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Waitshega Tefo Smitta Dibapile
University of Tennessee - Knoxville

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A Review Of Literature On Teacher Efficacy And Classroom Management

Waitshega Tefo Smitta Dibapile, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, USA

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper was to review the literature on teacher efficacy and classroom management. The conceptual framework of this paper was based on the theories of Rotter (1966) and Bandura (1977). The review of literature indicated that teacher efficacy helps teachers plan effective instructional strategies, increases performance, and enhances teacher effectiveness and productively. On the other hand classroom management helps teachers to control students who have behavioral problems. Teacher efficacy researchers used and modified instruments to measure teacher efficacy construct. In conclusion, culture was identified as a variable that impacts upon teacher efficacy.

Keywords: Teacher Efficacy; Classroom Management

BACKGROUND

Botswana is committed to developing its education system, and attaining quality education. However, the quality of education in Botswana will depend on the training of teachers, particularly pre-service ones. The Long Term Vision 2016 of Botswana also emphasizes that “the quality and training of teachers must be improved as soon as possible” (p. 30). This shows the seriousness Botswana attaches to quality education. Since 1993 Botswana’s government maintained its objectives of improving quality personnel in the teaching profession (Report on National Commission on Education 1993).

The Report from the National Commission on Education (1993) argued that “social, economic and technical changes taking place requires teachers in the near future who are better prepared to teach in a rapidly changing economy. On the other hand, the Revised National Policy on Education of 1994 asserts that quality education use of better classroom management strategies, effective instructional strategies and engagement of student in learning. The educational vision of Botswana advocates for quality education for all its citizens “To offer equitable lifelong education and training that is relevant and responsive to the rapid technological development and changing socio-economic environment, and that produces knowledgeable, skilled, enterprising and independent individuals”(NDP 2009, p. 268).

Research indicates that the quality of an education system of a country depends on teachers. These teachers should possess self efficacy and effective classroom management strategies. Therefore the review of literature will be beneficial to teacher educators, teacher training institutions and stake holders. It is important to review the literature for the reasons that teacher efficacy has been found to be vital as a construct in the development of education “in every part of the world” (Berman, MacLaughlin, Bass, Pauly and Zellman, 1997 (as cited in Cheung, 2008).

Teacher efficacy has also been described by Armor et al., as “teachers’ beliefs in their abilities to affect student performance” Armor, Oseguera-Conroy, Cox, McDonnell, Pascal, Pauly, and Zellman, Berman and McLaughlin, Gibson and Dembo (as cited in Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, & Ellett, 2008, p. 753). What other countries have done to enhance teacher efficacy could also help Botswana teachers to have high efficacy and to be productive in classroom management.

Teachers' lack of belief in themselves as effective teachers is another problem in education. Teachers should believe in themselves, their instruction, and their management of the students. Teachers who do not know why they are teachers feel confused and experience stress in their work. Ng, Nicholas, and Alan (2010) proposed that "teachers' beliefs are the ideas that influence how they conceptualize teaching" (p. 278) and this self-conception is central to efficacy in teaching.

Furthermore, personal beliefs can motivate teachers and have an effect on engaging students, even disruptive ones in learning. Parajes (as cited in Ng et al. 2010) stated that consideration of personal beliefs characterizes "what it takes to be an effective teacher and how students ought to behave" (p. 278).

Teachers employ different strategies to control disruptive behaviors in the classroom. Controlling behavior in the classroom as a way to enhance learning is viewed as a priority for teachers in the education community. Lewis, Romi, Qui and Katz (2005) But, though teachers attempt to make the classroom a conducive learning environment for students, some teacher practices can harm students instead of helping them to learn. For example, teaching practices like using corporal punishment, sending students out of class, or to the school head's office, or sending them home to call their parents make the students unable to gain the most from their learning.

The review of literature will also be on strategies or ways of reducing disruptive behaviors in classroom. Little-Akin, Little and Laniti (2007) investigated the classroom management procedures in the United States and Greece they reported that "...the high percentage of schools utilizing corporal punishment in both countries is disturbing given the amount of research findings regarding the lack of effectiveness of such technique" Paolucci and Violato (as cited in Little-Akin et al. p. 60). Corporal punishment is also a traditional method of discipline in Botswana and is common in schools yet the Ministry of Education does not approve it.

