

## *Full Length Research*

# **Gender and school type differences in self-efficacy in teaching**

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**The main purpose of the present study was to investigate secondary school beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy in Ethiopia. Respondents were 381 secondary school beginning teachers in East Shoa and West Arsi Zones of Oromiya regional state, Ethiopia. They responded to a two-part questionnaire-demographic variables, and the teachers' sense of efficacy scale (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Scale results showed that beginning teachers in Ethiopia claim average levels of self-efficacy, efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, classroom management and overall efficacy. However, female beginning teachers in Ethiopia and those teaching in public schools tend to have lower levels of self-efficacy. Implications and recommendations for school practices and future research are discussed.**

**Key words:** Perceptions, self-efficacy, instructional strategy, classroom management, student engagement.

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## **INTRODUCTION**

Beginning is the foundation of any profession and a good beginning is crucial for success in one's professional life (Fottland, 2004; Gentzler, 2005). Mowday et al. (1982) state that "the initial years of teaching are recognized as being important to one's teaching effectiveness, job satisfaction, professional commitment and career longevity". Positive attitudes towards these school elements may foster a teacher's sense of self-efficacy and lead to success, while a negative attitude towards these elements may lead to a teacher's low sense of self-efficacy and increase their chance of failure resulting in high teachers' attrition rates (Einar and Skaalvik, 2009). Although we hardly find adequate literature on teacher attrition rates in Ethiopian secondary schools, from teachers' migration rates and shortages, it is evident that attrition rates in Ethiopia follow the same trend as other countries (Tsfaye, 2003). It has been observed that in Ethiopia the teaching profession is considered as a low status profession and there is a decreasing interest in joining teaching and respect for teachers in public. The signs of positive images for the teaching profession are gradually vanishing. Many college graduates do not prefer teaching as their first or second professional choices (Tsfaye, 2003).

In order to tackle these problems and meet these challenges, the crucial issue is to identify the problems that teachers face during their entry years to the profession. Some of the problems to consider could be those factors related to teachers' personality constructs (self-constructs), and those factors related to the school environment. One of the self-constructs, which is believed to be a strong determinant of success in one's task [profession] is self-efficacy (Neill, 2005). Therefore, beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy deserves careful investigation. Based on this, the present study endeavors to investigate beginning teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy.

### **Purpose of the study**

The purpose of this study is twofold:

- i.) To assess secondary school beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy in Ethiopia.
- ii.) To discover how the demographic variables impact secondary school beginning teachers' perceptions

of self-efficacy.

### Research questions

To better understand the stated problems of the study, this researcher has endeavored to investigate the following two questions:

- i.) What are the beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy in Ethiopia?
- ii.) Do the beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy significantly differ across selected demographic variables?

## REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

### Self-efficacy

One of the important teacher characteristics in motivating student learning and increasing their academic performance is teachers' self-efficacy—the belief in one's ability and confidence to teach and the conviction that all students can learn (Bogler and Somech, 2004). In the discussions of teacher shortages and attrition rates, addressing the self-efficacy of beginning teachers is important. Çakiroglu et al. (2005) stated that “the issue of teachers' efficacy is of importance as teacher preparation programs throughout the world attempt to address shortages of qualified, competent teachers” (p. 1). The study of self-efficacy in teaching can be dealt with in terms of efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies and efficacy in classroom management.

### Efficacy in student engagement

According to Shaughnessy (2004), “Teachers' self-efficacy for teaching—their perceptions about their own capabilities to foster students' learning and engagement—has proved to be an important teacher characteristic often correlated with positive student and teacher outcomes.” Sergiovanni (2000) defines academic engagement as “the degree to which students are connected to their academic work, try hard, are persistent, and seem committed to learning” (p. 28). Student engagement will lead to academic engagement which, in turn, leads to student achievement.

Furthermore, teacher self-efficacy is positively correlated with student sense of self-efficacy (Anthony and Kritsonis, 2006; Çakiroglu et al., 2005; Hefer, 2006; Santrock, 2008). Teachers with high sense of self-efficacy build up students' sense of self-efficacy and

teachers with low sense of self-efficacy lead students to low sense of self-efficacy.

