on particular weaknesses. In short, coaching is the process of overseeing the student's learning. Some refer to mentoring and/or coaching as a form of scaffolding (Nakpodia, 2011). Nakpodia (2011) other researchers refer to scaffolding as an aspect of coaching while others maintain that they are separate strategies falling under the larger classification of cognitive apprenticeship. Whatever the case, the common thread in all these strategies is to help novices become experts in various fields through real world experiences (Nakpodia, 2011). At the center of apprenticeship is the concept of more experienced people assisting less experienced ones, providing structure and examples to support the attainment of goals which is the rationale for the teaching practice exercise (Nakpodia, 2011).

2.5. Prime goals of teaching practice

The central goal of student teaching practice programmes is to provide aspiring teachers challenging, relevant and rewarding field experiences to inculcate essential

16

teaching skills and professional growth (Rakesh, 2013). Teaching Practice is an opportunity for aspiring teachers to understand the role and operation of how the business of schooling is done. This field experience provides a challenging yet rewarding experience of working with students in actual classrooms and acquiring professional competence. It is believed that these experiences have the potential to enhance the teachers' acquisition of professional competence. Acquired experiences will include among other things, their ability to assume the various responsibilities of the classroom teacher as shared by (Rakesh, 2013).

- Plan and deliver instruction that meets the learning needs of all students regardless of their individual learning styles, developmental and cognitive levels, organize and manage the classroom environment for maximum academic performance, manage classroom interactions and student's behavior to create safe, conducive learning atmosphere for student academic success and also work cooperatively and collaboratively with students, parents, and other members of school community for the benefit of students learning.

- Exercise decision making in identifying and using age, content and grade level appropriate instructional strategies in lesson delivery, using appropriate assessment tools and methods to determine student learning and also use reflective practice to evaluate effectiveness of meeting intended instructional objectives.

- Create a dynamic classroom environment which fosters positive, effective communication among students, teachers, parents and other members of school community, demonstrate self-confidence and knowledge of your content and the

17

importance of your curriculum to students' everyday life and also understand the role and operation of the school

- Plan instruction and learning experiences which recognize the individual needs and differences of students, organize and manage the classroom environment to maximize learning, and also manage classroom interactions and student conduct to create a positive climate for learning.

2.6. Understanding of competency

Competency is a term used extensively by different people in different contexts; hence, it is defined in different ways (Bamey, 2010). Teacher education and job performance are two contexts in which this term is used. Competencies are the requirements of a "competency-based" teacher education and include the knowledge, skills and values a teacher-trainee must demonstrate for successful completion of a teacher education programme (Bamey, 2010). Bamey, (2010) noted the following as some characteristics of a competency:

- A competency consists of one or more skills whose mastery would enable the attainment of the competency.

- A competency is linked to all three of the domains under which performance can be assessed: knowledge, skills and attitude.

- Possessing a performance dimension, competencies are observable and demonstrable.

- Since competencies are observable, they are also measurable. It is possible to assess a competency from a teacher's performance. Teaching competencies may

18

require equal amounts of knowledge, skill and attitude, but some will not. Some competencies may involve more knowledge than skill or attitude, whereas, some competencies may be more skill or performance based.

Alan (2017) sees competence as a combination of knowledge, skills and behavior used to improve performance, or as the state or quality of being adequately qualified and capable of performing a given role. Komba and Kira (2013) on the other hand describe competency in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes and to focus instead on those specific values, traits, and motivations (i.e., relatively enduring characteristics of people) that are found to consistently distinguish outstanding from typical performance in a given job or role.

A competency is more than just knowledge and skills; it involves the ability to meet complex demands by drawing on and mobilizing psychosocial resources (including skills and attitudes) in a particular context. Competency is essential to an educator's pursuit of excellence. Teachers need a wide range of competencies in order to face the complex challenges of today's world. Teaching competency is an inherent element of an effective training process, one that aspires to contribute to the welfare of a particular country or the world, itself (Beck & Kosnik, 2012).

The central figures in the educational process are teachers. The success of training and education depends on their preparation, erudition and performance quality (Beck & Kosnik, 2012). To Koko (2017), the teaching skills and life-long learning competencies of professional teachers comprise the following:

- to perform complex pedagogical duties;

- to be well-spoken, in good mental and physical health, stable and tolerant;

- to have a propensity to work with the younger generation, good communicative and observational skills, tact, a vivid imagination, and leadership.

2.7. Competencies acquired during teaching practice

Teaching practice is the most important aspect of teacher education and is aimed at giving student teachers considerable exposure to practices of experienced teachers (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2013). Teaching practice therefore offers students teachers the opportunity to put into practice the theories learnt during course work. Teaching practice plays a role in education similar to internship or field attachment in other fields such as medicine, law and engineering by offering actual exposure to classroom experiences in the context of a real school environment. During this period, student teachers are expected to gain competencies of a professionally qualified teacher (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2013). According to Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2015), competencies can be operationally defined as knowledge and skills teachers require for effective and quality education and include subject matter knowledge and instructional acquaintance of skills to teach.

The competencies teacher candidates are expected to acquire during teaching practice are reflected in their intended outcomes or the goals and objectives (Alan, 2017). According to Alan (2017) the goals of teaching practice focus on providing students the opportunity to learn the art of teaching in actual classroom situations, under the guidance of an experienced cooperating teacher; providing students the opportunity to demonstrate in real classroom situations, their mastery of teaching the subject matter and the methodology of imparting it to learners; providing students with professional

20

development and fostering a positive attitude to teaching in them; assessing the extent to which students satisfy the requirements for the award of the certificate they are pursuing, and to enable Schools of Education to evaluate the adequacy or otherwise of the practical aspects of the teacher education programme (Alan, 2017). Koko(2017), indicated that teaching practice is expected to enable the student teachers to: Develop skills and competencies of teaching; apply the principles learnt from the courses studied to teach in addition to bringing about meaningful changes in learners; write schemes of work and lesson notes using appropriate concepts and generalizations that will facilitate learning; select and use a variety of teaching strategies and instructional resources that are appropriate to achieve the objectives stated in their lesson plans; study and diagnose learning difficulties of pupils and provide guidance and remedial instruction to those who need them; apply the principles of evaluation in assessing the effectiveness of their teaching as well as the progress of the pupils, as a means of improving instruction; acquire skills in democratic classroom management; participate actively and effectively in the various instructional and non-instructional programs and activities of the school where they are posted for teaching practice; establish good human relations with the students, staff, parents and other members of the community of the school and have the opportunity to participate in community activities which will enhance their professional growth as a teacher(Koko, 2017).

With regard to the attitude component of competencies acquired during teaching practice, Basturk (2016), expect the students teachers to collaborate with all stakeholders in education, value learning, students, teaching, and schooling; demonstrate openness, courtesy, conscientiousness, reliability, caring, and compassion; identify with

professional educators; dress and behave professionally and discern the extent to which personal belief systems and values may affect the instructional process (Basturk, 2016).

2.8. Responsibilities and of the supervising teachers

Student teacher's supervisors have an important role to play in order to ensure quality or effectiveness (Duffy & Roebler, 2006). With regard to the school climate, they should support the student teachers and also give a considerable amount of feedback, and collaborate with the student teachers even to the point of team teaching with them (Duffy & Roebler, 2006). Nakpodia (2011) indicated that the supervising teacher's first responsibility is to the pupils in his/her class. This must be kept in mind if the public, administration, and pupils are to continuously support the student teachers teaching practice program. He/she must prepare pupils to work with a student teacher and notify the parents that there will be a student teacher in the classroom; provide a working area for the student teacher (a desk or table) and share responsibilities whenever possible, accepting him/her as a co-worker and professional person (Nakpodia, 2011). The supervising teacher also acquaints the student teachers with pertinent school policies and regulations, philosophy, priorities, and assessment criteria; immediately involves the student teacher in specific classroom tasks; plans a schedule with the student teacher for assuming responsibilities of the classroom, which will allow the student teacher to assume increasing responsibility as he/she exhibits readiness to do so (Nakpodia, 2011). With regard to teaching, the supervising teacher also requires the student teacher to be solely responsible for all planning, preparation, instruction and student teacher's evaluation.

22

Nakpodia (2011) added that supervising teacher also guides the student teachers in preparing daily lesson plans, unit plans, and tests, and approve and critique all plans before they are taught; assists in understanding and applying evaluation techniques; demonstrates a variety of effective teaching techniques and arrange for visits to other classrooms from time to time; guides the student teacher in developing and understanding the skills of self-evaluation; evaluates the quality of the student teacher's performance and engage in frequent conferences with the student teacher to ensure continuous progress and/or early identification of problems; encourages the student teacher to participate in community activities; helps the student teacher relate theory to practice and keeps a record of attendance and tardiness of the student teacher. If excessive absences or tardiness are observed, the cooperating teacher reports this to the teaching practice co-coordinator and prepares and submits evaluation reports according to schedule (Nakpodia, 2011).

2.9. Roles of the supervising teachers

The supervisor has an important role in practice teaching as a resource person, an adviser, a general morale booster, an interpreter of feedback and an assessor (Bhowmik, 2013). University or College supervisors should work closely with associate teachers, support the student teachers, and visit the school sites often (Ismail, 2011). Supervision is the core of teaching practice exercise and that valid information on student teachers' performances is obtained only through the supervision of their live teaching (Lortie, 2015). The role of supervisors therefore is of great importance in ensuring quality of the student teachers' professional development (Tharp & Gallimore, 2008). Cosh (2009)

23

believes that a university supervisor's duty is not only to evaluate the lessons of teaching practice, but to use his/her abilities to make this experience results-oriented. He/she should have meetings and conversions with teacher educators, experienced teachers of the school, concerned school head teachers and other teachers.

Introductory lectures should be arranged before the departure of student teachers to the practicing schools in order to acquaint the student teachers about the preparation of lesson plans and other assigned activities (Lingam, 2012). During teaching practice, it is the duty of supervisors to supervise their lessons, other assigned activities, carry out guidance and counseling as well as provide the student teachers with feedback to enable them to criticize and reform themselves (Lingam, 2012). According to Lieberman and Miller (2010), university supervisors serve as a liaison between the schools and the university, cooperate with school personnel in a manner that will enhance the partnership between the school system and the university, identify and recommend potential supervising teachers, recommend assignments of student teachers, initiate conferences with student teachers, supervising teachers and others concerned with the student's progress, all aimed at enhancing the continuing growth and quality of the student teaching program(Lingam, 2012).

2.10. The essence of teaching practice

Teaching practice plays an important role in teachers' acquisition of teaching skills (Ligadu, 2014). Student teachers teaching experience serves as a culmination of the teacher education process. Practice teaching is the first opportunity for the student teachers to participate in activities involved in teaching in actual situations. It is also

recognized as an experience of guided teaching in which the student teacher assumes increasing responsibility for directing the learning of a group of pupils over a specific period of time. Practice teaching is also a period of helping the student teacher to try out and make more meaningful (Tharp & Gallimore, 2008).

Teaching practice is an important component of becoming a teacher. It grants student teachers experience in the actual teaching and learning environment Kuzborska, 2011). During teaching practice, a student teacher is given the opportunity to try the art of teaching before actually getting into the real world of the teaching profession (Tharp & Gallimore, 2008). Student teachers also know the value of teaching practice and as remarked by Kanayo (2012), they perceive it as 'the crux of their preparation for the teaching profession' since it provides for the 'real interface' between student hood and membership of the profession. As a result, teaching practice creates a mixture of anticipation, anxiety, excitement and apprehension in the student teachers as they commence their teaching practice (Kanayo, 2012).

Teaching practice helps the teacher trainees to acquire and develop purposeful, scientific experiences in advance (Kanayo 2012). Such experiences may help student teachers develop their own potentials which will equip them to perform their future roles as teachers with a lot of precision (Bhowmik, 2013). These potentials include skills in lesson planning, visualizing, class control, critical thinking, decision making and problem solving. Teaching practice provides an opportunity for student teachers to put into practice these skills before they begin to work as professionals (Tharp & Gallimore, 2008).

Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) found out that beginning teachers teaching practice program cannot be complete without an effective teaching practice program where student teachers' go to the field and face the various classroom related situations and taking responsibility for each one of them. During this period, they may successfully start preparing and planning for their lessons, perform teaching and assess their students (Calderhead & Shorrock, 2007). A teacher requires practice in using the skills involved in teaching before teaching in the real classroom context. A good teacher should be able to demonstrate and practice various teaching skills and behaviors. Teachers must see how ideas are connected across fields and with everyday life. The deep understanding of the subject matter will provide a foundation for content knowledge which will enable the teachers to make ideas accessible to their learners. Teaching practice component aims at improving confidence, putting theory into practice, learning about student behavior, testing knowledge of subject matter, receiving constructive criticism, discovering teaching strengths and weakness and developing a core set of pedagogic values to which a professionally competent teacher adheres to (Calderhead & Shorrock, 2007).

Teaching practice plays a significant role in formation of perception of pre-service teachers, regarding their roles and responsibilities as professional teachers. Teaching practice invites the student-teachers to exercise all the skills learned in a real classroom situation (Good & Brophy, 2013). Teaching practice will be the time that trainee teachers will get to work with experienced teachers. This is a crucial step in learning to be an effective teacher. It is also the time for trainees to put into practice the theories that they have learned in their course. Learning to teach typically involves spending considerable

time in schools participating in field experiences of varying lengths, the staples of teacher preparation programs (Good & Brophy, 2013). Teaching practice also provides a multi-source feedback to the teacher trainees regarding their activities in the cooperating schools (Kanayo, 2012).

2.11. Self- Efficacy

Perceived self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1977). It is one's estimation of the potential for success, and since the introduction of the concept, it has become a powerful way to explain differences in human performance. Bandura (1977) placed self-efficacy at the center of a theoretical framework for analyzing behavior change, and asserting its importance in human functioning.

Self-efficacy was presented as a common cognitive mechanism activated in both cognitive-based and performance-based modes of treatment (Bandura, 1977). This common mechanism could account for learning and change that can happen even in the absence of successful performance, and also explain how mastery of a task is the most powerful way to effect psychological change. Either form of treatment, Bandura said, changes a person's self-efficacy, and, assuming that a person has the skills needed and the right incentives, efficacy expectations are a major determinant of people's choice of activities, how much effort they will expend, and of how long they will sustain effort in dealing with stressful situations (Bandura, 1977).