Poulou (2007), views classroom management as an aspect of the teaching profession that teachers encounter in their career and that it ought to be further investigated

TEACHER EFFICACY AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

When interviewed by Shaughnessy (2004). Woolfolk mentioned that the term "teacher efficacy" is often mistaken with teacher "effectiveness". However, Melby (2001, commented that "teacher efficacy is sometimes considered to be a general indicator or predictor of teaching effectiveness" (p. 5). According to Tournaki, Lyublinschaya, and Carolan (2009), teacher effectiveness is comprised of 3 the factors, namely,

Planning and preparation

Teachers who are effective can succeed in planning and preparing their work. They also possess knowledge of their teaching materials and a clearly defined pedagogy. They are able to choose their instructional objectives, to create consistent instruction, as well as to evaluate student as they teach (Tournaki et al., (2009). However, teachers who chose teaching because of job security may not take much responsibility in planning and preparation and, therefore, the problems in education emerge.

Classroom Environments

Effective teachers are viewed as experts in classroom management. Classroom management includes "non-instructional personal interactions" (p.98) that happens within the classroom environment. Therefore, relationships can be formed where a teacher respects students as well as manages the classroom effectively. Daniels 1996 (as cited in Tournaki et al. (2009) suggested "including instructional groups (as well as materials and supplies), managing student behavior and organizing physical space" (p. 98) all function as important factors in classroom management.

Instruction

Effective teachers develop student learning through interactive instruction. Effective teachers increase students' accomplishments by facilitating active learning. Questions and discussions and other methods that aid learning are essential forms of instruction. According to Mastropieri and Scruggs (as cited in Tournaki, et al., 2009, p.98, when students are given feedback on their work and made aware of their progress in learning, the teachers are viewed as using "effective teaching techniques and communicating with clarity and accuracy". When effective teachers use the above-mentioned methods of teaching, the classroom becomes what Greenberg (2005) calls "a laboratory for learning...., for the learning community places a great value on every class member's developing an understanding of the process of learning, and the classroom atmosphere enhances the possibilities of high quality... learning experiences" (p. 41).

Considering how effective teachers become experts in helping students to learn is useful in establishing responsibility in teaching, which reduces the problems in education. Ross (2007) contends "more effective teaching should increase the likelihood of teachers obtaining mastery experiences, the strongest predictor of self-efficacy" (p.52).

Effective teachers act as mediators as they interact with learners. The instruction of effective teachers can be conceived as "scaffolded" instruction that supports learners in benefiting from objectives. Learners may not achieve this benefit without the support of effective teachers (Ashman & Conway, 1997). In this scenario, learning can be thought of as "mediated by an expert guiding a novice through a task to ensure the learner acquires the expert's skills" (p.137). Teacher self-efficacy is essential in education and can play a major role in overcoming the above mentioned problems in education.

The literature reviewed on teacher efficacy research covers has covered research for the past 20 years but the one on classroom management is recent.

Teacher efficacy research can reduce some problems in education, especially if researchers investigate teacher efficacy with other factors. For example, experience in teaching has been associated with positive teacher efficacy. "Rizvi and Elliot argued that teacher efficacy is an important dimension of teacher professionalism and, together with other dimensions such as teacher practice, leadership and collaboration" (as cited in Cheung, 2008, p.103).

Teacher efficacy research can assist teachers who have insufficient beliefs about their teaching abilities. According to Ng et al. (2010), personal teaching efficacy has been thought of as having an impact on the growth of beliefs about being a good teacher. Efficacy is the ability to bring into being the desired results (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2007). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy can influence teachers to be effective and manage difficult students.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework of this paper is based on the theories of Rotter (1966) and Bandura (1977). Rotter's (1966) theory of internal locus of control provides a fertile ground for teacher self-efficacy theory as cited in Goddard, Hoy, and Woolfolk Hoy, (2000). His theory became a foundation of teacher efficacy research and was utilized the Rand Corporation researchers to investigate the effectiveness of reading instruction. The Rand Corporation defined "teacher efficacy as the extent to which teachers believed that they could control the reinforcement of their actions."(p.481).The researchers were guided by Rotter's theory. One of the questions they asked was "Does control of reinforcement lie within the teachers themselves or in the environment?" (p.481). The researchers viewed "motivation and performance as the foundation of the teacher's" "reinforcement and contend that reinforcement motivates and encourages teachers. And consequently contributes to a higher teachers' self-efficacy.

Teachers who were confident in effecting students' success and inspiration in learning were thought of by Goddard et al. (2000) as managing their activities and possessing a higher degree of efficacy. Teachers have also reported that motivation and performance of students depends on his or her home environment" and "If I try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students" (Cheung, 2008, p.104).

Teachers with high self efficacy reported students' families had more of an influence on "motivation and performance" than the school teachers. Teachers who responded positively the statement 'If I try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students perceive themselves as having control over issues that sometimes have a negative impact on learners (Tschannen- Moran et al. 1998).

Cheung (2008) reported that Rand Corporation researchers employed in their original study were interested in general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. Berman and McLaughlin (1977) and Armor et al. (1976) conducted research that helped define the terminology of efficacy as a broad notion of a teacher's "sense of efficacy and later shortened to teacher efficacy" (p.752).