### Efficacy in instructional strategies

Teachers who believe in their own self-efficacy understand their subject matter very well, are ready to fulfill their students' expectations, make their teaching approach enjoyable and persistently explore ways that work best for their individual learners (Anthony and Kritsonis, 2006; Bandura, 1993; Hefer, 2006; Kaplan and Owings, 2002; Ware and Kitsantas, 2007). Highly self-efficacious teachers provide more learning experiences to their students than low self-efficacious teachers (Çakiroglu et al., 2005; Ware and Kitsantas, 2007). According to Stronge (2002), confidence in one's own self-esteem and expecting high performance from their students are common among self-efficacious teachers.

### Efficacy in classroom management

Classroom management is defined as organizing, controlling and creating positive climate and incentives (Bosch, 2006; Hoy and Hoy, 2006). Broadly defined, classroom management refers to “how the teacher works, how the class works, how the teacher and students work together, and how teaching and learning happen” (Bosch, 2006, p. 2).

Like student engagement and instructional strategies, teacher self-efficacy has a significant impact on classroom management too. Teachers with low self-efficacy do not have confidence in their ability to manage classroom, become stressed and angered at students' misbehavior, are pessimistic about students' ability to improve, take a custodial view of their job, often resort to restrictive and punitive modes of discipline, and say that if they had to do it all over again, they would not choose teaching as a profession (Melby, as cited in Santrock, 2008).

## METHODOLOGY

This study employed a descriptive-comparative research design. The primary purpose of this study was to assess the beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy in Ethiopia and compare them according to school characteristics. The perception was assessed using the survey instrument for data gathering and data were analyzed using SPSS for Windows version 11.5. Interpretations of the results were based on the statistical analysis of the data. The two variables and their related constructs were the following:

**Table 1.** Summary table of reliability coefficients of TSES, short and long form.

<b>Self-efficacy</b>	<b>Long form alpha</b>	<b>Short form alpha</b>
TSES	0.94	0.90
Efficacy in instructional strategies	0.91	0.86
Efficacy in classroom management	0.90	0.86
Efficacy in students engagement	0.87	0.81

i.) Teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy: The three subscales of efficacy being (a) efficacy in instructional strategies, (b) efficacy in student engagement and (c) efficacy in classroom management.

ii.) The demographic variables: This consisted of two categories (a) teachers' gender and (b) school type.

## **SURVEY INSTRUMENTS**

### **Teachers' sense of efficacy scale**

The TSES was developed at College of Education, the Ohio State University by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), and also referred to as Ohio State Teacher efficacy scale. The developers have authorized the free use of this instrument for educational purposes (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The scale measured the following dimensions: (a) efficacy in student engagement, (b) efficacy in instructional strategies, (c) efficacy in classroom management, and (d) the overall self-efficacy.

### **Validity and reliability**

The developers of this instrument claim that the TSES has sufficient validity and reliability (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Thus, it has been used in a number of studies in USA (Capa, 2005; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, 2002), Iran (Eslami and Fatahi, 2008), Canada, Cyprus, Korea, Singapore, and the USA (Bong et al., 2008) and reported to be valid.

Based on their findings (Table 1), the developers of TSES believe that these scales "could be considered reasonably valid and reliable, with either 24 or 12 items, it is of reasonable length and should prove to be a useful tool for researchers interested in exploring the construct of teacher efficacy" (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 801). The validity analysis in this research also confirmed that the instrument is suitable for the proposed study in Ethiopia.

### **Rating and scoring**

The items were rated using a 5-point scale from nothing (1) to a great deal (5). The higher scores indicate higher

levels of agreement on self-efficacy. Each subscale score consisted of the mean (M) of the responses to the items in that factor (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). In case of more than 50% of the items for a particular respondent was missing then the mean value for that factor was not calculated. The scores for the total scale were computed from the mean scores of each item of all respondents. Therefore, the total score of TSES and each subscale could vary from 1 to 5.