Pajares (2016) noted that self-efficacy has become a central tenet of social cognitive theory, addressing nearly all aspects of human functioning. Within the model of triadic reciprocal determinism, personal factors are afforded as much influence on human functioning as environmental influences and behavior, so one's personal beliefs about ability and power to effect change have an impact on every behavior choice a person makes. Efficacy beliefs are the foundation of human agency (Bandura, 2001). Without the belief that human exerts control over their circumstances, there is no agency, and therefore, no power to act. Bandura (2001) noted that self-efficacy beliefs provide the lens through which we view our options and ultimately choose to act, even if human choices appear to be out of concert with external reality. People level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true (Bandura, 1977). Humans are not bound solely to environmental control of behavior; rather a person's active, purposeful cognitions interact with environmental stimuli to influence behavior. The behaviorist would say that external reinforcement of a certain behavior leads to increased frequency of that behavior. Bandura (1977) posited that reinforcement is a motivational device, and it works because of a person's beliefs about reinforcement and that self-efficacy beliefs are part of the human element in the control and direction of behavior.

2.12. Sources of Self-efficacy

Efficacy in a particular domain can develop in four ways: through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological affect/arousal

(Bandura, 1977). It is from these sources that individuals gather information about their particular capabilities to perform a given task.
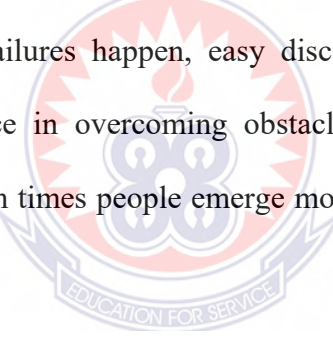
2.12.1. Mastery Experiences

The first and strongest source of efficacy is the collection of mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977). To Wheatley (2015) mastery experience is the interpreted result of purposive performance. Pajares (2016) adds that individuals gauge the effects of their actions, and their interpretations of these effects help create their self-efficacy beliefs. Success enhances self-efficacy while failure lowers it. He observes, for example, that the students who get high grades in mathematics develop a strong sense of self-efficacy about their mathematical capabilities. It shows that their success in their performance increases their self-efficacy in this specific task. Borg (2012) notes that the effects of failure on personal self-efficacy depend on the strength of individuals' existing self-efficacy beliefs, the timing of failures in the entire performance experiences and the value of the task for the learner. For example, if a student has received A grade in mathematics throughout, then failing a class test might not decrease his/her self-efficacy in his/her mathematics skills. On the other hand, similar failure might have a very negative effect on the self-efficacy of such student who is constantly having doubts about his/her ability to perform in mathematics (Borg, 2012).

When people attempt and practice tasks, they discover that the task is one that is attainable and can be perfected, thus strengthening self-efficacy, or they conclude, after struggles and failures, that they cannot succeed, weakening efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977). As a person works to develop new skills, access to success is crucial. In schools,

29

job training environments, and therapeutic environments, novices are not tasked with the most complex problems first. Gibson and Dembo (2014) emphasized that after starting with the most rudimentary components to be learned, difficulty is increased as tasks are mastered. In this way, successful performance provides the efficacy needed to attempt the next task. Generally, children do not learn to read using novels, new employees aren't asked to run a company, and clients with snake phobias are not immediately asked to hold pythons. Attainable successes are presented, along with appropriate feedback and support, so that confidence in ability increases. After efficacy has been established, then occasional failure will no longer be a threat, and may serve to strengthen persistence (Bandura, 1977). Conversely, success that comes too easily brings an expectation of quick results, and when failures happen, easy discouragement. "A resilient sense of efficacy requires experience in overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort. By sticking it out through tough times people emerge more able and stronger from adversity (Bandura, 2001).

2.12.2. Vicarious Experiences

To Wheatley (2015), vicarious experience is the experience of the effects produced by the actions, examples and modelling of others. Social comparisons and peer modelling are powerful influences on developing self-perceptions of competence (ability to perform a task). Pajares (2016) again talks about academic setting and proclaims that when a highly regarded teacher acts as a model of excellence and ability, the students also develop the belief that they can perform the task with the same level of excellence. Peer comparison also plays an important role in providing vicarious experiences. Relying

on social comparisons and modelling, vicarious experiences are considered less dependable sources of information about one's own capabilities than is experienced mastery or enactive mastery (first-hand experience) (Pajares, 2016)

Efficacy that is gained by observation is acquired vicariously (Bandura, 1977). Observing another person perform a task successfully can influence personal beliefs about the ability to do the same. This source of efficacy information is less dependable than mastery experiences, but is most beneficial when the observer can identify with the model, when the behavior modeled has clear outcomes, and when a variety of models demonstrate successful performance (Bandura, 1977). A learner can become convinced of the potential for accomplishment by seeing other people in similar situations execute tasks successfully. Children watch their peers and learn what activities to try. Teachers observe how their colleagues handle challenges and are inspired to do the same. Vicarious experience leads people to say, "I can do that, too." (Bandura, 1977).

2.13.3. Social Persuasion

To Wheatley (2015), social persuasion comes when individuals create and develop self-efficacy beliefs as a result of the social messages they receive from others. Successful persuaders cultivate people's beliefs in their capabilities while at the same time ensure that the imagined success is attainable. Although Pajares (2016) argued that persuasion is a weaker source of self-efficacy information than mastery or vicarious experience, he accepted that where positive persuasions may work to encourage and empower, negative persuasions may work to defeat and weaken self-beliefs. Verbal persuasion can have a very positive impact on self-efficacy, but only if remaining in

realistic bounds. Overly optimistic persuasive comments may discredit the organisation and lower the self-efficacy beliefs of the recipient, particularly in case of failure after the persuasion is received (Pajares, 2016).

When a trustworthy and credible source offers encouragement by expressing confidence in a learner's abilities to succeed, self-efficacy can be increased (Bandura, 1977). Social persuasion alone produces weak efficacy expectations that can be quickly disconfirmed, but when used along with corrective feedback and other assistance to achieve success, can encourage greater effort (Bandura, 1977). As those who motivate carefully structure opportunities for a leaner to both be successful and observe others being successful, they also offer pep talks to encourage persistence and increase motivation (Bandura, 2001).

2.13.4. Physiological Affect/Arousal

The fourth and final source of self-efficacy information comes from one's own physiological and emotional feedback during performance. These physiological, biological or affective states such as anxiety, stress, arousal, fatigue, and mood states, provide information about self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1977) believed that individuals judge their ability by the emotional state they experience before facing any task. He claimed that the fear about one's ability to perform a task triggers stress that ultimately ensures insufficient performance that is feared at the first place. As excessive physiological and emotional reaction can have a negative impact on performance, individuals tend to expect success more if they are not overcome by stress than if they are "tense and viscerally agitated (Pajares, 2016). Ultimately, information conveyed by

physiological reactions is cognitively processed by individuals and can positively or negatively influence self-efficacy beliefs. In the same vein, if a person does not feel physically fit to perform a task, it also affects his/ her self-efficacy related to that particular task. This inability can be caused by stress, illness or injury. This is similar to the push factors (Klassen & Gordon, 2011) when some illness or injury decreases the self-efficacy of students to such extent that they finally leave the course.

Out of all four sources of self-efficacy, Bandura (1977) stresses mastery experience as being the most essential. However, teachers do not rely on direct experience as the only source of information about their self-efficacy. In this context, the notion of vicarious experience gains importance. It was noticed that teachers listen to stories told to them about the achievements of their colleagues as well as success stories of other institutions (Ross, 2012). Therefore, vicarious experience and modelling serve as effective ways to develop teachers' self-efficacy. Social persuasion emerged as another means of strengthening teachers' conviction that they have the capabilities to achieve what they seek (Klassen & Gordon, 2011). Talks, workshops, professional development opportunities, and feedback about achievement can move teachers towards desired goals by the institution. Ross (2012) believed that verbal persuasion alone is not a powerful change agent, but joined with models of success and positive direct experience (enactive mastery), it can influence the self-efficacy of teachers.

2.14. Effect self-efficacy on human functioning

The sources of self-efficacy provide information that must be processed cognitively before that information shapes self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). If a person

believes that success was fortuitous and not a reflection of ability, then beliefs about capabilities may remain unchanged. Likewise, if a person does not believe the verbal persuasion being offered, cannot identify with the model being observed, or cannot trust their gut, self-efficacy will not increase. The sources must be perceived to be authentic (Bandura, 1977). When information from the four sources is deemed credible, it combines to shape efficacy beliefs which influence functioning through cognitive, affective, motivational and selective processes (Bandura, 1977). It is partly on the basis of efficacy beliefs that people choose what challenges to undertake, how much effort to expend in the endeavor, how long to persevere in the face of obstacles and failures, and whether failures are motivating or demoralizing" (Bandura, 2001).

2.15. Teacher Self-Efficacy

Teacher efficacy has been remained a very important variable in education over the past 25 years (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014). These variable impacts student outcomes like students' achievement scores (Ashton & Webb, 2016). Teacher self-efficacy is meant by the teacher's belief in his or her own ability to organize and execute courses of action essential to successfully achieving the specific teaching tasks in specific situations" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014).

Teacher efficacy is based on two dimensions, i.e., teaching efficacy and personal efficacy. First dimension is concerned with teaching ability and competence to encourage and stimulate students for learning by overcoming external factors like student background. Second dimension is about teachers' personal beliefs to transfer the crucial teaching behaviours to affect student learning (Ashton & Webb, 2016). Ashton (2017),

34

however, found no relationship between the two dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs. Teachers with greater sense of self-efficacy attempt new ideas and are more eager to test novel methods to bring about a change in students' learning (Ashton & Webb, 2016).

Self-efficacy impacts teachers' determination when things do not go smoothly and their resilience in the face of disappointment. Teachers with higher sense of self-efficacy have revealed less criticism on students' mistakes (Ashton & Webb, 2016), and exhibit more enthusiasm and commitment for teaching (Ashton & Webb, 2016). This has been shown to apply for both in-service and middle school teachers and prospective teachers (Ashton & Webb, 2016). Efficacious teachers devote more time on students' learning, support students with their aims and reinforce their intrinsic motivation (Bandura, 1977).

It is also worth mentioning that teachers with high sense of self-efficacy are more enthusiastic about teaching and more dedicated to it (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014). In addition, under school reforms, these teachers also tend to be more open to new ideas and more willing to experiment and adopt teaching innovations to better meet the needs of students (Ashton & Webb, 2016). Teacher's self-efficacy has constantly been found to relate to positive student and teacher behaviors, and has a positive effect on educational system and its improvements (Raudenbush & Cheong, 2012). This serves as a crucial factor in improving teacher education and promoting education reforms (Ashton & Webb, 2016). Teachers with greater sense of efficacy tend to demonstrate high levels of planning, organization and passion for teaching and spend more time teaching in subject areas where their sense of efficacy is higher (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014). High sense of efficacy enables teachers to work longer with a student who is striving hard to

get high grades and to be less inclined to refer a difficult student to special education (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014).

Bandura (1977) developed the Social Cognitive Theory in which self-efficacy is rooted. Social Cognitive Theory assumes people choose a course of action based on the relationships between external and internal forces combined with current and past behavior (Ashton, 2017). Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's belief in his or her capacity to organize and execute the appropriate action(s) to produce a desired result (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is a powerful predictor of behavior because it is explicitly self-referent in nature and is directed toward perceived abilities given specific tasks (Ashton, 2017). Because of its predictive power and application for behavioral tasks, the self-efficacy theory is a common theme in current views of motivation (Ashton, 2017).

Ashton (2017) noted that researchers in the field of education have developed their own thoughts on self-efficacy as it relates to educators. Teacher self-efficacy is the belief teachers have regarding their capacity to influence how well students learn (Ashton, 2017). Similarly, Hoy and Woolfolk (2013) described teacher efficacy as a teacher's beliefs of his or her abilities to achieve desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated. Each definition references the power of teacher beliefs in themselves and their capability to positively influence all students (Ashton, 2017).

Teacher self-efficacy has an impact on student motivation, achievement, and student efficacy. People with negative self-efficacy do not give sufficient effort to pursue attainable goals because they feel as though their efforts will be futile (Ashton, 2017).

Teachers with positive self-efficacy about their ability, increase student achievement and motivation (Allinder, 2014). Efficacious teachers see student learning as a highly valued attainable goal. Teachers who believe in their ability to teach usually develop a "whatever it takes" attitude toward instructional design (Ashton, 2017).

When positive teacher self-efficacy is developed in the early years of teaching, it will remain relatively stable thereafter (Ashton & Webb, 2016). Bandura (1977) suggests that teacher self-efficacy beliefs are developed from four sources: (a) verbal encouragement of colleagues, supervisors, and administrators; (b) success or failure of other teachers who serve as models for beginning teachers; (c) perceptions of past experiences of teaching; and (d) level of emotional and physiological arousal experienced as they anticipate and practice teaching. According to Bandura (1977), research on the four sources of efficacy in a subject area suggests efficacy can be increased through professional development. Wheatley (2015) indicated that teacher efficacy related to instructional strategies, student engagement and classroom management.

Many beginning teachers lack the mastery experiences that have the greatest impact on raising teacher self-efficacy (Haverback & Parault, 2016). Consequently, beginning teachers rely on verbal persuasion, secondhand experience, and physiological arousal to build their self-efficacy (Haverback & Parault, 2016). Nonetheless, Hoy and Woolfolk (2013) argue that the most important of the four sources of efficacy are mastery experiences. By observing the progress of difficult-to-teach students, teachers build self-efficacy through episodes in which they demonstrate to themselves that they are competent instructors. Mastery experiences are improved through feedback from mentors or superiors and social validation that attributes achievement outcomes to teacher actions.

Because beginning teachers may not have experience to reflect upon, it is crucial that professional development and feedback from administrators and mentors provide opportunities for a novice teacher to practice new skills and experience the gratification in moments of success (Wheatley, 2015). Hoy and Woolfolk (2013) suggest that the strongest predictor of self-efficacy, mastery experiences, increases with more effective teaching.