Bandura's (1977) theory and research provided the second theoretical framework of self- efficacy. He proposed that "teacher's efficacy is a type of self-efficacy." which he defines as "the outcomes of cognitive process in which people construct beliefs about their capacity to perform at a given level of competence" (p. 480). He suggested that peoples' beliefs have an effect on their efforts particularly their determination or flexibility when encountering problems, and the ways they cope with anxiety they experience in dealing with challenging situations (Bandura, 1977).

Bandura suggested that teacher efficacy consists of personal teaching efficacy and professional teaching efficacy (as cited in Cheung, 2008). Personal teaching efficacy refers to an individual's accountability, how a teacher acknowledges student learning. On the other hand, professional teaching efficacy is the teacher's conviction that every teacher possesses the capabilities to affect what Wheatley termed "external factors" (as cited in Cheung, 2008).

Drawing on the theories of Rotter (1966) and Bandura (1977), Gibson and Dembo (1994) designed a 30-item instrument based on Rand Corporation researchers' (Tschannen- Moran et al., 1998). Gibson and Dembo found that teacher efficacy consists of teaching efficacy, general teaching efficacy, and personal teaching efficacy (Cheung, 2008). Their findings were consistent with the Rand studies. Rotter (1966) had contrary ideas in regard to self-efficacy.

Bandura (1977) emphasized the distinctions of his theory and that of Rotter, (1966) when he implied that individuals trust themselves to perform some activities (perceived self-efficacy) which differ from the "beliefs about whether actions affect outcomes (locus of control)" (p. 481). Rotter (1966's theory of internal-external locus of control explores underlying beliefs and associations "between actions and outcomes, not with personal efficacy" (p.481). An individual may hold the belief that a specific outcome is "internally controllable caused by actions of people" (p.481) though he or she may still lack confidence in achieving the desired actions. (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000).

Rotter's and Bandura's notions about self-efficacy are indistinguishable from earlier theories. For example, Bandura mentioned mental abilities with which people can formulate their beliefs. Rotter investigated teachers' internal and external beliefs, those definitions that address thinking alone does not show much difference from earlier theories. Goddard et al. (2000) contend "some educators have assumed that Rotter's internal locus of control and Bandura's perceived self-efficacy and locus of control are roughly the same" (p. 481).

Although some of his definitions about mental abilities did not differ greatly with previous research by Bandura (1977, 1986, and 1997) and is a major contributor among researchers in the area of teacher self-efficacy theory. The model of self-efficacy theory is characterized by connections of the self to the community (triadic reciprocal causation) and involves "behavior, internal personal factors (cognitive, affective, and biological events)" and the external environment as reciprocating factors (Dellinger et al. 2008).

Self-efficacy model is vital in that it helps us to understand how an individual's behavior can be influenced by the environment, as well as by biological factors. For example, some Batswana teacher trainees chose teaching in response to the shortage of teachers in their country rather than from having an actual passion to help students learn. This decision shows the influence of culture on some individuals.

The biological part of the model helps us to understand that learners also acquire certain skills from their parents and other siblings. In a related sense, some students could be intelligent or low performers because of genetic make-up and teachers ought to aim to understand factors that exist both within and beyond the learner. The environment and biological factors can affect both teachers and students positively or negatively. Therefore, teachers with a high teacher efficacy will not be discouraged when they interact with low achieving learners because they realize their genes play some role. They can employ different strategies of helping students to learn. Personal factors and the environment do have an effect on behavior, and personal factors may be influenced by the behavior and environment. (Dellinger et al. 2008).

Self-efficacy includes powerful “personal factors” and Bandura (1997) proposed that self- efficacy beliefs are vital to “human agency” or an individual’s capability to do something (Dellinger, et al. 2008). The importance of belief in self-efficacy is that it acts as a mediator between knowledge and behaviors while connecting to environmental situations. Self-efficacy provides useful information for teachers with knowledge and skills; if they have a high teacher efficacy they can have an impact on the behaviors of students as well as overcome environmental challenges.

Perceived self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1997), includes “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required producing given attainment” (p. 3). The definition also implies an individual’s convictions that he/she has the ability to do what is required in preparing and completing assignments in an excellent way (Dellinger et al. 2008).

Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, and Pape (2006) urged current researchers to work together on a study of teachers’ sense of efficacy and advocated for meaningful additional work on the teacher efficacy concept because previous research concentrated on two characteristics divided between the “general” and “personal” (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Collective efficacy, as defined by Bandura (1997), is “a group’s shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required producing given levels of attainments” (p.477). Collective efficacy helps us to understand how working collaboratively with others can enhance a teachers’ efficacy. Sharing ideas for teaching as a group can enable teachers to learn from each other and promote their cognitive development.