### **Validity analysis of the instruments**

Since the instrument—the TSES used in this study was developed in the western context, it was necessary to conduct a validity analysis in the Ethiopian context. Literature indicates that for fully structured, developed and validated instruments, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is the only appropriate method of hypothesis testing and AMOS for SEM is appropriate for CFA (Byrne, 2001). Thus, the CFA was done using AMOS for SEM software version 17.0 to check whether the scale could be formed into an independent model with a goodness of fit and with each item contributing significantly to the scale in terms of the sample population of this study. Models of goodness of fit were generated and then the models for each of the scales were examined with model fit indicators and significance indicators. Significant  $\chi^2$  values for the models would suggest a poor fit. In such cases, other fit indices such as goodness of fit index (GFI > 0.90), normed fit index (NFI > 0.90), comparative fit index (CFI > 0.90), Critical Ratio (CR > 1.96), and p-values ( $p < 0.05$ ) were examined especially in relation to the sample size of the present study (Byrne, 2001).

The CFA model fit analysis for the 24-item long form TSES (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) showed that  $\chi^2$  was significant suggesting a poor fit. However, the other goodness of fit indices such as (GFI > 0.90, NFI > 0.90, and CFI > 0.90), and Critical Ratio (CR > 1.96), and p-values ( $p < 0.05$ ) of each item confirmed a good fit of the models for the given sample data.

### **Reliability analysis of the instrument**

To ensure their quality and reliability in terms of the Ethiopian context, reliability analysis of the instrument

was conducted using SPSS for windows version 11.5. Internal consistency was tested with Cronbach's alpha. In this study, the reliability coefficients of the long form, 24-item TSES with three subscales ranged from 0.74 to 0.89 compared to the alpha coefficients of 0.87 to 0.94 reported by the developers of the instrument (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Although, the alpha values of the TSES in this study are relatively lower compared to the previous study, all of them have alpha coefficient values over 0.70 which is sufficient for data analysis and interpretations of the results.

### Research location

This research was conducted on public and private secondary schools in East Shoa and West Arsi zones of Oromiya regional state, Ethiopia. Although the two zones can be categorized as four zones administratively—two urban and two rural administrations, geographically they are categorized as only two, namely, East Shoa and West Arsi zones.

### Population and sample

The target population for this study was beginning secondary school teachers. Both urban and suburban public and private secondary schools were randomly selected proportionally from the total schools in the zones using stratified random sampling methods. To determine the sample size, statistical formula for unknown population was used (see <http://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>). Based on this formula, with 95% level of confidence and 0.95 confidence interval the sample size needed was 381 secondary school beginning teachers.

### Data-gathering procedures

Data was collected via a survey conducted on beginning public and private secondary school teachers in East Shoa and West Arsi Zones of Oromiya regional state, Ethiopia. Out of a total of 33 public and 15 private secondary schools in these regions, 23 public and 11 private secondary schools were randomly selected for the study. The participants responded to the questionnaire consisting of demographic variables and TSES. The total of 537 questionnaires was distributed, out of which 392 were returned. The number of questionnaires returned represents about 73% of the total questionnaires distributed. This is considered an adequate response rate for the analysis and interpretation of the results (McMillan, 2008).

### Data analysis

The following steps were taken in the process of data

analysis: All the responses were coded and analyzed using SPSS for windows version 11.5, or AMOS for SEM version 17.0. After coding the data, preliminary data analysis was conducted to locate or fix possible errors before doing statistical analysis to answer research questions. Preliminary data analysis was also intended to examine the degree to which the statistical assumptions of the study were met. Preliminary analysis of screening data was done to check for missing data, outliers, the normality, homogeneity, linearity, reliability, and validity. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were obtained for each of the variables.

### Description of the respondents

Table 2 shows the demographic profile of respondents used in the data analyses.

#### Age

The majority of beginning teachers come from the young age group who are in the age category of 26 and below (63.8%). Only 6 teachers (1.6%) were in their early thirties and one teacher (0.3%) in the late thirties. This is apparently because of it being an expected age range at which many young people complete their undergraduate studies and enter into the profession.