2.16. Impact of self-efficacy

Teachers' sense of self-efficacy significantly impacts teacher behaviors and student outcomes (Usher & Pajares, 2006). Compared to teachers with lower self-efficacy, teachers with a stronger belief in their instructional skills utilize strategies that are more organized and well planned, and student-centered (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014). Efficacious teachers are likely to spend more time with students who are struggling to understand the material and are less likely to criticize students after a wrong answer (Gibson & Dembo, 2014). Additionally, teachers with high self-efficacy regularly reflect on their experiences to improve practice (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014).

Teachers who are highly efficacious tend to hold high academic standards, monitor all students' progress and behavior, and focus on instruction as well as develop meaningful and warm relationships in the classroom (Gibson & Dembo, 2014). Although research shows a significant correlation between student achievement and teacher self-efficacy, teacher preparation and induction programs are not focusing on the self-efficacy needs of pre-service and beginning teachers (Gibson & Dembo, 2014).

Perceptions of self-efficacy may play a critical role in lessening the likelihood of teacher burnout due to the confidence an effective teacher possesses in his/her ability to handle challenging situations (Wheatley, 2015). Included in Bandura's (1977) description of efficacy is the belief in the ability to cope effectively with what comes one's way. If high-quality teaching practice programs positively affect beginning teachers' self-efficacy, Wheatley (2015) suggests the effect will positively impact teacher work commitment.

Teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy show greater openness to new ideas and are more willing to try new methods if they are better suited to the needs of students (Wheatley, 2015). In turn, highly efficacious teachers plan and better organize their classes, spend more time and energy with students who are struggling, express greater enthusiasm for teaching, and feel more committed to their profession (Wheatley, 2015). Self-efficacy ultimately affects teaching practice and attitudes toward the entire educational process. Teachers with positive attitudes toward education, a firm belief in their ability to impact student lives, and a passion for teaching that is fueled by intrinsic reward are lifetime teachers. Induction programs provide the experiences, relationships, and elements necessary to develop teacher self-efficacy (Wheatley, 2015).

2.17. Self-efficacy among beginning teachers

Bandura (1977) defined perceived self-efficacy as personal judgment of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated goals. He stated that it influences how people feel, think, behave, and motivate themselves. Bandura

(1977) proposed a model which defines outcome expectancy as a person's assumption that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes.

An efficacy expectation is the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Outcome and efficacy expectations can be different because an individual can believe that certain behaviors will produce specific outcomes, but if there is a lack of belief that one can perform the necessary activities, the relevant behaviors are not even initiated, or if they do, they will not persist (Gibson & Dembo, 2014). To Pajares (2016) self-efficacy is a judgment about one's capability to complete a task.

Bandura (1977) implies that the strength of conviction individuals held regarding their own effectiveness could largely influence how they cope with any given situation. Individuals that have a perceived low self-efficacy are more likely to avoid situations that seem challenging or intimidating due to fear of failure. The response to any situation by an individual is directly influenced by the perceived self-efficacy that the person holds. Bandura (1977) states that efficacy expectations determine how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and aversive situations.

This notion of perceived self-efficacy can play a significant role in how beginning teachers react to the challenges that they face and the level of reflective adjustments they are willing to take in their instructional practices (Pajares, 2016).

According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy effects cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes. Bandura (1977) noted that goals people set for themselves are influenced greatly by their perception of their own capabilities. Therefore, people who have strong self-efficacy are more likely to set higher goals for themselves

and have a firmer commitment to meet those goals. They also focus on success instead of dwelling on failure (Pajares, 2016). Ashton (2017) reaffirms the notion that self-efficacy influences the manner in which individuals deal with tasks. Bandura (1977) suggests that one of the reasons for this behavior is their conception of ability being a fixed attribute. Some people regard ability as a skill that can be acquired by gaining knowledge and competencies. Others, view ability as an inherent trait and that prevent them from engaging in tasks where they could experience failure (Bandura, 1977).

Another factor that influences self-efficacy is motivation. Most human motivation is generated cognitively and is initiated by the exercise of forethought (Bandura, 1977). People generally form beliefs about what they can do and anticipate likely outcomes of prospective actions. They set goals for themselves and then plan steps designed to meet those goals. Forethought is thereby translated into incentives and actions. Motivation based on goals is further influenced by three factors: reaction to one's performance, perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, and readjusting goals based on progress that is made. Self-efficacy beliefs contribute by enabling people to determine personal goals, determining the amount of effort they will apply, and determine how long they will persevere in the face of a challenge (Bandura, 1977).

The third factor that influences self-efficacy is the affective process (Bandura, 1977). People's belief in their capabilities affects how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations, as well as their level of motivation (Bandura, 1977). Some people magnify the severity of possible threats and distress themselves, which in turn impairs their level of functioning. People who believe they can control threats easily do not think of extreme negative situations. On the other hand,

41

people who feel a lack of control in controlling situations experience high levels of anxiety.

Bandura (1977) also proposes four sources of self-efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal, with mastery experiences being the most powerful. According to his theory, self-efficacy beliefs are raised if a teacher perceives his or her performance to be successful, which leads to the path for future success. The interactions between a teacher and others that are part of the teaching environment that can also play a significant role in raising the self-efficacy of teachers (Bandura, 1977). This would be an important factor to study when one is observing the interaction between novice teachers and their mentors. Vicarious experiences involve modeling of activities by another person. When a teacher identifies closely with the person modeling the activity, the self-efficacy of the observer is enhanced. Based on this, one could make the assumption that novice teachers would see an increase in self-efficacy if their philosophy is aligned with the mentor. A feeling of joy while teaching can lead to emotional surge which would result in an increase in self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977).

People's beliefs of personal efficacy can influence their choices of actions and environments, which in turn can shape the course of their lives (Bandura, 2001). They can cultivate competencies, interests, and social networks that impact life courses and also affect the direction of personal development (Bandura, 1977). The level of self-efficacy that people feel determines the activities and environments they select. People avoid activities they believe exceed their coping capabilities, but they are more likely to

take action if they believe they will be successful. This can affect the choices people make for their personal development or career pathways.

Ross (2012) points to work done by (Bandura, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014) that highlights the three aspects of self-efficacy. First, self-efficacy is a comprehensive summary or judgment of perceived capability for performing a specific task (Ross, 2012). According to Ross (2012), in the context of any organization, information derived from the individual, the task, and others in the work environment may contribute to the comprehensive assessment of capability. Second, self-efficacy is a dynamic construct (Ross, 2012). The efficacy judgment changes over time as new information and experience are acquired. Third, efficacy beliefs involve a mobilization component, which means that an individual's performance may adapt based on circumstances (Ross, 2012). Therefore, people who have the same skills may perform differently based on their utilization, combination, and sequencing of these skills over a period of time. These finding seem to suggest that self-efficacy can be developed based on experiences, circumstances, and personal beliefs. Bandura (1977) states that ability is not a fixed attribute, instead, it is a generative capability in which cognitive, social, motivational, and behavioral skills must be organized effectively to serve various purposes. Induction programs have a variety of components with mentoring and professional development being two essential parts. Based on Bandura's social theory, one could speculate that the experiences associated with induction programs would result in an enhanced sense of self efficacy among novice teachers (Bandura, 1977).

Teachers' self-efficacy can have a significant influence on teachers' ability to sustain practices that contribute to their professional growth (Ross, 2012). Gibbs (2013)

43

conducted a study to examine the impact of four different professional development formats with varying levels of self-efficacy-relevant input on the self-efficacy for teaching. The study found that with exposure to a new strategy, a large percentage of teachers saw a drop in self-efficacy. Gibbs (2013). suggests that introduction of a new strategy may have caused some teachers to reassess their definition of good teaching and recalibrate their own self-efficacy beliefs to match the new standard. In order to feel successful and self-efficacious, teachers need time to hone their new skills through the inquiry-based process. They need to have the opportunity to implement, observe, reflect, and refine their practices to achieve the highest level of effectiveness (Gibbs, 2013).

According to social cognitive theory, if teachers have a preconceived notion that they will not do well with a specific group of students, they are more likely to put little effort in preparation and delivery of instruction, and give up easily even if they are adept at strategies that would be helpful to students (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014). They suggest that the self-efficacy belief thus becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. When teachers have low expectations, they transmit that belief to students through their actions and messages. Students in turn, pick on those messages and hold back since there is a lack of agency. Another study (Gibbs, 2013) found that teachers that are more efficacious were less likely to judge their students as having behavior issues and felt more confident in managing discipline issues while they arose. They also were less likely to feel angry when students behaved poorly and expected those behaviors to improve (Gibbs, 2013).

Lent and Hackett (2004) suggest that even though self-efficacy often guides people's response to particular situations, there is also a general sense of self-efficacy that refers to global confidence in how one would cope with a wide variety of challenging

situations. General self-efficacy targets a broader sense of personal competence that allows one to deal effectively in difficult situations (Gibbs, 2013).

Ashton (2014) conducted a study to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and job stress. The construct of self-efficacy suggests that an optimistic belief in one's ability to cope with daily challenges would motivate a person to engage with a challenge more positively (Ashton, 2014). Therefore, teachers with high self-efficacy should see the daily challenges of the teaching profession in a less threatening manner than teachers who have self-doubt. The assumption was that self-efficacy acts as a resource that protects against job stress (Ashton (2014).

The presence of self-efficacy among beginning teachers is critical for a variety of reasons (Ashton (2014). According to (Ashton (2014), research shows that teachers that have high self-efficacy tend to be more effective. In addition to feeling confident about their teaching, these teachers are also most receptive to implementing new instructional practices in their classrooms (Ashton, 2014). Another reason that self-efficacy is critical is due to its cyclical nature. Hoy and Spero (2005) believe that a teacher with high self-efficacy is more likely to perform a task and attain mastery, which in turn provides information that will shape future efficacy beliefs. They state that greater efficacy leads to greater effort and persistence, which leads to better performance, which in turn leads to greater efficacy. The reverse is also true. Lower efficacy leads to less effort and giving up easily, which leads to poor teaching outcomes, which then produce decreased efficacy (Ashton, 2014).

Given the important part self-efficacy plays in positive outcomes for teachers as well as students, it is necessary to understand ways in which efficacy can be developed

among beginning teachers. Once efficacy beliefs are established in beginning teachers, they become somewhat resistant to change (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2018). They suggest that providing an apprenticeship approach, where the complex task of teaching can be broken down into smaller learning experiences, providing feedback, assigning smaller classes and more capable students in their first year, can help in enhancing efficacy. They also propose engaging in more research to study what events and influences teachers attribute to development of their efficacy beliefs. Hoy and Spero (2005) state that there are other factors that impact self-efficacy among beginning teachers. These are: (a) school climate and culture; (b) principal leadership; and (c) collective efficacy.

Kleinsasser (2014) indicated that teaching involves solving problems that are complex, dynamic, and non-linear. It is therefore largely dependent on the personal agency, which is the capacity of a teacher to be organized, self-reflective, self-regulating, and proactive (McCormick, 2016). McCormick (2016) further states that there is a link between personal agency and a teacher's efficacy beliefs, which is drawn from the personal experiences of the teacher and the ability to reflect and determine future actions. McCormick (2016) suggests that positive self-efficacy beliefs can increase the extent to which teachers are willing to transfer skills that they learn during professional development to the classroom. This in turn allows teachers to be more effective, which enhances self-efficacy further. This cyclical efficacy-performance relationship leads one to believe that self-efficacy is a critical component of professional development, and to continue this cycle of enhanced performance among teachers, resources will need to be

directed to ensure that professional development targets building self-efficacy (McCormick, 2016).

2.18. Dimensions of teacher Efficacy

Bandura (2002) indicated that dimensions of teacher efficacy included instructional strategies, students' engagement and classroom management.

2.18.1. Instructional strategies

Teachers who have confidence in their ability are more likely to try innovative instructional strategies than teachers with low self-efficacy (Hallum & Schwarzer 2015). Effective teachers facilitate student learning through interactive instruction and a variety of instructional methods. Due to the need to accommodate various learning styles and maintain student engagement, the use of multiple strategies is crucial to the enhancement of student learning (Yancey. 2013).

Instructional strategies refer to the structure, system, methods, techniques, procedures, and processes that a teacher uses during instruction. According to Hall and Wang (2015) instructional strategies are those behaviors associated with the mechanics of teaching. Teachers must focus on effective instructional strategies to prevent academic and behavior difficulties and thereby facilitate increased student achievement especially among poor and minority students who tend to lag behind their more affluent peers.

Research shows that strategies used by educators are vital components of the motivational learning environment (Yancey. 2013). According to Erdogan and Sezgin (2018), the teachers who are skilled at incorporating a number of different types of strategies into their lessons are more effective than those teachers who are limited to only

a few instructional approaches. About the teachers who uses varying instructional approaches, Erdogan and Sezgin (2018) believe that they increased student interest, piques student curiosity to learn, and creates unique stimuli in the classroom, all of which increase the cognitive ability of students.

Effective teachers have higher rates of positive student responses to their instruction (Yancey. 2013). Students who are attending to academic tasks cannot at the same time be engaged in disruptive, off-task behavior. Effective instruction minimizes disruptive behavior through higher rates of academic engagement (Yancey. 2013).

According to Fullan (2011) instruction that is effective in encouraging high rates of academic engagement and on-task behavior is characterized by several key features:

- Instructional material that students find educationally relevant;

- A planned, sequential order that is logically related to skill development at students' instructional level;

- Frequent opportunities for students to respond to academic tasks. For example, the use of response cards, choral responding, and peer tutoring are ways to increase such opportunities

Fullan (2011) noted nine instructional strategies. They include(a) identifying similarities and differences; (b) summarizing and note taking; (c) reinforcing effort and providing recognition; (d) homework and practice; (e) nonlinguistic representation; (f) cooperative learning; (g) setting objectives and providing feedback; (h) generating and testing hypotheses; and (i) questions, cues, and advanced organizers.

2.18.1.1. Significance of instructional strategies

Instructional strategies are techniques teachers use to help students become independent and strategic learners (Cerit, 2013). Instructional strategies can motivate students and help them focus attention, organize information for understanding and remembering and also monitor and assess learning (Cerit, 2013).