Fives and Looney (2009) suggested that, like a personal sense of efficacy, collective-efficacy beliefs for groups can have an effect on their “goal setting, motivation, effort and persistence with challenging tasks or situations” (p. 183). According to Bandura, four sources of information impact an individual’s efficacy: mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and affective states. These sources of information for collective efficacy are fundamental and central to individuals’ formation of collective teacher efficacy (Goddard & Goddard, 2001).

Furthermore, the four sources of information are viewed as having an impact on teacher self-efficacy (Yu-Liang, 2009). The importance of collective efficacy in influencing teacher efficacy beliefs has contributed to some research, including Bandura, 1993, Goddard, 2000; Goddard and Goddard 2000; Goddard and Goddard, 2001 (as cited in Fives and Looney, 2009), which investigates the theory of collective efficacy particularly within schools. Therefore, these researchers as they worked from collective efficacy model what they learned yielded fruitful results to the construct of teacher efficacy.

Mastery experiences are vital to school as an organization, especially in how teachers within the school setting encourage achievements and avoid potential disappointments. Success comes from healthy beliefs among the teaching staff, particularly an increased awareness in collective efficacy. Resistance to collective efficacy may involve an individual employing various continuous means to conquer challenges alone. Therefore, organizations ought to learn by experience in order to succeed in accomplishing their objectives (Goddard et al. 2000).

Mastery experiences also contribute to an understanding of teacher self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) stated that mastery experiences help teachers become confidence in their work. Efficacy beliefs increase when teachers view themselves progressing in teaching, which helps to increase success in teaching accomplishments. Efficacy

beliefs can decrease when teachers experience setbacks in their work, which adds to a lack of progress in their future work.

Woolfolk's interview with Shaughnessy (2004) contributed to our understanding of how collective efficacy can influence teacher self-efficacy and classroom management. Woolfolk, (as cited in Shaughnessy, 2004), commented on the need to re-visit Bandura's 4 sources that offer knowledge about "efficacy beliefs."

With regard to mastery experience, Woolfolk (as cited in Shaughnessy, 2004) has suggested the following:

- Create daily routines so that children have a sense of expectation and control over their environment.
- Ensure that learning tasks are on an appropriate level for all students.
- Provide instructional support as necessary to guarantee student success (p. 159).

These "principles" are useful for the teacher in relation to student engagement and classroom management. Students are encouraged to take responsibility in their learning and thus disruptive behaviors will diminish. The teacher's instruction will become effective and teachers will acquire the belief that they have an impact on student learning.

Bandura (1995) thought vicarious experience influential in creating and strengthening efficacy beliefs by means of social models. When individuals see people similar to themselves being successful through persistence, they are encouraged to have a sense of control over similar tasks (Bandura, 1986). Similarly, teachers are perceived as not depending on "direct experience" as the only foundation for their collective efficacy. They pay attention to reports about achievements from their colleagues and reports from their schools (Goddard & Goddard, 2000).

Bandura views verbal persuasion and modeling as useful to advance personal teacher efficacy and to encourage collective teacher efficacy. Accordingly, persuasion can influence staff members to put in more effort that will eventually lead to progress. Persuasion can also influence staff members to increase their "persistence and persistence can lead to the solution of problems" Goddard and Goddard (2000 p. 484). Woolfolk (as cited in Shaughnessy, (2004) suggested the following statements in reference to verbal persuasion:

- Don't say, "You can do the problem -it is easy." Instead, suggest "You might be able to get this one if you take your time and line up the numbers."
- Provide attribution feedback that focuses on effort: "I am glad you did this last revision your story uses more describing words now" (p.160)

Communicating with students using such expressions encourage students to learn and can be helpful by contributing to more engagement with activities and improving a student's motivation. Teacher efficacy researchers have reported that teachers with low teacher efficacy are critical to students, but through verbal persuasion teachers encourage students and become more patient with them.

Social Persuasion is the third source in collective efficacy and it can strengthen the beliefs people have with regard to being successful. The findings of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) reported verbal persuasion as important in regard to the feedback and support the trainee teachers receive from others, like, colleagues, administrators, parents, and society. Individuals who are convinced that they have abilities for and control over given tasks may exhibit more effort and embrace self-doubt when facing challenging situations, rather than concentrating on their failures (Bandura, 1995). According to Goddard et al. (2000), for teachers, talks, workshops, occasions for professional development and evaluations about accomplishments can collectively inspire the teaching staff to the possibility that, as a group, they can work together cooperatively.