#### Gender

Considering gender, compared to other developing countries such as the Philippines (Amada, 1997), and Bangladesh (Bairagee, 2008), where the majority of teachers are females, and the US where teaching is decidedly a female occupation (Borman and Dowling, 2008), this research finding showed that in Ethiopia a majority of beginning teachers are males (89.0%). This is consistent with the general composition of the secondary school teaching staffs in Ethiopia. Furthermore, the data obtained from the secondary schools sampled for this study showed that male teachers comprised 87% of the total teaching force.

#### Level of education

More than half (76.0%) of the teachers had bachelor's degrees, while diploma holders make up 22.0%. In secondary schools sampled for this study, there was no teacher with more than bachelor's degree. This indicates that the maximum qualification required to teach at Ethiopian secondary schools is bachelor's degree. Those with more than bachelor's degree may be assigned to some administrative duties or transferred to teach at higher levels. Those diploma holders and others teaching at the secondary school level may be in the process of

**Table 2.** Demographic profile of teachers (N = 381).

Demographic Variable	Category	N	%
Age	Below 26	243	63.8
	26-30	130	34.1
	31-35	6	1.6
	36-40	1	0.3
	Over 40	0	0
	Missing	1	0.3
Gender	Male	339	89.0
	Female	42	11.0
	Missing	2	0.5
Level of education	College diploma	84	22.0
	BA/BSC	289	76.0
	Other	8	2.0
	Missing	3	0.8
School type	Public	268	70.3
	Private	113	29.7
School setting	Urban	82	21.5
	Suburban	299	78.5

upgrading to bachelor's degree or assigned to teach subjects such as vocational and physical education.

### School type

There were more respondents from public schools (70.3%) than private schools. This is obvious because the number of public schools as well as their student population is higher than private schools.

### School setting

While the majority of beginning teachers (78.5%) taught in the suburban school settings, only one third (29.2%) taught in urban school settings. As the years of their teaching experience increases, majority of teachers move to urban schools and those who newly join the teaching profession are assigned to suburban schools. The fact that moving to urban schools is based on seniority and is considered as promotion, contributes to this situation. Teaching at urban schools provides teachers with better working and living conditions and various professional development opportunities than suburban schools. It appears that suburban public schools have become experimental grounds for relatively young and inexperienced teachers. This might result in an imbalance in the quality of educational practices.

## ANALYSIS OF DATA AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

This section presents the analysis of the data to answer the two research questions addressed in this study.

### Perceptions of self-efficacy

The first research question examined the level of beginning teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy. Descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the three subscales.

#### Self-efficacy in instructional strategies

The subscale for self-efficacy in instructional strategies asked how much the beginning teachers can do to employ various teaching methodologies in the classroom. Eight items comprised this subscale. Sample questions include, "How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students? To what extent can you design good questions for your students?" On the 5-point Likert scale the calculated means for the items of this subscale ranged from the highest ( $M = 4.44$ ,  $SD = .77$ ) to the lowest ( $M = 3.98$ ,  $SD = 0.95$ ). The overall mean for this subscale was 4.17 and the standard deviation was 0.85, indicating that beginning teachers perceived that they can do quite a bit in self-efficacy in instructional strategies.

#### Self-efficacy in classroom management

The subscale for self-efficacy in classroom management asked how much the beginning teachers can do to handle their classrooms. Sample questions include, "How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules? How well can you respond to rebellious students?" The calculated mean scores for the items of this subscale ranged from the highest ( $M = 4.24$ ,  $SD = 0.88$ ) to the lowest ( $M = 3.69$ ,  $SD = 0.94$ ). The overall computed mean for this scale was 4.02 and the standard deviation

**Table 3.** Summary results of teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy (N = 381).

Variables	M	SD	Interpretation
Efficacy in instructional strategies	4.17	0.85	Quite a bit
Efficacy in classroom management	4.02	0.92	Quite a bit
Efficacy in student engagement	3.96	0.95	Quite a bit
Overall self-efficacy	4.05	0.90	Quite a bit

Note: Mean categories: Nothing =1.00-1.79, Very little = 1.80-2.59; Some influence = 2.60-3.39; Quite a bit = 3.40-4.19; A great deal = 4.20-5.00.