Teacher instructional efficacy is an essential part of the learning process. When a teacher possesses a high level of instructional efficacy, they can effectively influence student's skill acquisition. According to Ashton and Webb (2016), teacher instructional efficacy can assist a teacher in many meaningful educational outcomes. The students' perceptions of teacher instructional efficacy are also involved in the educational process

Ashton and Webb (2016) indicate that a teacher's sense of efficacy is a significant predictor of productive teaching practices compared to a teacher with lower efficacy. Teachers with strong perceptions of efficacy tend to use classroom strategies that are well organized and student-centered. Tschannen-Moran and Barr (2014) added that teacher efficacy has proved to be strongly related to many educational outcomes such as teachers' enthusiasm as well as student outcomes such as achievement. Enthusiasm is a behavior that is important to many teaching functions. Tschannen-Moran and Barr (2014) further suggest that excitement led teachers to have a greater desire to stay in the field of teaching

Utilizing a variety of high yield instructional strategies and instructing students at various cognitive levels has been suggested to combat the widening achievement gap resulting from the emphasis on knowledge and comprehension (Yost, 2016). Students learn best when they are challenged and asked to consider and respond to information at

49

higher cognitive levels (Yost, 2016). Teachers who use multiple tools and methods of instruction are more likely to meet diverse student needs and varying learning styles. Students are more engaged, receptive of new information, retentive of new knowledge, and find school less boring.

2.18.1.2. Instructional strategies and self-efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy is an important predictor of high academic achievement in all students (Bandura, 1977; Goodard & Hoy, 2010). Teachers with higher levels of efficacy are more likely to implement higher-order instructional strategies than teachers with lower levels of efficacy (Davies, 2004). Highly efficacious teachers tend to use more innovative instructional strategies and believe that all students can learn on higher cognitive taxonomy levels (Goodard & Hoy, 2010). Fullan, 2011). It stands to reason that the result of highly efficacious teachers' greater likelihood to use a variety of instructional methods results in meeting a variety of learning styles and needs in a diverse class. As research has validated, using multiple, innovative instructional delivery methods yields higher academic success rates (Yancey. 2013). When teachers have greater success helping more students achieve at high levels, they are more likely to remain in the profession.

2.18.2. Classroom Management

Classroom management, historically, is viewed as the actions taken by a teacher to establish and maintain control of the classroom environment. In the last 10 years, the literature reflects a growth in the concept of effective classroom management that extends

beyond maintaining order and control (Goodard &Hoy, 2014). Whether viewed through an historical or modern lens, researchers agree on tasks included in the domain of classroom management ((Goodard &Hoy, 2014). These tasks include

- organizing, allocating, and arrangement of resources

- establishing and enforcing rules, routines, expectations, and procedures

- gaining and maintaining student attention and monitoring engagement

- facilitating student socialization; and

- intervening and restoring order when behavior becomes disruptive of learning

Effective teachers are experts in classroom management. Classrooms are dynamic environments where teachers and students must appropriately respond to unexpected interruptions and overlapping demands of the teacher's attention (Ryan & Patrick, 2011). In an average classroom, there is a multitude of learning styles, needs, behaviors, and challenges that impact how efficiently a classroom runs. To keep students actively engaged in learning, teachers are expected to observe and evaluate the classroom environment while being engaged with individual students, small groups, or the whole class (Ryan & Patrick, 2011). The teacher must teach well-planned, efficient classes that captivate students' attention, even if those students are not actively working with the teacher while the teacher attends to a smaller group. Routines, procedures, and expectations guide students and provide a predictable environment that offers psychological safety (Ryan & Patrick, 2011). Beginning teachers must quickly develop the vital skills for effective management so that learning can occur, despite the many demands of the teacher's time and attention. Therefore, high-quality, well-planned, and

executed induction experiences are critical to supporting beginning teachers' development of management skills (Ryan & Patrick, 2011).

2.18.2.1. Significance of classroom management

A direct relationship between classroom management and student engagement is undeniable. Elkatmis (2018) found that highly engaged students perceived their instructors as caring and supportive and their classroom environment as well as structured with high expectations. Elkatmis (2018) added that classroom management had the most influence on student learning compared to other factors such as cognitive ability or school demographics. On the contrary, when classrooms are mismanaged, the available time for instruction is significantly reduced, thereby directly impacting student achievement (Demirdag, 2015). In a classroom lacking management and order, students find it much more difficult to focus, spend their time on task, and retain new information (Demirdag, 2015). Well-managed classrooms become places of freedom to learn and can provide safety to students. Students activate long-term memory by attending to the teacher's instruction without being disturbed and store new information efficiently for quick retrieval in the future (Demirdag, 2015).

The ability to manage a classroom confidently appears regularly in the literature as an important element of effective teaching (Cayirdag, 2017). Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014). Teachers employ different strategies to control disruptive behaviors. Classroom management training and support for beginning teachers are crucial because some practices can harm students instead of helping them (Demirdag, 2015). Such practices include sending students out of the classroom, which restricts access to the learning

environment (Demirdag, 2015). Classroom management is a challenge for educators due to the complex nature of the domain, coupled with the magnitude of impact on achievement. Therefore, beginning teachers need explicit training, modeling, and feedback on management techniques.

2.18.2.2. Efficacy and classroom management

Teachers who have a greater sense of self-efficacy are more likely to have the motivation needed to manage the learning environment effectively (Bandura, 1977; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014). Teachers who effectively manage classrooms possess knowledge, skills, and a belief in their ability to make proactive and reactive decisions that maintain an environment that is conducive to learning (Demirdag, 2015). Teachers with high self-efficacy cope well in the face of disruptive student behavior, remain friendly, and build trust with students, which ultimately results in fewer undesirable behaviors (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014). Demirdag(2015) reported that in their research, teachers with greater self-efficacy assisted students in forming interpersonal relationships. Consequently, teachers with high self-efficacy are more likely to obtain positive classroom results (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014).

Bandura (1977) suggested that teachers who doubt themselves as managers are less likely to act when disruptive situations arise, allowing self-doubt to overpower existing knowledge and skill. Teachers with low self-efficacy often verbally criticize failing students and demonstrate a general lack of patience when facing challenging circumstances (Gibson & Dembo, 2014). Ashton and Webb (2016) reported that secondary teachers' lack of confidence in their ability to manage the classroom resulted

in strict punishments using authority, verbal abuse, and sending students out of the classroom during instructional time. In the same study, Ashton and Webb described classroom conditions of teachers with low self-efficacy as including "punishment, coercion, and public embarrassment" (Battle & Looney, 2014). These practices are proven to be detrimental to academic achievement (Demirdag, 2015). Moreover, Ashton and Webb (2016) found that teachers who considered themselves poor in classroom management reported higher levels of job burnout as compared to the teachers who considered themselves as highly efficacious in management (Battle & Looney, 2014). Classroom management is so impactful on student success; beginning teachers need to develop efficacy in this domain to be effective teachers.

2.18.3. Pupils' Engagement

Student engagement has been defined as participation in educationally effective practices, both inside and outside the classroom, which leads to a range of measurable outcomes (Klassen & Tze, 2014). According to Guskey (2015), engagement is defined as a combination of students' time on task and their willingness to participate in activities. Ashton and Webb (2016) noted that engagement is the quality of effort students themselves devote to educationally purposeful activities that contribute directly to desired outcomes. Again, Ashton and Webb (2016) maintain that engagement is the degree to which learners are engaged with their educational activities and that engagement is positively linked to a host of desired outcomes, including high grades, student satisfaction, and perseverance. Guskey (2015) defined engagement as a psychological process, specifically, the attention, interest, investment, and effort students expend in the

work of learning. Ashton and Webb (2016) defined student engagement as the degree of attention, curiosity, interest, optimism, and passion that students show when they are learning or being taught, which extends to the level of motivation they have to learn and progress in their education. Student engagement mostly involves positive student behaviours, such as attendance, paying attention, and participation in class, as well as the psychological experience of identifying with school and feeling that one is cared for, respected, and part of the school environment (Gibson & Dembo, 2014). Even though, different authors have given various interpretation of the concept of student engagement, they all seem to emphasise how educators and or the school engage learners in educationally valuable learning experiences in order to promote active learning.

The definition of school engagement is complex, and there has been some disagreement with regard to the number of theoretical dimensions. Some scholars argue for two dimensions (i.e., behavioural and emotional and other scholars argue for three dimensions (i.e., behavioral, emotional, and cognitive (Gibson & Dembo, 2014). Ashton and Webb (2016) identify three distinct categories of student engagement: behavioural engagement, affective engagement, and cognitive engagement. The first type of student engagement behavioural engagement includes a student's compliance with rules and involvement in the classroom and with extracurricular activities. The second type of student engagement, affective engagement, includes the experience, feelings, attitudes, and perceptions a student has towards school, specifically the student's sense of belonging, interest, willingness to learn, and a general sense of liking school. The third type of engagement, cognitive engagement, refers to the cognitive functions involved in a student's learning process (Gibson & Dembo, 2014).

55

According to Ashton and Webb (2016), student engagement is critical for three reasons. First, it is a necessary condition for students to learn only if students participate in academic activities with both ''hands-on'' and ''heads-on''. When this happens, the time that students spend in classroom will result in the acquisition of knowledge and skills. No matter how many extracurricular activities students undertake or how attached they are to school, they will not learn or achieve anything unless they are constructively engaged in the academic work of the classroom.

Second, engagement shapes students' everyday experiences in school, both psychologically and socially. High-quality engagement and its resultant learning and scholastic success lead students to feel more academically competent and connected, and elicit more positive support from teachers (Gibson & Dembo, 2014). Disengaged students tend to perform poorly in school and feel so marginalised, resentful and ineffective. Teachers respond to such students with less support and more coercion, and disaffected students are more likely to join disengaged peer groups and become friends with other disaffected students. Hence, students' classroom engagement plays an important role in the quality of their daily experiences while they are attending school (Gibson & Dembo, 2014).

Third, engagement is a critical contributor to students' academic development. Engagement is a part of the process of everyday academic resilience and an energetic resource that helps students cope more adaptively with daily stressors, challenges and setbacks in the school. Engagement can be seen as a key player in the development of academic asset that takes place across the school year and over the arc of a student's entire educational career (Gibson & Dembo, 2014).

Gibbs (2013) noted that student engagement is active learning. According to Gibbs (2013), if students are not engaged in the learning process, all of the testing, data analysis, teacher meetings, and instructional minutes in the world will not motivate students to learn. Another important benefit of student engagement is that students who are engaged in school are less likely to fall victim to potential adolescent troubles (Gibson & Dembo, 2014). Chong and Kong, (2012) suggested that student engagement protects against behaviours that are not a part of the school environment, such as substance abuse, risky sexual behaviours, and delinquency. Gibbs (2013) further shown that students' sense of belonging at school, which can come as a result of facilitating student engagement in school activities, gatherings, and access to adults and other students, influences students' psychological and academic results in a positive way (Gibbs, 2013).

2.18.3.1. Dimensions of Students Engagement Affective Engagement:

The affective aspect of student engagement is elemental in understanding the concept of student engagement as a whole. In an educational context, affective engagement refers to the students' sense of belonging as well as their relationship with and value of school as an institution (Gibbs, 2013). In other words, affective engagement not only includes students' interpretations of teacher-student and peer relations, but also the students' emotional or affective relations to school. This component of student engagement relates to the students' sense of belonging at school and their feelings of assurance, safety, comfort and support in school settings (Gibbs, 2013).

Students' affective engagement can be regarded in terms of an internalized understanding of belonging, whereby they are part of the school experience and vice versa, and they value the achievement of goals set at or by the school (Gibbs, 2013). At the same time, motivational researchers use "relatedness" to describe secure connection with and a feeling of personal worth within a social context, and stress its importance for human growth and development as well as autonomy and competence (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). An emphasis on the quality of education alone does not suffice. Quality of education means quality of teaching and improvement of the classroom atmosphere so that all students can participate and learn; however, an emphasis on human relationships is complimentary, if not necessary (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2017).

A sense of belonging, and security which addresses part of the affective aspect of student engagement, is important for a child's well-being, interest in school and academic progress. A student's sense of belonging or being valued is created and sustained in successful social relationships that are developed amongst students and teachers at school. Some factors encouraging a sense of belonging to school are the teacher's interest in students, effectiveness and fairness of discipline, and school participation (Gibbs, 2013). For example, a sense of belonging and mutuality arises in settings where students can voice complaints without fearing a low grade and where trust, equity and justice are maintained on the part of teachers and students alike (Ross & Hannay, 2011). In addition to that, belonging entails embracing the educational goals of the group and actively participating in the effort towards the accomplishment of these goals as well as the acceptance, respect, encouragement and support of the students' peers and teachers in return for that participation. That is supported by Gibbs (2013)

58

model of dropout prevention, according to which a sense of belonging is important to students, for school outcomes are mediated through students' active participation in school and classroom activities and a concomitant feeling of identification with school. However, belonging also occurs by means of extracurricular activities on top of or in lieu of further participation in academic work, as they result in higher self-esteem and control, academic aspirations, abilities and performance, and more participation in the school's political affairs (Gibbs, 2013). When students are so involved in their school as an institution or as a social environment where various forces are at play, belonging is not something that is fixed and stable in an individual, but susceptible to change and dependent on the environment. Belonging and student expectations as determined both by individual features and the school environment are something of particular interest to this study which regards early adolescence, a time of uncertainty and psychological unrest for an individual (Gibbs, 2013).
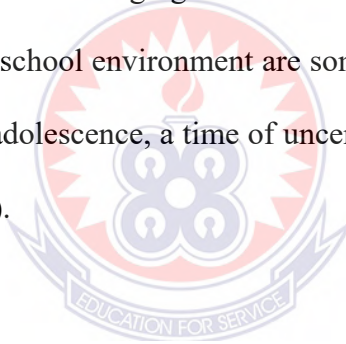
Cognitive Engagement:

Despite the fact that education also concerns the socialization and emotional development of children, the school as an institution at an administrative level is highly preoccupied with academic achievement (Fullan, 2011). Therefore, cognitive subtype of student engagement is worth examining, particularly in relation to the affective one. In general, cognitive engagement is defined as a student's degree of involvement in school in terms of personal effort regarding her education (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2014). It pertains to the amount of effort students are willing to invest in working on the task at hand and how long they persist and includes homework completion, class attendance,

extra-curricular participation in activities, or the students' general interactions with the teachers, and how motivated they seem while engaging in classroom discussions (DuFour, 2012). It can also be conceptualized as self-regulation and overall investment in learning for the achievement of deeper learning experiences (DuFour, 2012).