Bandura (1995) says, "tasks that include potency and energy, people's judgment, fatigue, aches, and pains as signs of physical debility. Moods can have an effect on individuals' evaluations with regard to their personal efficacy. Bandura (1995) maintains that a positive mood encourages perceived self-efficiency and decreases dependency. The other way to modify efficacy beliefs is to "enhance physical status, reduce stress and negative emotional proclivities, and correct misinterpretations of bodily states" (p. 5).

Woolfolk, (as cited in Shaughnessy, 2004) advised teachers those physiological and emotional factors. Have a negative impact on their social persuasion In particular, Woolfolk made the following suggestions:

- Make sure that all instructions are clear.
- Uncertainty leads to anxiety.
- Check with students to make sure that they understand their assignments/instructions.
- Write test instructions on the board or on the test itself instead of giving them orally
- Have students do projects, organize portfolios of their work, make oral presentations, or create a finished product (p. 160).

These suggestions transform the classroom into a free learning environment where the teacher and students work together and students can enjoy the freedom to learn without fear, as well as feel a sense of ownership in the learning process. Teachers also confront stressful situations in their work. The experience of joy that comes with success in teaching promotes teacher efficacy (Bandura 1997). On the other hand, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) describe “high level of stress and anxiety associated with a fear of losing control” (p.945), which could lead to low efficacy or act as a hindrance to the growth of an individual’s efficacy (Yu-Liang, 2009).

Some teachers exercise too much authority in the classroom but if they can employ the principles suggested by Woolfolk (above), cited in Shaughness (2004) can make the classroom become a “laboratory of learning,” as coined by Greenberg (2005). The role of the teacher, as the director in the learning process, changes in relation to their needs.

Models are useful in regard to teacher efficacy, shedding light on teachers’ evaluations of themselves in their work achievements. Research findings on models of teacher efficacy can help teacher educators and provide benchmarks for improving the teaching profession. More importantly, teachers who hold negative evaluations about their efficacy can change. Teacher training institutions can also improve their training of teachers in general. The research explored below proposed a model that contributed to an understanding of the construct of teacher efficacy, especially in relation to teachers working with others. (Goddard et al., 2000; Liaw, 2009).

A self-assessment of personal teaching capabilities and limitations needs to be specific to the task (analysis) of teaching. Teacher evaluations of their work can have an impact on their attempts to achieve their goals in teaching, and need for patience when they encounter difficulties. Woolfolk Hoy, et al. (2006) proposed that “these decisions and behaviors lead to outcomes that then become the basis of future efficacy judgments” (p. 727).