**Table 4.** Comparison of teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy by gender (N = 381).

Self-efficacy	Gender	N	M	SE	MD(SED)	t-value	p-value
Efficacy in student engagement	Male	339	3.98	0.03	0.21(0.09)	2.33	0.02*
	Female	42	3.77	0.08			
Efficacy in instructional strategies	Male	339	4.20	0.03	0.24(0.08)	3.02	0.00**
	Female	42	3.96	0.08			
Efficacy in classroom management	Male	339	4.05	0.03	0.30(0.09)	3.26	0.00**
	Female	42	3.75	0.09			
Overall self-efficacy	Male	339	4.08	0.02	0.25(0.08)	3.31	0.00**
	Female	42	3.83	0.08			

Note: Mean categories: Nothing =1.00-1.79; Very little = 1.80-2.59; Some influence = 2.60-3.39; Quite a bit = 3.40-4.19; A great deal = 4.20-5.00. SE = Standard error of the mean. MD = Mean difference. SED = Standard error of the difference. \*Significant at 0.05 level. \*\*Significant at 0.01 level.

was 0.92 indicating that beginning teachers perceived that they can do quite a bit in self-efficacy in classroom management.

### Self-efficacy in student engagement

The subscale for self-efficacy in student engagement asked how much the beginning teachers can do to engage their students. Sample questions include, "How much can you do to help your students think critically? How much can you do to help your students' value learning?" The highest mean score for the items of this subscale was  $M = 4.38$ , ( $SD = 0.77$ ) and the lowest mean score was  $M = 3.36$ , ( $SD = 1.24$ ). The overall mean score for self-efficacy in student engagement was 3.96 and the standard deviation was 0.95 indicating that beginning teachers can do quite a bit in self-efficacy in student engagement.

### Overall self-efficacy

Out of the 24 items in the scale, the mean scores for the eight items fell in the middle category, corresponding to some influence. The mean scores for the remaining 16 items fell in moderately high category, corresponding to quite a bit. No mean scores fell in the extreme lowest category, nothing or highest category, a great deal. The total self-efficacy scale scored mean of 4.05, ( $SD = 0.90$ ) indicating that beginning teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy is average.

In summary, the statistical analysis for TSES is shown in Table 3. A higher mean score was obtained for the subscale efficacy in instructional strategies followed in descending order by efficacy in classroom management and efficacy in student engagement. However, there are no statistical significant differences among the scores of the three subscales. In general, this study shows that the beginning teachers have an average level of self-efficacy in teaching.

### Comparison of teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy

The second research question asked, "How do the perceptions of the beginning teachers on self-efficacy differ across the selected demographic variables: gender and school type?"

The matching null hypothesis of this research question stated, "There is no significant difference in beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy when grouped according to gender and school type." This hypothesis was tested by performing an independent samples *t* test to explore how the perceptions of beginning teachers' self-efficacy differ across gender and school type, school setting, and teaching subjects.

### Gender

Results are shown in Table 4. The analysis revealed that there are significant differences in self efficacy in instructional strategies ( $t = 3.20$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), self-efficacy in

**Table 5.** Comparison of teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy by school type (N = 381).

Self-efficacy	School type	N	M	SE	MD(SED)	t-value	p-value
Efficacy in student engagement	Public	268	3.94	0.04	(0.07) (0.06)	(1.15)	0.25
	Private	113	4.01	0.05			
Efficacy in instructional strategies	Public	268	4.11	0.03	(0.21) (0.05)	(3.82)	0.00**
	Private	113	4.32	0.04			
Efficacy in classroom management	Public	268	3.98	0.04	(0.11) (0.06)	(1.79)	0.07
	Private	113	4.10	0.05			
Overall self-efficacy	Public	268	4.01	0.03	(0.13) (0.05)	(2.50)	0.00**
	Private	113	4.14	0.04			

Note: Mean categories: Nothing =1.00-1.79; Very little = 1.80-2.59; Some influence = 2.60-3.39; Quite a bit = 3.40-4.19; A great deal = 4.20-5.00. SE = Standard error of mean. MD = Mean difference. SED = Standard error of the difference. \*\*Significant at 0.01 level.

student engagement ( $t = 2.40, p < .05$ ), self-efficacy in classroom management ( $t = 3.26, p < .01$ ), and overall efficacy ( $t = 3.31, p < 0.01$ ) with males scoring significantly higher than females.