Behavioral and emotional engagement: Chacon (2015), in their research on motivation in the classroom, stated that children engagement in learning is made up of both behavioral and emotional factors, and these dynamics are influenced by student perceptions of teacher behavior. Engaged children are behaviorally involved in classroom learning activities, and they exhibit a positive emotional tone in their work (Chacon, 2015). Behavioral characteristics include children selecting learning tasks in which effort and concentration must be initiated; and positive tones comprise enthusiasm, optimism, and interest in activities (Chacon, 2015). Engaged children frequently earn higher grades, but student intrinsic motivation decreases over school years and into adolescence; therefore, teachers must facilitate student engagement (Chacon, 2015). Teachers must surmise engagement through various indicators such as participation in academic work, intensity of concentration, enthusiasm expressed, and the degree of care shown in completing the learning assignments (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

Emotional engagement refers to students' visceral reactions in the classroom. Students who are emotionally engaged display interest and happiness, as well as lack of anxiety (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Teachers are often the ones who nurture interest in school, and a significant part of emotional engagement involves positive interaction with multiple people. Learning is inherently social; it happens in the context of positive

60

interactions and relationships with teachers, peers, family, experts, and others. These interactions help promote learning and encourage a sense of belonging and liking school (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

2.18.3.2. Teacher efficacy for student engagement

Butler (2011) notes that learners who are more behaviourally engaged in the classroom tend to develop closer relationships with their teachers over time than those who are less engaged. In the same vein, two observational studies, one of middle and the other junior high schoolers reveal that students who show more participation in class elicit greater teacher responsiveness (Butler, 2011).

According to Caprara and Steca (2013), the nature of the interaction teachers have with their students can shape student engagement in the classroom in at least two ways: First, it promotes students' intrinsic motivation by offering challenging and fun learning activities that encourages students to discover and follow their own interests and set realistic goals to achieve. It also provides clear instruction and feedback about how students can reach their goals. Second, it creates classroom contexts that support the development of more self-determined reasons for accomplishing the parts of learning that are not intrinsically fun. Students are more likely to internalize autonomous reasons for completing extrinsically motivated tasks in school when they learn from teachers who display the three features of motivational support. The features of motivational support displayed by teachers include: (1) fostering a caring relationship (warmth and involvement), (2) providing challenging learning activities with high expectations and clear feedback (optimal structure), and (3) explaining the relevance and importance of

61

activities and rules while soliciting input from students and respecting their opinions (autonomy support) (Chester & Beaudin, 2016).

Teachers can facilitate students' engagement and constructive coping directly through their own actions and modelling in the classroom. Teachers' enthusiasm and excitement about a subject can be contagious (Chester & Beaudin, 2016). Teachers' hard work and careful thought can communicate the importance and value of knowledge and skills. Student engagement is strongly related to teachers' self-efficacy, Labone (2014) conclude that track and age effects on student efficacy are closely tied to track and age effects on student engagement. In other words, the possibility exists that teachers found low-track students and younger students to be difficult to engage, thereby feeling less able to carry out the tasks needed to affect performance for these students (Labone, 2014).

To sum it up, teachers' sense of efficacy for student engagement reflects a person's confidence that they can help students become and remain involved, invested, or motivated for learning (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2014).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the methodological perspectives on which the whole study is anchored. In the process, the research approach, its ontological and epistemological orientations, research approach and design, data collection and generation as well as data analysis methods employed are discussed. The chapter also justifies the selection of respondents and ethical considerations observed in this study.

3.2. Research Approach

Babbie (2010) defines a research approach as a whole system of thinking which includes basic assumptions, the important questions to be answered or puzzles to be solved, including the research techniques to be used. This definition shows that a research approach tells the researcher how to go about conducting research, based on the assumptions and questions to be answered. Three distinctly different paradigms that guide research are quantitative, qualitative and mixed method (Creswell, 2011).

Based on her middle position on both ontological and epistemological stance, the researcher approached this study followed was the mixed method approach. This implied that the research followed on both quantitative and qualitative approaches in this single study to overcome the limitations inherent in each of the approaches, thereby enhancing the quality, robustness and analytical power of the study (Bryman, 2012). Mixed method enabled the collection of both breadth (quantitative) and dept (qualitative) data, to

provide the deeper understanding of the research problem, which would not have been possible for single approach (Bryman, 2012).

3.3. Reasons for using a mixed method approach

Many researchers believe in using a mixed methods design. Bryman (2015) identifies many of these reasons. For example, triangulation is used to relate quantitative to qualitative data. Babbie (2010) identifies four types of triangulations: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theoretical triangulation and methodological triangulation. Data triangulation is about collecting data in different contexts with different participants. Investigator triangulation is what happens when more than one researcher works on the same study. Using different theories to explain the data is called theoretical triangulation. Finally, using more than one methodology in the same research is called methodological triangulation (Babbie, 2010).

However, Bryman (2008) concludes that triangulation follows the realism view where there is one single approach to interpreting the data in social science, while constructionism assumes that research findings could be explained using more than one approach, and that triangulation can enrich the research findings. Furthermore, triangulation explains the data collected using different methodologies to answer a research question in the same way, while there could be different social circumstances associated with each methodology (Bryman, 2008).

The second reason could be complementarity, by using the results of one method to explain the results of the other method used in the research. Development is also used when the results of one method are used to develop the results of the other one. In

64

addition, when the results of one method are used to find the contradiction to the results of the other method, then this is called initiation. Finally, expansion could be one of the reasons for using mixed method research when we are interested in increasing the range that the study covers (Bryman, 2008).

There could also be other reasons for using mixed methods, such as combining the strengths of both methods to overcome the weaknesses, which is called offsetting (Neuman, 2011). Furthermore, we sometimes need to combine both methods since the quantitative method provides structure data while the qualitative method will be more about process data. The results of one method could be used to explain the results of the other (Neuman, 2011). In addition, if we get unexpected results from one method, then the other method could be used to clarify the reasons for such results. Moreover, a mixed method could be used to develop the instruments used in the research, such as better questionnaires or scales. Using mixed methods also helps to sample the results and increase their credibility (Bryman, 2012). Mixed method also helps to better understand the context when quantitative data does not cover all the needed information.   This will also help to illustrate the quantitative data. Results coming from mixed methods will also be more practical to apply. Moreover, when a qualitative method is used to generate a hypothesis, then the quantitative method can be used to test this hypothesis. Using mixed methods also helps to join different quantitative and qualitative views and to enhance the research by having data from more than one approach (Bryman, 2012).

3.4. Research Design

A research design, according to Creswell (2014), outlines the specific procedures for collecting, analyzing and reporting in research. It may be thought of as a map of how the research will unfold and provides a logical plan as to how it will be conducted and the findings validated. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), a research design involves a set of decisions regarding what topic is to be studied among what population with what research methods for what purpose, research design is the process of focusing your perspective for the purposes of a particular study. For Bryman (2015), the research design serves to plan, structure and execute the research in order to maximize the validity of the findings.

The present study adopted a mixed methods convergent parallel design which included separate analysis of quantitative and qualitative data, which were previously collected separately (Bryman, 2012). Within this mixed methods design, the two different types of data were weighted equally for analysis. The study employed experimental and descriptive research design. Experimental research to establish the cause-and-effect relationship between the variables that is, teaching practice program and self-efficacy of beginning teachers. This method is very useful for making statistical generalizations about population (Johnson & Christensen). Descriptive research design also fits into this study because the researcher searched for answers to questions relating to the contribution of teaching practice program to the self-efficacy of beginning teachers. Results of the quantitative and qualitative data were then converged for interpretation for an enhanced discussion. The quantitative and qualitative data are complementary,

therefore providing elaboration or enhancement of results from both methods and were synthesized for a deeper understanding of the current topic (Bryman, 2012).

3.5. Population and Sample Selection

The population of this study included all beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North. There are about 20 public basic schools within the municipality, with about half of them sited in Tepa township. Almost all the schools found in the municipality are partner schools to student trainees from St. Joseph College of Education located at Bechem in the Bono region. In the Tepa township one out the 10 basic schools is not a partner school due to accessibility especially during the rainy season.

According to Bryman (2015) a target population provides a solid foundation and first step upon which to build population validity of the study. Creswell (2014) observes that any scientific research targets a given population through which questionnaires or interviews are distributed so as to get the desired or the required data for analysis. The target population for the study was made up of all newly trained basic school teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality who have been in the teaching service from 2018 to 2020, a period of 3 years that amounted to 315 newly trained teachers.

Creswell (2013) refers to sample size as the number of representatives selected for inclusion from the population for a study. The number depends on the accuracy needed, population size, population heterogeneity and resources available. The sample size for this study is based on Bryman and Bell (2015) who premised that 35% of the population was representative enough for a study. The sample size for the study is 110 participants. All 20 schools located in the municipality were visited and teachers who fell into this

category were selected using purposive sampling procedure. In Purposive sampling, the researcher was only interested in teachers who were engaged in the service in the last three years. Finally, snowball sampling was used to get the rest of the teachers that made up the sample size. Here teachers who participated in the research identified colleagues who met the criteria of the study for them to be included. Questionnaires and semi-structured interview were used for this study

3.6.1. Questionnaire

In the view of Creswell (2013), questionnaires offer participants the advantage of answering questions with the assurance of anonymity for their responses. Questionnaires are fast and convenient and given the level of education of the teachers in the schools, it was not likely for them to misinterpret the questions and give misleading answers. The use of questionnaires ensured that, quantifiable responses were obtained for the purpose of establishing relationships between the identified variables and the responses. The questionnaire consisted of four sections (A, B, C, D). Section A dealt with demographic characteristics of the respondents. Section B dealt with the self-efficacy beliefs of the beginning teachers. This section had 12 items of which items 1 to 4 measured beginning teachers' efficacy for student engagement, items 5 to 8 also measured efficacy for instructional strategies, whilst items 9 to 12 also measured efficacy for classroom management. Section C had 7 items which measured beginning teachers' development of self-efficacy via teaching practice. Again, Section D also had 7 items, focused on beginning teachers teaching practice. The questionnaire was on a 5-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree).

3.6.2. Interviews

Farquhar (2012) point out that, the purpose of interviewing is to find out what is in someone else's mind and since this cannot be directly observed or measured, the researcher has to ask questions in such a way as to obtain meaningful information. According to Wellman (2015) the purpose of interviewing is to understand the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience. Social institutions like education are best understood through the experiences of the individuals whose work and lives contribute to the formation of the institution. According to Stake (2010), interviews are similar to questionnaires in that, they are organized around a series of questions and rely on interviewees being able to answer and tell the "truth" as they see it.

Individual interviews were conducted with 10 newly trained to complement the quantitative findings. The researcher started by stating clearly the purpose of the interview and also reassuring them of anonymity and confidentiality. The researcher acted as a facilitator with the help of a semi-structured interview guide. During the interview the researcher posed follow-up questions that provoked deeper analysis of the issues discussed, and basically that is the advantage of an interview over a questionnaire. A checklist was however deployed to ensure that information collected stayed on point.

3.6.3 Observation

Observation was employed to ascertain whether the information gathered from respondents were indeed valid and also to gain 'first-hand information' on research site.

The researcher with the help of an observation guide entered some of the classes of the respondents to observe the instructional strategies adopted by the teachers,

classroom management and learning outcomes of learners. A total of 20 teachers were observed for three weeks. The researcher observed that some of the teachers were having difficulty in their lesson delivery although the presence of the researcher may have been a factor. Again, others employed instructional strategies that resulted in poor learner participation thereby creating a very destructive class. Poor classroom management was also observed by some of the teachers.

An observation has the advantage of allowing objects to be seen during a research (Creswell, 2014). However, Creswell argues that the practice only allows observations that are accessible to the researcher.

3.7. Validity and Reliability of the Quantitative Instruments

Validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what is supposed to measure. That is, asking the right question and framed accordingly. For the instrument to be valid, the content selected and included in the questionnaire must be relevant to the variable being investigated. For this study, validity refers to the content validity. Validity also refers to the extent to which differences found with a measuring instrument reflects a true difference among those being tested (Bryman, 2012). According to Bryman (2012), content validity is a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument presents a specific content of a particular concept; whereas construct validity is a measure of the degree to which data obtained from an instrument accurately and meaningfully reflects a theoretical framework (concept). To validate the test items, the questionnaires were submitted to my supervisor for verification and also to Mr. Eric Twum Ampofo a lecturer at the University of Education, Mampong.

Reliability of the instrument refers to the degree to which the instrument consistently measures whatever it is measuring (Bryman, 2012). To establish the reliability coefficient, the instrument was piloted and the cronbach alpha was calculated with the help of SPSS version 20.0 to reach the overall cronbach alpha of 0.07.

3.8. Validity and Reliability of the Qualitative Data

Reliability and validity as understood in quantitative research, is often referred to as 'trustworthiness' in qualitative research (Selltiz, 2012). In qualitative research, the researcher is the main data collection instrument, unlike in quantitative research where an 'objective' data collection instrument, such as a questionnaire or a test, is used. In qualitative research the researcher observes and identifies what needs to be identified, hence the focus is on the quality of the methods used by the researcher (Selltiz, 2012). The following strategies ensured trustworthiness during the qualitative phase of the study (Miller, 2010):

- **Prolonged data collection period:** The data were collected over a relatively long period of time. This gave the researcher the opportunity for continual data analysis, comparison and corroboration to refine ideas

- **Participants' language:** User-friendly language was used by the researcher to ensure maximum understanding on the part of the respondents, whose home language is predominantly English. The data were, however, reported in English.

3.9. Pilot Test

A pilot study was conducted at Ahafo Ano South District with 50 newly trained teachers. The pilot test helped to remove ambiguities, and unnecessary items in the questionnaire. Pilot testing of the instruments helped to unearth the content validity and reliability of the questions in measuring what it was intended to measure. The questionnaire was then amended accordingly for use in the field. The refining of the items in the instrument was intended to make the items very simple for the respondents to understand so that they could provide the appropriate response to the items. The pilot test also gave a fair idea of the responses to be obtained from the field. The responses were fed into the SPSS version 20.0 and run the reliability analysis to obtain the cronbach alpha. Five teachers were also involved in the qualitative data collection.