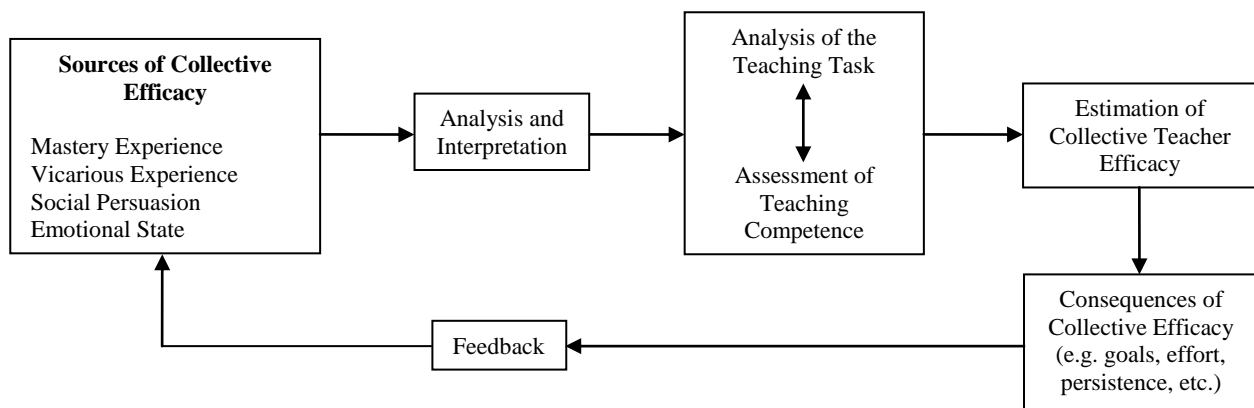


Figure 1. A simplified model of collective efficacy

Goddard et al. (2000) have identified sources of a collective-efficacy model. The structure of their collective efficacy model is an extension of the self-efficacy work of Bandura (1977) and Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998). Analysis of the teaching task and assessment of teaching competence are two important aspects in the growth of collective teaching efficacy. Goddard et al. suggested that views of group competence in the progress of teaching students occur when teachers reflect on how difficult the teaching task is in regard to their views about group abilities. Collective efficacy is created when teachers consider the relationship of analysis of teaching task and group competence (Goddard et al. Adapted from “Collective teacher Efficacy: Its Meaning, and Measures and Impact on Student Achievement (Goddard et al.). The assessment of teachers is based on their involvement in teaching. The evaluations happen at each school setting (Goddard et al. Teacher efficacy has been found to have an influence on classroom management.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management has generally been viewed by teachers as something that is not easy to deal with in education. Sanford and Evertson (1981) have similarly argued that classroom management is a major difficulty for “teachers and administrators in junior high schools” (p. 34). Trainee teachers at the University of Botswana had the same difficulties of being unable to manage students when they were teaching. Students lacked classroom management and control; hence the learners were not paying attention and were playing during class time. Teaching competence, generating and retaining order in the classroom setting, has also been viewed as important (Evertson, 1985). Offering a more conducive learning environment in the classroom is not easy and research studies continue to reveal that the vital factor in succeeding in management is the teacher’s capabilities to supervise and organize instruction. (Brophy, 1988). Organized instruction will lead to students’ engagement in the learning process.

Classrooms, if well-managed by teachers, can become places of freedom to learn and can provide safety for students. Students can even further their long-term memory by attending to the teacher’s instruction without being disturbed, and then storing the instruction permanently in their minds to be retrieved for future use, particularly in times of examinations, assignments, and studying. Conducive classroom environment reduces the number of low achievers.

Little research in the field of teacher self-efficacy for classroom management is evident. However, among the research that exists, some researchers support theories that imply that personal teaching efficacy has an effect on the behavior of teachers, as well as on beliefs and outcomes (Morris-Rothschild & Brassard, 2006). Criticizing students for failing and showing-impatience when confronted with challenges in problematic circumstances were found to be related to a low personal teacher efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Ashton and Webb (1986) had the same findings that teachers with low personal teaching efficacy are unable to manage behavioral problems. They suggested that teachers’ beliefs were linked with strict punishment procedures, such as using authority and verbal abuse and sending students out of class during learning times. Woolfolk Hoy, Rosoff, and Hoy (1990) contend that, “a sense of personal efficacy becomes related to beliefs about control only after some years of actual experience in classrooms” (p.146).

Guskey and Passaro (1994) have reported “instructional effectiveness” and, Morris-Rothschild and Brassard (2006) have reported fewer referrals to special education from teacher with high personal efficacy. Cheung, (2008; Chen; Rich; Lev; and Fisher (as cited in Morris- Rothschild and Brassard, 2006) reported that being able to help the formation of constructive “interpersonal relationships among students” was one belief of teachers with high personal teaching efficacy. As a result, when teachers possess a strong sense of personal teaching efficacy, such teachers are more likely to procure encouraging classroom results (Morris-Rothschild & Brassard, 2006).

The findings of Gencer and Cakiroglu (2007) have revealed that teachers’ beliefs are different in regard to classroom management and that these differing beliefs are critical in effective instruction. For example, Chen (1995) reported that teachers in various countries differ in their choices when dealing with student behaviors.

The research carried out by Sucuoglu et al. with Turkish teachers (as cited in Gencer and Cakiroglu 2007) revealed that in the Turkish classrooms, speaking when not asked, excessive noise and grumbling about friends and

teachers were viewed as common problematic behaviors. Other problematic behaviors identified include: ridiculing friends, disobeying school rules, and disturbing other students. Furthermore, Gencer and Cakiroglu's (2007) work with Turkish elementary school teachers found that extreme noise, screaming at others, and speaking out of turn frequently occurred in classrooms.

Researchers of teacher efficacy have found that, teachers' sense of efficacy is associated with classroom management and organization strategies. Ashton and Webb (1986) suggested that secondary school teachers with low efficacy were recognized by how they scored on the Rand Corporation assessment items. Their assessment described classroom conditions as "punishment, coercion, and public embarrassment characterized by management strategies" (Woolfolk et al. 1990 p. 140). Teachers with higher efficacy seemed to cope well, remain friendly, and build trust with their students and consequently undesirable behavior was not common and was dealt with in satisfying ways (Woolfolk et al. 1990).

The above findings are based on the description of efficacy that brings together general and personal teaching efficacy as separate dimensions of the same concept. Researchers have proposed separate analysis of those dimensions. Because general and personal teaching efficacies have differing qualities "and evince differing relationships to other key attitudinal variables" (Woolfolk et al. 1990, p. 140), teacher efficacy can be related to teachers' perceptions of classroom management strategies (Cakiroglu, 2007, Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

Ecological researchers investigated classroom management and analyzed environmental factors and their impact on learning. Their early work focused on different activities, both supported (affordances) and prohibited (constraints) (Brophy, 2006). In these investigations classrooms were viewed as ecologies. Researchers concentrated on different aspects of classroom environments, (e.g., "whole class, small group, individual) and the activities that took place in them (e.g., more teacher-student discourse occurred in lesson settings than seatwork settings) (p. 759).