3.10. Procedure for Data Collection

The researcher sought permission from the Municipal Director of Education. Four (4) days after the permission, the researcher gathered the selected participants in a classroom and administered the questionnaire and also guided them to fill the questionnaire. This was done in badges for the 110 participants which took place during school days between 3:00pm – 4:00pm. In addition, the researcher used interview guide to solicit the opinion of 10 teachers' perception on their adaptation challenges. It was a face-to-face interview. The selection of the respondents was done using the snowball sampling method. A newly trained teacher who was personally known by the researcher introduced other respondents that fell into the same category. This was useful for gathering in-depth information on the subject under investigation.

72

3.11. Data Analysis

After sorting out the questionnaires, the data were computed and analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. The study employed experimental and descriptive research design. Experimental research to establish the cause-and-effect relationship between the variables that is teaching practice program and self-efficacy of beginning teachers. This method is very useful for making statistical generalizations about population (Johnson & Christensen). Descriptive research design also fits into this study because the researcher searched for answers to questions relating to the contribution of teaching practice program to the self-efficacy of beginning teachers. Results of the quantitative and qualitative data were then converged for interpretation for an enhanced discussion. The statistical analysis such as mean, frequencies and percentages, chi-square and linear regression were used in the quantitative data. A chi-square test of independent was used to analyze the data with self-efficacy as one variable and newly trained teachers' gender as the second variable. The qualitative data was collected through interviews and analysed by playing the tapes several times until the transcriptions of the interview was obtained. Content analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data. According to Neuman (2011) content analysis is a well-known technique for contextual investigation. They explained that in the content analysis, categories are created by the researchers and related instances falling into each category are detected.

Research ethics need to be followed when conducting any type of research, be it quantitative or qualitative. These guidelines are intended to protect the research

participants' physical and mental integrity. The two main aspects to consider are consent and confidentiality (Creswell, 2013).

Informed consent involves obtaining the verbal and written approval of the participants to take part in the intended research. This ensures that they voluntarily participate in the study and that they make an informed choice following a clear explanation regarding the research process and requirements.

Creswell (2013) contends that researchers have a dual responsibility, firstly, the protection of the participant's confidence from other actors in the setting whose private information might enable them to identify them and secondly, the protection of informants from the general reading public. For Creswell (2013), both the researcher and participant must have a clear understanding regarding the confidentiality of the results and findings of a study. Flowing from this, all reasonable steps to maintain the confidentiality of the participants were taken care of. All the information and responses that were shared by the participants during this study were kept private, and the results were presented in an anonymous manner in order to protect the participants' identities. All audio cassettes that were used during the study are kept in a safe place.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter is divided into two major sections. The first section provides the demographic characteristics of the respondents; the second section presents the answers and discussion to the study research questions.

4.2. Response Rate

The researcher administered 110 questionnaires that represented 100% to the teachers, but 105 questionnaires were returned. This also represented 95.5%.

4.3 Analysis of Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

It was important to analyse the background characteristics of the various respondents of the study; that is the teachers who participated in this study. Their characteristics have a strong bearing on the study's findings relating to the research questions. The gender of respondents indicated a difference of 63 male newly trained teachers representing 60.0% and 42 female newly trained teachers representing 40.0%.

Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	63	60.0
Female	42	40.0
Total	**105**	**100.0**

The dominant age group of the respondents ranged between 23 – 26 years representing (56, 53.3%), followed by age group less than 23 years representing (25, 23.8%) whereas 27 years and above made up the smallest group, representing (24, 22.9%) of the respondents.

Table 4.2: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 23	25	23.8
Between 23 – 26	56	53.3
27+	24	22.9
Total	**105**	**100.0**

With regard to number of years taught by the respondents, Table 4.3 indicates that 31 of the newly trained teachers representing 41.3% reported that they were within their first year, 24 of them representing 32% indicated that they were within their second year, while 20(26.7%0 also reported that they were within their third year.

Table 4.3: Distribution of Respondents years taught

Years Taught	Frequency	Percentage
One year	23	21.9
Two years	39	37.1
Three years	43	41.0
Total	**105**	**100**

4.4. SECTION B – Analysis and Discussions of Research Questions

4.4.1. Research Question One – What are the relative levels of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers?

This research question was intended to find out the average levels of self-efficacy of newly trained teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. This study focused on the three keys amongst them namely:

    i.   Efficacy for student engagement

    ii. Efficacy for instructional strategies

    iii. Efficacy for classroom management

Efficacy for student engagement

This research question was to find out the newly trained teachers' efficacy in students' academic engagement in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. The newly trained teachers were to agree or disagree with a number of statements related to their personal adaptation challenges on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree and their responses were recorded in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Newly trained teachers' efficacy for students' academic engagement in the AAA Municipality

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
1. I can motivate students who show low interest in school work	21(20.0)	13(12.4)	12(11.4)	34(32.4)	25(23.8)	3.28
2. I can get my students to believe they can do well in school work	16(15.2)	18(17.1)	11(10.5)	24(22.9)	36(34.3)	3.44
3. I can help my students to value learning	6(5.7)	13(12.4)	15(14.3)	25(23.8)	46(43.8)	3.88
4. I can assist families in helping their children do well in school	11(10.5)	12(11.4)	9(8.6)	36(34.3)	37(35.2)	3.72
Weighted Mean						3.58

Table 4.4 presents the newly trained basic school teachers' efficacy for students academic engagement in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. In the first place, the researcher wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they can motivate students who show low interest in school. With this statement, 21(20.0%) strongly disagreed, 13(12.4%) disagreed, 12(11.4%) were not sure, 34(32.4%) agreed, while

78

25(23.8%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.28 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

The researcher further wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they can get their students to believe they can do well in school work. With this statement, 16(15.2%) strongly disagree, 18(17.1%) disagreed, 11(10.5%) were not sure, 24(22.9%) agreed, while 36(34.3%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.44 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

In addition, the researcher wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they can help their students to value learning. With this statement, 6(5.7%) strongly disagree, 13(12.4%) disagree, 15(14.3%) were not sure, 25(23.8%) agreed, while 46(43.8%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.88 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

Lastly, I wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they can assist parents in helping their children do well in school. With this statement, 11(10.5%) strongly disagree 12(11.4%) disagree, 9(8.6%) were not sure, 36(34.3%) agreed, while 37(35.2%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.72 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

Table 4.5 presents that, majority of the newly trained teachers highly agreed on item 3 (i.e, I can help my students to value learning). The Table indicated that (25+46, = 23.8% +43.8% = 67.6 %) agree, 15(14.3%) were not sure, while (6+13, = 5.7% +12.4% = 18.1 %) disagree with that statement.

Efficacy for instructional strategies

This research question was intended to find out the newly trained teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. The newly trained teachers were to agree or disagree with a number of statements related to their personal adaptation challenges on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree and their responses were recorded in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Newly trained teachers' efficacy for instructional efficacy in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
1. I am able to craft good questions for my students to learn better	25(23.8)	19(18.1)	10(9.5)	24(22.9)	27(25.7)	3.09
2. I mostly use variety of assessment strategies to help my students to learn effectively	24(22.9)	36(34.3)	9(8.6)	21(20.0)	15(14.3)	2.69
3. I am able to provide alternative explanation or examples when students are confused	29(27.6)	34(32.4)	12(11.4)	22(21.0)	8(7.6)	2.49

4. I am to implement alternative strategies in my classroom to help my students to understand my lessons	30(28.6)	35(33.3)	15(14.3)	14(13.3)	11(10.5)	2.44
Weighted Mean						2.68

Table 4.5 presents the newly trained basic school teachers' efficacy for instructional efficacy in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. In the first place, the researcher wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they were able to craft good questions for their students to learn better. With this statement, 25(23.8%) strongly disagreed, 19(18.1%) disagreed, 10(9.5%) were not sure, 24(22.9%) agreed, while 27(25.7%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.09 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

The researcher further wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they used variety of assessment strategies to help their students to learn effectively. With this statement, 24(22.9%) strongly disagree, 36(34.3%) disagreed, 9(8.6%) were not sure, 21(20.0%) agreed, while 15(14.3%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 2.69 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers were not sure with that statement.

In addition, the researcher wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they provided alternative explanation or examples when students are confused. With this statement, 29(27.6%) strongly disagree, 34(32.4%) disagree, 12(11.4%) were not sure,

22(21.0%) agreed, while 8(7.6%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 2.49 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers were not sure with that statement.

Lastly, I wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they would use alternative strategies in their classroom to help students to understand their lessons. With this statement, 30(28.6%) strongly disagree 35(33.3%) disagree, 15(14.3%) were not sure, 14(13.3%) agreed, while 11(10.5%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 2.44 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers were not sure with that statement.

Table 4.5 shows that, majority of the newly trained teachers agreed on item 1 (i.e., I am able to craft good questions for my students). The Table indicated that (24+27, = 22.9% +25.7% = 48.6 %) agree, 10(9.5%) were not sure, while (25+19, = 23.8% +18.1% = 41.9 %) disagree with that statement. The weighted or the grand mean of 2.68 implies that the newly trained teachers were not sure that they were efficient for instructional efficacy.

Efficacy for classroom management

This research question was intended to find out the newly trained teachers' efficacy for classroom management in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. The newly trained teachers were to agree or disagree with a number of statements related to their personal adaptation challenges on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree and their responses were recorded in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Newly trained teachers' efficacy for classroom management in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
1. I can control disruptive behaviours in my classroom	3(2.9)	9(8.6)	6(5.7)	29(27.6)	58(55.2)	4.21
2. I can get my students to follow classroom rules	9(8.6)	6(5.7)	7(6.7)	25(23.8)	58(55.2)	4.11
3. I can calm my students who are disruptive or noisy	4(3.8)	8(7.6)	15(14.3)	46(43.8)	32(30.5)	3.90
4. I can establish a classroom management system with each group	8(7.6)	4(3.8)	8(7.6)	24(22.9)	61(58.1)	4.20
Weighted Mean						4.11

Table 4.6 presents the newly trained basic school teachers' efficacy for classroom management in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. In the first place, the researcher wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they can control disruptive behavior in my classroom. With this statement, 3(2.9%) strongly disagreed, 9(8.6%) disagreed, 6(5.7%) were not sure, 29(27.6%) agreed, while 58(55.2%) strongly agreed with that

83

statement. The mean score of 4.21 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers strongly agreed with that statement.

The researcher further wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they can get students to follow classroom rules. With this statement, 9(8.6%) strongly disagree, 6(5.7%) disagreed, 7(6.7%) were not sure, 25(23.8%) agreed, while 58(55.2%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 4.11 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers strongly agreed with that statement.

In addition, the researcher wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they can calm their students who are disruptive or noisy. With this statement, 4(3.8%) strongly disagree, 8(7.6%) disagree, 15(14.3%) were not sure, 46(43.8%) agreed, while 32(30.5%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.90 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

Lastly, I wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they can establish a classroom management system with each group of students. With this statement, 8(7.6%) strongly disagree 4(3.8%) disagree, 8(7.6%) were not sure, 24(22.9%) agreed, while 61(58.1%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 4.20 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers strongly agreed with that statement.

Table 4.7 presents that, majority of the newly trained teachers agreed on item 1 (i.e, I can control disruptive behavior in my classroom). The Table indicated that (29+58, = 27.6% +55.2% = 82.8 %) agree, 6(5.7%) were not sure, while (3+9, = 2.9% +8.6% = 11.5%) disagree with that statement. The weighted or the grand mean of 4.11implies that the newly trained teachers strongly agreed on their efficacy of classroom management.

Summary of the dimensions of newly trained teachers' efficacy

Even though, the newly trained teachers exhibit all of the three dimensions of the efficacy, this does not necessarily mean that all have equal impact. The following table clearly compares the overall three dimensions of the efficacy.

Table 4.7: Summary of the newly trained teachers' efficacy

No	Dimensions of Efficacy	Grand weighted mean	Interpretation	Rank of Severity
1.	Students' academic	3.58	Agree	2nd
2.	Instructional efficacy	2.68	Not Sure	3rd
3.	Classroom Management	4.11	Strongly Agree	1st

The grand weighted mean in the above table clearly depicts that the newly trained teachers strongly agree that they were efficient at managing their classroom during lessons in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. This dimension of teacher had the grand weighted mean of 4.11, meaning that majority of the newly trained teacher strongly agreed with that dimension of the efficacy. This was followed by students' academic engagement. This dimension of efficacy also had the grand weighted mean of 3.58, which indicated that the newly trained teachers agreed with that dimension of efficacy. The table further presents that instructional dimension of efficacy was the least dimension of efficacy of the newly trained basic school teachers. This dimension of efficacy had the grand weighted mean of 2.68, which indicated that the newly trained teachers were not sure with their instructional efficacy. As shown in Table 4.1, participants in this research

study reported higher self-efficacy in classroom management but lower efficacy in instructional strategies.

This finding was in line with that of Lavine (2016) who emphasized that teaching practice improves the newly trained teachers' classroom management that in turn improves their teaching effectiveness. This finding was in line with Lander (2017) who noted that newly trained teachers who failed to take their teaching practice programme seriously face the problem of class control. This finding confirms that of Lambeth (2012) who stated that teaching practice influence the teachers' sense of teaching efficacy that in turn affects their ability to effectively manage a classroom.

Qualitatively, the interviewees were asked to determine the level of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers. With this question, all of the interviewees indicated that they were experiencing moderate teaching efficacy. Relating their moderate teaching efficacy to their teaching practice ineffectiveness

One of the teachers stated that:

''I am not so confident in my lesson delivery due to inadequate teaching practice experience. This always made me ineffective in classroom management and instructional strategies.''

Another interviewee stated that:

''Teachers who have high experience in their teachings are also favoured in their teaching profession''

This finding was in line with Henson (2018) who noted that the overall teaching practice programme strongly related to the degree of teachers' levels of efficacy and

concluded that these correlations bring to light the importance of having effective teaching practice programme. The findings also support that of Bar (2018) who indicated that teachers who feel that they are absorbed for by teaching practice programme also have not only higher levels of teaching efficacy, but that they are more conscious about their responsibilities, have greater involvement in the school, and are more innovative.

4.4.2. Research Question Two – How does the teaching practice programme influence the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers?

This research question was intended to find out the manner the teaching practice programme influence the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers. The questionnaires were given to the newly trained teachers and their responses were presented on Table 4.8.
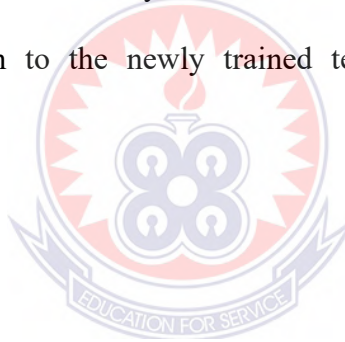
Table 4.8: Teaching practice programme influence the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
1. The teaching practice programme has provided instructional assistance to me	7(6.7)	20(19.0)	18(17.1)	34(32.4)	26(24.8)	**3.50**
2. My teaching performance will be improved as a result of the teaching practice programme	22(21.0)	25(23.8)	16(15.2)	14(13.3)	28(26.7)	**3.01**
3. I was exposed to various teaching strategies during my teaching practice	9(8.6)	13(12.4)	6(5.7)	35(33.3)	42(40.0)	**3.84**
4. I had a greater sense of confidence in my ability to teach as a result of the teaching practice programme	10(9.5)	24(22.9)	12(11.4)	35(33.3)	24(22.9)	**3.37**
5. The teaching practice programme has provided me with opportunities for my development in classroom management	5(4.8)	8(7.6)	6(5.7)	34(32.4)	52(49.5)	**4.14**
6.The teaching practice programme has helped me in questions distribution in the classroom	15(14.3)	19(18.1)	7(6.7)	35(33.3)	29(27.6)	**3.42**
Weighted Mean						

Table 4.8 presents the newly trained basic school teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality responses on ways teaching practice programme influenced the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers. In the first place, the researcher wanted to find

88

out from the newly trained teachers if the teaching practice programme has provided instructional assistance to them. With this statement, 7(6.7%) strongly disagreed, 20(19.0%) disagreed, 18(17.1%) were not sure, 34(32.4%) agreed, while 26(24.8%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.50 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

The researcher further wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if their teaching performance had been improved as a result of the teaching practice programme. With this statement, 22(21.0%) strongly disagree, 25(23.8%) disagreed, 16(15.2%) were not sure, 14(13.3%) agreed, while 28(26.7%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.01 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

In addition, the researcher wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they were exposed to various teaching strategies during their teaching practice. With this statement, 9(8.6%) strongly disagree, 13(12.4%) disagree, 6(5.7%) were not sure, 35(33.3%) agreed, while 42(40.0%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.84 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

Again, the researcher further wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if they have a greater sense of confidence in their ability to teach as a result of the teaching practice programme. With this statement, 10(9.5%) strongly disagree, 24(22.9%) disagree, 12(11.4%) were not sure, 35(33.3%) agreed, while 24(22.9%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.37 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

The researcher further wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if the teaching practice programme has provided opportunities for their development in their classroom management. With this statement, 5(4.8%) strongly disagree, 8(7.6%) disagree, 6(5.7%) were not sure, 34(32.4%) agreed, while 52(49.5%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 4.14 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers strongly agreed with that statement.

Lastly, the researcher wanted to find out from the newly trained teachers if the teaching practice programme has helped them in question distribution in the classroom. With this statement, 15(14.3%) strongly disagree 19(18.1%) disagree, 7(6.7%) were not sure, 25(33.3%) agreed, while 29(27.6%) strongly agreed with that statement. The mean score of 3.42 implies that averagely the newly trained teachers agreed with that statement.

Table 4.8 presents that, majority of the newly trained teachers strongly agree on item 5 (i.e., the teaching practice programme had provided opportunities for my development in my classroom management). The Table indicated that (34+52, = 32.4% +49.5% = 81.9 %) agree, 6(5.7%) were not sure, whiles (5+8, = 4.8% +7.6% = 12.4 %) disagree with that statement. This finding supports that of Ashton and Webb (2016) who noted that teachers' ability to organize classrooms and manage the students' behaviour is highly important in achieving positive educational outcomes. The finding further concurred that of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2018) who noted that highly efficacious teachers tend to be more organised, display greater skills of instruction, questioning, explaining, and providing feedback to students having difficulties, and maintaining students on task in effective classroom management. Moreover, the finding was in line

with Hoang (2017) who emphasized that teachers' self-efficacy does influence teacher behaviour regarding classroom management and possibly even students behaviour. The finding further supports that of Emmer and Hickman (2016) who indicated that classroom management is a broad umbrella term describing a teacher's efforts to oversee classroom activities such as learning, social interaction and student behavior and it is efficacious teacher who reached classroom management. The finding was in line with Gibson and Dembo (2014) found that teachers who reported high levels of self-efficacy reported frequent use of effective strategies in classroom management behaviour. This finding also was in line with Giallo and Little (2013) reported that teachers who were perceived to have high classroom management self-efficacy were more effective in dealing with severe and unmanageable behaviours of their students than teachers who were perceived as having a lower sense of self-efficacy in behaviour management.

Qualitatively, the interviewees were asked on how teaching practice influence self-efficacy belief of beginning teachers. With this question the interviewees claimed that teaching practice is a key component of the teacher training programme. They further added that it is during this period that the student teachers get to translate the skills and theory learnt into reality through actual classroom teaching. In their attempt to answer this question, the following themes emerged:

- **Teaching to meet the learner's level**

- **Classroom Management**

Theme One: - Teaching to meet the learner's level

The section of respondents claimed that teaching practice programme has really helped them to teach to meet the level of their learners. They further indicated that teachers are expected to tailor their teaching to meet the learner's level and use their daily routine experiences and activities to help them learn.

One of them stated that:

''I think teaching practice has helped me use various methods to meet the needs

of all students, including those who are facing difficulties in academics.

Another interviewee indicated that:

''Teaching practice made me recognize the fact that students walk into their classrooms with wide range of abilities. These made me find ways to meet the needs of students, including those with learning and thinking differences''.

Another interviewee also reported that:

''Teaching practice made me learn to use differentiated instruction. This also made me to teach and switch around what students need to learn and how to help them learn it''

Another of the interviewees indicated that:

''Teaching practice helped me with a number of ways to identify a student's difficulty and level of academic language''

This finding is consistent with that of Ball and Wilson. (2016) who noted that teaching practice made teachers work to suit the intellectual level of the learners. The finding also supports with that of Cusick (2012) who found learners require diverse teaching strategies and teaching practice made student teachers use differentiated classroom, leading to multiple pathways for student growth. The finding was in line with that of Brown (2014) found that teaching practice made student teachers able to determine what students will need and teach to each level of understanding through a variety of strategies. This finding also concurred with that of Hansen (2016) found that teaching practice made the student teachers use a variety of teaching strategies in their classrooms to help the learners learn and think differently at their intellectual levels.

Theme Two: - Classroom Management

The section of interviewees claimed that the ability of teachers to organize classrooms and manage the behavior of their students is critical to achieving positive educational outcomes. They further accepted that ability to achieve effective classroom management was learnt during their teaching practice that also enhances their effective instruction.

One of them indicated that:

''I learnt how to manage classroom effectively during my teaching practice period and had been part of me in my teaching work''

Another interviewee indicated that:

''My teaching efficacy and classroom management emerged during my teaching practice period and helped me a lot in my teaching profession''

Another respondent stated that:

''My ability to lead the class toward achieving the learners learning is through classroom management which I leant during my teaching practice period''

Another interviewee reported that:

''My ability to maintain order in a classroom and also set procedures to be followed was leant during my teaching practice period''

This finding was in line with that of Alsa'eed (2016) who noted that teaching practice enhance teacher's ability to handle classroom management problems. The finding also corroborated with that of Almikhalafi (2015) who noted teaching practice made student teachers effective in classroom management for effective teaching. The finding was in line with that of Beck and Rowsell (2017) found that teaching practice made student teachers able to use effective classroom management strategies to handle student disturbances and an increased number of verbal interruptions.

4.3.3. Research Question Three – What is the influence of gender on self-efficacy on teaching of beginning teachers?

The main purpose of this research question was to ascertain the differences between male and female teachers' self-efficacy levels. In answering this research question, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare their means. The test was meant to identify whether differences exist among male and female newly trained teachers in terms of their self efficacy.

Table 4.9: Independent sample t-test on self-efficacy of male and female newly trained teachers

Variable	M	SD	N	t	df	Sig.
Newly Trained Female Teachers	2.79	0.57	39	2.748	103	0.007
Newly Trained Male Teachers	2.38	0.84	66			

Table 4.9 shows that the alpha level obtained were 0.07(less than 0.05) meaning that there is significance difference (Creswell, 2015). By comparing the means and standard deviation of both females newly trained self efficacy (M = 2.79, SD = 0.57), t = 2.748, df = 103, p = 0.007 and male newly trained teachers efficacy (M =2.38, SD = 0.84). The significance difference can also be seen on their means.

The independent sample t-test only indicated the significance differences, but where the differences laid was not determined by the t-test. This made the researcher conducted chi - square to determine where the difference laid.

A closer examination of Table 4.9 below indicates that we tended to get larger number newly trained female teachers exhibiting classroom management efficacy (34, 45.9%), while we had a greater number of newly trained male teachers also exhibiting classroom management efficacy (40,54.1).

Table 4.10: Self-Efficacy differences on female and male newly trained teachers

	SAE	%	IS	%	CMG	%	Total
%							
Newly Trained Female Teachers	3	16.7	2	15.4	34	45.9	39
37.1							
Newly Trained Male Teachers	15	83.3	11	84.6	40	54.1	66
62.9							
Total	**18**	**100.0**	**13**	**100.0**	**74**	**100.0**	**105 100.0**

A chi-square test of independent was used to analyze the data with self efficacy as one variable and newly trained teachers gender as the second variable. There was a significant effect, $[X^2 (6, N=105) =8.325, p=0.016]$. The data are graphed in the figure 4.7 below:
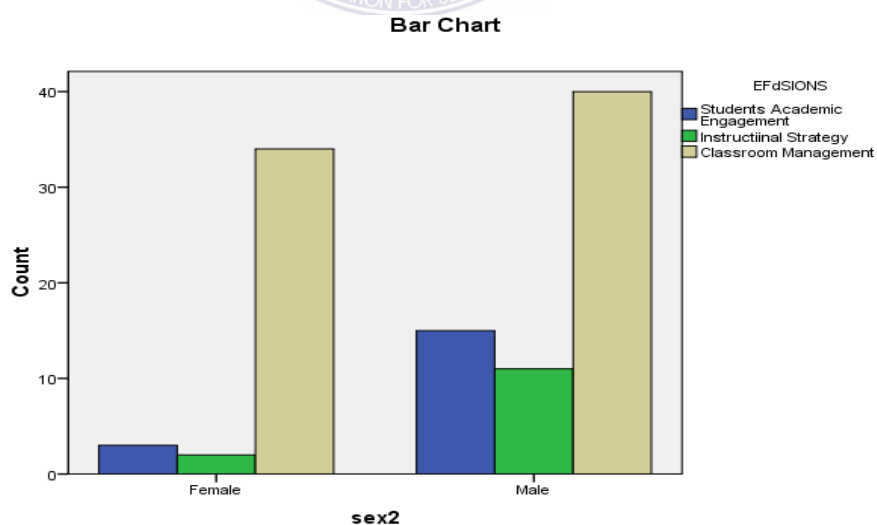
Figure 4.1: Self Efficacy Differences on Newly Trained Teachers sex

96

This result is also consistent with findings of Moalosi (2012) who noted that sex is a good predictor of the teachers work efficacy. The finding also concurred with that of Chacon (2015) who found out significant difference in academic self-efficacy of male and female students. The finding was in line with that of Butucha (2013) and Senemoglu and Ustundag (2016) studies of which both found that gender had a statistically significant influence on teachers' self-efficacy in that while female teachers were highly related to classroom management, male teachers were related to instructional strategies. This finding also concurred with that of Bilali (2013) found that while female teachers related to classroom management, male teachers had similar levels of self-efficacy. The current study, therefore, found that gender influenced teachers' self-efficacy in student engagement in favor of the male teachers. This finding is in agreement with Tison and Culver (2011) who found that there was a significant influence of sex on teachers' self-efficacy in student engagement. Moreover, the finding corroborates with that of Arslan (2013) who noted that male and female teachers differed in relation to their instructional strategies with male teachers on average have better instructional strategies efficacy than female teachers.

Qualitatively, the interviewees were asked on how does sex of the beginning teachers influence self-efficacy beliefs of beginning teachers. With this question all of the interviewees claimed that teacher efficacy enables the teachers to manage the class well and have strong engagement with their students. All of the interviewees claimed that the manner the sex of the beginning teachers influence self-efficacy beliefs of beginning teachers depended on job satisfaction. One of the interviewees indicated that:

''A large part of one's life is spent in the work place and it can be said that working life should be pleasant for someone and unhappiness with work life influences both work life and other sections of the human life, and that the male respondents had a relatively higher level of job satisfaction compared to female respondents''.

Another respondent stated that:

''I think female teachers experience higher job satisfaction as compared to male teachers. This I think differentiate or made sex influence teaching efficacy''

Another interviewee stated that:

'*'I think the absence of job satisfaction has become the reason for the reduction in teachers teaching efficacy in that less amount of job satisfaction will lead to switchover to other jobs and male teachers had fond of switchover''.*

One of the interviewees stated that:

''I am certain that generally women have higher job satisfaction than men. It is believed that job satisfaction has a considerable effect on work efficacy''.

Another interviewees stated that:

''I think that teachers with high levels of job satisfaction have strong communication in the workplace which leads to work efficacy, which women are credit for work satisfaction''

This finding was in line with that of Klassen and Chiu (2010) noted that those female teachers had higher job satisfaction than male teachers and found that female teachers had higher work efficacy than male teachers did. The finding also corroborates

with that of Coladarci (2012) noted that teachers' self-efficacy was the influence of gender on teachers' job satisfaction. Conley and Levinson (2013) found the relationship between gender and work efficacy via job satisfaction. The findings support that of Cervone (2017) who found a significant relationship between gender and work efficacy with females scoring higher than males did.

4.4.4. Research Question Four – What is the contribution of teaching practice to general efficacy of the newly trained teachers?

To answer this research question, simple linear regression was utilized with a model containing the independent variable of teaching practice yielding a significant influence of newly trained teachers self – efficacy ($R = 0.616$, $R^2 = 0.379$, $t = 13.108$, $p = 0.000$).