The ecological research on classroom activities and situations was further investigated and some researchers changed their focus from different incidences of tasks to the teachers' responsibilities in forming and using activities (Brophy, 2006). Kounin and Gump (as cited in Brophy, 2006) observed 26 kindergarten classrooms and concentrated on "desist incidents in which teachers directed interventions at students who were misbehaving" (p. 759). They observed students, took notes, and explained the "desists incidence" when students displayed such behaviors. Additionally, they described desist incidence in "specimen records" and arranged them for coding. They clarified "coded "desist" as how students were involved in misconduct, or possible alternative to the behavior, "firmness" (as an "I mean it" and "right now" quality), and roughness (expression of anger or exasperation) (p. 759).

Kounin and Gump researched elementary classrooms and three important changes were made "that produced original and enduringly influential findings" (Brophy, 2006, p.759). First, Kounin and Doyle and Kounin, Friesen, and Norton (as cited in Brophy, 2006) improved data collection by changing sample records formed from observations to include comments about classroom proceedings and recording videos. Secondly, Kounin and Gump changed their limited concentration on "desist incidences" to involve a variety of teachers' actions. Thirdly, they formed rankings of the teachers' awareness of being classroom supervisors, stressing teachers' progress. They also found that rating the students' involvement in continuing with lessons and tasks (the validity and reliability) was more useful than efforts to measure the general teaching effects (Brophy, 2006).

Video tapes were also analyzed and revealed that "measures and teachers' reactions were related to disturbing manners ("i.e. desists") and not related to the teachers' general efficiency as classroom supervisors. Rather, the research indicated that important progress with management hindered students from being troublesome in the beginning, and was aimed at keeping the energy of learning tasks and "nipping potential problems in the bud before they could escalate" (Brophy, 2006, p. 760). Listed below are some of the main variables identified from analyzing the video tapes.

- *Withitness.* ‘‘Remaining with it’’, teachers stayed of what is taking place in the classroom most of the time; they continued to examine the classroom environment while engaged with individual students or small groups.
- *Overlapping.* Performing more than one task at a time. For example, being closer to students or looking at them to capture students’ attention and carrying on with the lesson without interjecting.
- *Signal continuity and momentum during the lesson.* The teacher is expected to teach well-planned, efficient classes centered on capturing students’ attention. The teacher should also present content continually (the ‘‘signal’’) that is more compelling than noise of competing distractions, and by sustaining the momentum of the signal throughout the lesson’’ (p. 760).
- *Group alerting and accountability during the lessons.*

Teachers were expected to present and use question strategies that will maintain the groups’ attention and responsibility. Examples of this include, pausing before asking an individual to respond to a question, keeping away from guessing in the selection of the participants, and ‘‘interspersing choral responses with individual responses’’ (p. 760).

Challenge and variety in assignments

Students can be encouraged and engaged in ‘‘seatwork’’ by offering different assignments to challenge their cognitive abilities. Brophy, 2006). Evertson, Emmer (1980) and their team wrote detailed notes about regulations and events that were presented to teachers at the beginning of the year, along with their methodology and their follow-up procedures for when a need arises they establish the regulations or apply the actions (Brophy, 2006). Their first study was carried out with third -grade classes, they focused on issues surrounding the need to give more attention to students. For example, the research examined ‘‘information about the teacher and their classmates, review of the daily schedule, procedures for lunch and recess, and where to put personal materials’’ (p.761). Events and schedules were also established progressively, so that they should not burden the students with too much information at one time.

- *Conveying purposefulness:*

Efficient managers took advantage of the time allotted for teaching. They evaluated whether the students were learning from the syllabus and whether or not they were participating. The students were encouraged to be responsible for finishing their work on time. Daily revision of work was arranged and students were given effective evaluations.

- *Teaching appropriate conduct:*

Effective managers were clear about their expectations and what they would not accept. They concentrated on student’ immediate work and taught them how to do the work. In other words, they aimed to teach students to learn how to learn.

- *Maintaining attention:*

Effective managers pinpointed students who were confused or not paying attention in class. Classroom sitting arrangements were organized in a way that students could face a direction in which they could best concentrate. Differences in the way they spoke, moved around the class, or ‘‘pace to sustain attention’’ were also used in the class (Brophy, 2006). As a result, effective managers did a follow-up on demanding tasks in the first weeks of class, encouraging and supporting the students’ needs. They offered infrequent remedial teaching and they remained focused and reliable in implementing their regulations (Brophy, 2006). The findings of Brophy (2006) reported that, most of the time, teachers instructed their students to abide by ‘‘rules and procedures,’’ but they also talked about their anticipations with regard to students’ accountability and engagement in finishing their tasks. Information that defined students’ tasks was posted and the due dates were recorded. Teachers also explained in detail the importance of students submitting excellent work.