Table 4.11: Forced entry regression of efficacy on teaching practice- Full Model

Model	b	Beta	R	R^2	t	Sig.
Constant	2.167				13.108	0.000
Teaching Practice	0.360	0. 616			7.929	0.000
			0.616	0.379		

Source: Fieldwork, 2021

Note. b=Regression coefficient, Beta= Standardized regression coefficient, R =Multiple Correlation Coefficient, R^2 = Adjusted R Square.

Linear regression was conducted to determine the best linear combination of teaching practice predicting newly trained teachers' self - efficacy. The teaching practice significantly predict newly trained teachers' self - efficacy, t = 13.108, and p= 0.000 with predictor variable of teaching practice significantly contributing to the prediction. The beta weight of the predictor (teaching practice) suggests that teaching practice contribute to newly trained teachers' self-efficacy. The R Square value was 0.379. This indicates that 37.9% of the variance in newly trained teachers' self-efficacy was explained by the model. This implies that 62.1% was the other variables other that teaching practice.

In linear regression, the model takes a form of equation that contains a coefficient (b) for the predictor. This b- value indicates the individual contribution of the predictor to the model. The b - value tells us the relationship between the outcomes (newly trained teachers self-efficacy). If the value is positive, we can say that there is a positive relationship between the predictor and outcome, whereas a negative coefficient represents a negative relationship. According to the table 4.11 above, all the b -values of the predictor was positive, meaning that as newly trained teachers teaching practice improves the newly trained teachers self-efficacy.

The Standardized regression coefficient (beta) which gives a measure of the contribution of the variable to the model also indicates that teaching practice had a significant influence on newly trained teachers (beta = 0.616, t = 7.929, p= 0.000). The large value of beta indicates that a unit change in this predictor variable has a large effect on the criterion variable. The t- value and significant values give a rough indication of the impact of predictor variable – a large absolute t-value and small p-value suggests that a

100

predictor variable is having a large impact on the criterion variable. The t-values above also show significant at 0.05 levels meaning that teaching practice significantly predict newly trained teachers self efficacy. This result is also consistent with findings of Haigh and Tuck (2016) who noted that teaching practice a good predictor of the teachers work efficacy. The finding also concurred with that of Braden and White (2015) who found out that teaching practice as a major component of the pre-service teacher education course is that serve as student teacher's professional training that enhance the student teachers professional skills. This finding was in line with that of Chappuis and Stuggins (2016) who emphasized that newly trained teachers had challenges about using instructional tools, testing and evaluation, teaching strategies, choosing appropriate methods and techniques, determining course objectives, and implementation and teaching practice help to curb these challenges. This finding further supported that of Brouwer and Korthagen (2015) who noted that most of the newly trained teachers experienced a curriculum challenge and that teaching practice enhance the newly trained teachers confidence in teaching. This study concurred that of Goldhaber and Anthony (2013) who noted that newly trained teachers struggle with pedagogical challenges and concluded teaching practice helps the newly trained teachers to curb their teaching challenges. The finding support that of Rakesh (2013) who claimed that teaching practice is the most realistic aspect of their course, helping them to reduce their anxiety, to develop realistic perspectives about pupils and their own curriculum knowledge, to highlight their inability to adequately implement inquiry teaching, and to explore their own capabilities.

Qualitatively, the interviewees were asked if teaching practice programme contributes to the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers. With this

question all of the interviewees claimed that of positive meaning that they accepted that teaching practice programme contributes to the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers. With the extent to which teaching practice programme contributes to the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers, the following themes emerged:

- **Improving Teaching Skills**
- **Classroom Management**

Theme One: - Improving Teaching Skills

Section of the interviewees asserted that teaching practice was effective in improving their teaching skills. They further claimed that teaching practice was envisaged to prepare them for maximum practical and professional training in the field of teaching. One of the newly trained teachers interviewed had to this to say:

''Teaching practice has provided me with experience in my teaching skills through participation and observation under the auspices of the school in which I was attached to''

Similarly, one of the interviewees reported that:

''I think teaching practice made me experience improved teaching skills for me to satisfy the needs of my learners.

One of the interviewees stated that:

''I do appreciate that teaching practice was significantly important in improving my teaching skills to teach effectively''

This finding was in line with Rakesh (2013) who noted that teaching practice enhance the newly trained teachers teaching skills that help them to shifting from giving

102

information to learners forcefully for the development of the higher order thinking abilities to the problem-solving activities that will enable the learners to become self-directed learners and can solve their problem on their own by using these abilities and skills. This finding further support that of Rockoff (2004) who noted that teaching practice influence the newly trained teachers method of teaching that in most time made the newly trained teachers failed to achieve their planned objectives.

Theme Two: - Classroom Management

The section of the interviewees reported that classroom management is another challenge facing them. They further indicated that the management of students' disruptive behaviors was the greatest concern for them. They went further explaining that many students display strange beahaviours including not being serious in their schooling. One of the novice teachers commented:

''Indeed, classroom management is a major issue for me. As you know that I am a youth and the students are also very young, some students are disrespectful to new teachers. I mostly see common practice in my class that, some students go out of the classroom while I am teaching without any permission''.

Another interviewee stated that:

''Most of students are indiscipline and I struggle at times to deal with their behavior''

One of the interviewees commented that:

''I mostly experience lack of attentiveness and

less participation which creates problems in managing the class discipline''

This is a finding in common with Nolan and Hoover (2016) who noted that newly trained teachers' competency in classroom management is critical, and consequently not

103

achieving competency in this area may result in newly trained teachers leaving the profession. The findings further support that of Porter and Brophy (2018) who noted that newly trained teachers were inexperienced in managing and controlling their classes. This finding support that of Afflerbach and Paris (2016) noted that newly trained teachers struggle in dealing with a number of different problems related to classroom management.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the major findings of the study, which to assessed the effectiveness teaching practice programme on beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. This chapter includes the summary of the research findings, and conclusions from the results and finally the recommendations for further studies.

5.2. Summary of Findings

The study attempted to assess the effectiveness teaching practice programme on beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality. The following research questions guided the study:

i. What are the relative levels of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers?

ii. How does the teaching practice programme influence the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers?

iii. What is the influence of gender on self-efficacy on teaching of beginning teachers?

iv. What is the contribution of the teaching practice programme to the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers?

The following findings were arrived at in the present study:

105

- The research question one that sought to find out the relative levels of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers revealed that these teachers possessed high classroom management skills, with moderate level of students academic engagement whilst adopting a rather poor instructional strategies in their lesson delivery.

- The research question two that sought to find out how does the teaching practice programme influence the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers revealed that teaching practice programme had provided opportunities for my development in my classroom management and that of teaching to meet the learner's level and classroom management

- The research question three that sought to find out the influence of gender on self-efficacy on teaching of beginning teachers revealed that both larger number of male and female newly trained female teachers exhibiting classroom management efficacy and also female teachers highly related to job satisfaction

   - The research question four that sought to find out the contribution of the teaching practice programme to the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers revealed that teaching practice significantly predict newly trained teachers self – efficacy via improving teaching skills and classroom management.

5.3. Conclusions

The relative levels of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers was classroom management and with moderate level student academic engagement.

106

Teaching practice programme has provided opportunities for the development in classroom management and also teach to meet the learner's level and classroom management.

Both larger number of male and female newly trained female teachers exhibiting classroom management efficacy and also female teachers highly related to job satisfaction.

Teaching practice significantly predict newly trained teachers' self-efficacy via improving teaching skills and classroom management. Based on the above findings, it was concluded that teaching practice programme greatly influence the self-efficacy beliefs of beginning teachers in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality.

5.4. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- The District Educational Directorate and heads of partner schools should provide effective help to improve upon the newly trained basic teachers teaching efficacy

- The District Educational Directorate and heads of partner schools should provide assistance to improve the newly trained basic school teachers on the teaching efficacy in general

- The District Educational Directorate and heads of partner schools should provide assistance to enhance both female and male newly trained basic school teachers teaching efficacy

- The District Educational Directorate and heads of partner schools should provide assistance for the teaching to effectively predict teaching efficacy of the newly trained basic school teachers.

5.5. Recommendations for Future Research

The following areas were suggested for further research; teaching practice experience for newly trained teachers and exploring the factors hindering the effectiveness of teaching practice programme for student teachers.

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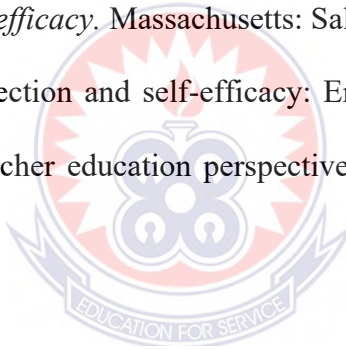
APPENDIX A

SELF ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDY RESPONDENTS

Dear Respondent,

I am carrying out a study on the topic *'' Effectiveness of Teaching Practice Programme on Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Beginning Teachers of Partner Schools in the Ahafo Ano North Municipality''* You have been there been randomly selected to participate in the research by completing the questionnaire. It would thus be very helpful if you assist by answering the questionnaire as per instructions at the beginning of each section. You are required to provide the most appropriate answer in your opinion. Your responses will be kept confidential. In any case the questionnaire is anonymous. Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

……………………………..
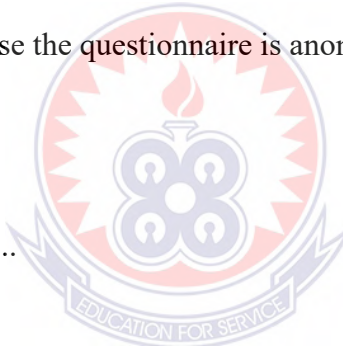
Malihatu Salifu

Researcher

124

SECTION A

BEGINNING TEACHERS BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please help us classify your response by supplying the following facts about yourself and your opinion on the raised issues by ticking an appropriate box. There is no right or wrong answer therefore no particular response is targeted.

1. Your gender: Male [ ], Female [   ]

2. Age Group: Less that 21 [   ], 21 – 25[   ]26 +[   ]

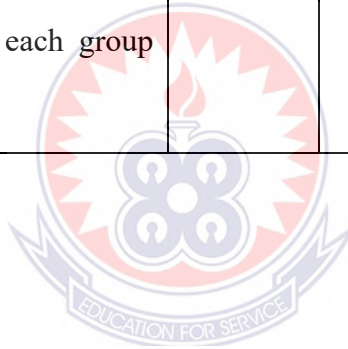3. Work Experience: 1 yr   [   ] 2yrs [   ] 3yrs [   ]

SECTION B

TEACHER SENSE OF EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 5-point scale using the following keys: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree as sincerely as possibly

Statements Efficacy for student engagement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I can motivate students who show low interest in school work					
2. I can get my students to believe they can do well in school work					
3. I can help my students to value					
4. I can assist families in helping their children do well in school					
Efficacy for instructional strategies					
5. I am able to can you craft good questions for my students to learn					
6. I mostly use variety of assessment strategies to help my students to learn effectively					
7 I use to provide an alternative explanation or example when students					
8. I use to implement alternative					

126

strategies in my classroom to help my students to understand my lessons				
Efficacy for classroom management				
9. I can control disruptive behavior in my classroom				
10. I can get my students to follow classroom rules				
11. I can calm my student who are disruptive or noisy				
12. I can establish a classroom management system with each group of students				

SECTION C

TEACHING PRACTICE AND SELF – EFFICACY BELIEFS OF BEGINNING

TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 5-point scale using the following keys: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree as sincerely as possibly

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.The teaching practice programme has provided instructional assistance to me					
2.My teaching performance will be improved as a result of the teaching practice programme					
3.I was exposed to various teaching strategies during my teaching practice					
4.Throughout the year, the teacher induction program provided valuable assistance to me as a novice teacher.					
5.The teaching practice programme has provided opportunities for my development in my classroom					

128

teaching					
6.The teaching practice programme has helped in adjusting to the routines of organizing and managing a classroom					
7.I had a greater sense of confidence in my ability to teach as a result of the teaching practice programme.					

SECTION D

TEACHING PRACTICE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 5-point scale using the following keys: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Not Sure, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree as sincerely as possibly

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My teaching practice programme has improved my teaching skills					
2. My teaching practice programme has made me acquire skills on the role of a					

3. The teaching practice programme has made me experience effective handling of classrooms problems					
4. My teaching practice programme has helped equipped me with methodologies involving pupils' participation					
5. Teaching practice programme has made me stimulate the exchange of ideas among my students for students					
6. Teaching practice programme has made me establish classroom relationships with my students for effective teaching					
7.Teaching practice has made me develop and consolidate of a significant variety of knowledge and skills for					

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SELECTED BEGINNING TEACHERS

1. What is your understanding of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers?

2. What the relative levels of self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers?, Is it low, moderate of high

3. How does gender of the beginning teachers influence self-efficacy beliefs of beginning teachers

4. What do you think is the contribution of the teaching practice programme to the self-efficacy beliefs on teaching of beginning teachers?

131

OBSERVATION GUIDE

1. Strongly confident   2. Averagely confident   3. Poorly confident

NO.		1	2	3
	PLANNING AND PREPARATION			
1.	Exhibits knowledge of subject matter			
	INSTRUCTIONAL SKILLS AND STRATEGIES			
1.	State purpose, objectives and procedures for lessons.			
2.	Gives procedural and instructional directions clearly			
3.	Uses a range of strategies for whole class, small groups and individual teaching and learning			
4.	Motivates students			
5.	Relate lesson to prior knowledge and life experience			
6.	Present lesson in a systematic manner			
7.	Uses effective questioning techniques of the level of students.			
8.	Communicate with confidence and enthusiasm			
9.	Communicates at students' level of understanding			
10.	Uses appropriate and accurate non-verbal oral/sign and written communication			
11.	Project voice /hand shape/orientation appropriately			
	STUDENTS ENGAGEMENT			
1.	Level of students' engagement			
2.	Monitor student's engagement and progress			
3.	Motivates students' participation			

4.	Provide immediate and constructive feedback			
5.	Uses formal/informal assessment strategies to access students learning before/during after instruction to enhance learning			
	CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT			
1.	Manages classroom routine effectively			
2.	Respects diversity among students			
3.	Maintains positive rapport with students			
4.	Knows each student as an individual			