Doyle (as cited in Brophy, 2006) used stories to describe teaching practices at junior high English classes. They reported that successful managers:

- Formed lessons that were suitable for a 50-minute time table;
- Used tasks with explanations or programs of action” for students to go along with)
- explicitly marked the boundaries of activities and orchestrated the transitions between them” (p.761).
- Demonstrated situational awareness by attending to details and commenting on events as they occurred” (p. 761).
- Managed tasks until they set up schedules and used them actively, focusing on students, and concentrating on “public attention on work.”
- They also paid attention to students’ misconduct and ignored disturbances that interfered with the “flow of events”” Successful managers encouraged students master the curriculum despite behavior difficulties (Brophy, 2006).

Studies of Doyle; Evertson, Emmer; and Kounin had similarities. Elementary school researchers like Freiberg, Stein, and Huang (as cited in Brophy, 2006) agreed with the above mentioned research findings. In addition, Kounin and Gump proposed that “teachers’ desist statements do not predict their effectiveness as managers, but Evertson and Emmer showed that it is important for teachers to nip potential disruptions in the bud.

Classroom management approaches involve patterns of “complex learning” abilities that are achieved through teaching strategies that accompany the apprenticeship model (Brophy, 1988). Brophy (1988) followed teacher trainees as the skilled persons carrying out activities. They asked questions and were guided in regard to the lessons. The novice increased in personal responsibility as well as developing knowledge and skills (Brophy, 1988).

The major teaching approaches that a skilled teacher used were *modeling*, *coaching*, and *fading*. The skilled teacher modeled the tasks for the trainee and offered coaching as the trainees made an effort to complete tasks. Eventually the time used on coaching was reduced and used instead to show the beginners how to be responsible in regard to activities as his/her skills increased (Brophy, 1988). With the advanced “complex skills” that the skilled person acquires, that person should utilize scaffolding and organize task engagements for the trainee.

The trainees are also expected to master other aspects of the activity prior to involvement. While the trainees continue to learn through the apprenticeship approach, they have the opportunity to observe the activity being performed and to get explanations of the procedure (Brophy, 1988). With this practice, trainees’ classroom management abilities would emerge if instructors had trainees “spends several years working as apprentices to several different expert teachers” (Brophy, 1988, p. 14).

Teacher educators should focus on their available time and material to provide instruction on classroom management. Brophy (1988) suggested 3 reasons in support of an integrated approach to teacher training. First, students who obtain a continuous incorporated instruction in one approach will be able to excel and have the ability to apply the method when teaching. Trainees given insufficient experience for different methods perceive the lessons as insufficient or not creative. Secondly, different approaches taught in survey classrooms are not fully researched and focus too much on punishment or remedial views of “student socialization there is less focus on classroom management or on “developing prosocial attitudes and behavior in the students” (Brophy, 1988, p.15). , Thirdly, Brophy asserted that there is a need for further research in classroom management approaches, which suggest good ideas in other areas of research however, such ideas lack scientific evidence.

CONCLUSION

Researchers and scholars have recently developed great interest in teacher efficacy because it promotes teacher effectiveness and provides solutions to problems in teacher education. Furthermore, it enhances teacher productivity. Literature reveals that teachers do not believe in themselves as competent yet teacher efficacy influences classroom instruction, students learning and performance. Literature indicates that teachers, who do not believe in themselves as effective, do not use instructions that will promote cognitive learning. Other scholars and researchers have alluded to teacher efficacy as an important component of teaching for it helps teachers to

conceptualize teaching and to develop self conception. Teachers with high efficacy are able to motivate students to learn and are capable of engaging students in learning even if students are disruptive. Teacher efficacy is an important attribute of classroom management. Literature indicates that classroom management is a difficult issue to deal with. Teachers with high efficacy are effective managers and student counselors. They know how to handle misbehaving students; they can effectively organize classrooms in which learning and good performance will be achieved.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Waitshega Tefo Smitta Dibapile is a lecturer at the Department of Educational Foundations, University of Botswana in Southern Africa. She teaches courses in Educational Psychology. She holds the following qualifications: Diploma in Counseling Studies, Keele University (England, UK) Bsc. Psychology, Bolton Institute of Higher Learning, (England, UK) and M Ed. Psychology of Education, Bristol University, (England, and UK). Smitta is currently a doctoral candidate at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville USA. Her research interests are: teacher efficacy, classroom management, reasons for choosing teaching as a career, self- concept and adolescent development. E-mail: smittawd@yahoo.com & sdibapil@utk.edu.

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