Thus, the null sub-hypothesis was rejected. It can be concluded that female teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy is consistently and significantly lower than their male counterparts. This could be due to the fact that teaching is preferred by males more than females in Ethiopia. Another reason could be that the female to male teacher ratio is very small and the female teachers may be suffering from lack of peer support or isolation.

### School type

The null sub-hypothesis for this section stated that "there are no significant differences in beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy when grouped by school type." Independent samples  $t$  test was performed to test this hypothesis. Summary of the test is indicated in Table 5. As shown in the table, beginning teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy in instructional strategies ( $t = -3.82, p < 0.01$ ), and overall self-efficacy ( $t = -2.50, p < 0.01$ ) differed significantly when grouped according to school type.

When the perceptions of self-efficacy in instructional strategies was considered, teachers in the private schools scored higher ( $M = 4.31, SD = 0.42$ ) than those in public schools ( $M = 4.11, SD = 0.50$ ). In overall self-efficacy, again teachers in the private schools scored higher ( $M = 4.14, SD = 0.40$ ) than those in the public schools ( $M = 4.01, SD = 0.50$ ). Thus, the corresponding null sub-hypothesis is rejected.

It was found that beginning teachers in private schools are more self-efficacious in instructional strategies and overall self-efficacy than their counterparts in the public schools. This could be because of smaller class size in private than public secondary schools in Ethiopia.

### Discussions

There were more respondents from public schools (70.3%) than private schools. This is obvious because the number of public schools as well as their student population is higher than private schools. It also has been found that beginning teachers in private schools are more self-efficacious ( $MD = 0.21, p < 0.01$ ) in instructional strategies and overall self-efficacy ( $MD = 0.13, p < 0.01$ ) than their counterparts in the public schools. This could be because of smaller class size in private than public secondary schools.

While the majority of beginning teachers (78.5%) taught in the suburban school settings, only one third (29.2%) taught in urban school settings. As the years of their teaching experience increases, majority of teachers move to urban schools, and those who newly join the teaching profession are assigned to suburban schools. The fact that moving to urban schools is based on seniority and is considered as promotion, contributes to this situation. Teaching at urban schools provides teachers with better working and living conditions and various professional development opportunities than suburban schools. It appears that suburban public schools have become experimental grounds for relatively young and inexperienced teachers. This might result in an imbalance in the quality of educational practices.

This study revealed that secondary school beginning teachers' perceived that they can do quite a bit in their self-efficacy in instructional strategies ( $M = 4.17$ ), student engagement ( $M = 3.96$ ), classroom management ( $M = 4.02$ ) and overall self-efficacy ( $M = 4.05$ ). Similar findings were reported by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), in the US who, on a 9-point scale reported higher teachers' self-efficacy in instructional strategies ( $M = 7.30, SD = 1.10$ ), student engagement ( $M = 7.30, SD, 1.10$ ), classroom management ( $M = 6.70, SD = 1.10$ ), and the overall self-efficacy ( $M = 7.10, SD = 0.94$ ) among

pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. The study of Capa (2005) among the first year elementary and secondary school teachers in the US and Garvis (n.d.) on beginning art teachers in Australia also showed similar results. From these results it can be inferred that self-efficacy of beginning teachers in Ethiopian secondary schools is similar to teachers' level of self-efficacy in developed countries such as the US and Australia.

## Conclusions

The following conclusions can be drawn from the findings of the present study:

i.) The 24- item TSES (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), has acceptable validity and reliability that allows confidence in the drawing of conclusions from this study in Ethiopian context.

ii.) Beginning secondary school teachers in Ethiopia claim average levels of perceptions of self-efficacy.

ii.) Female beginning teachers in Ethiopia tend to have lower levels of self-efficacy than their male counterparts.

iii.) Beginning teachers in public schools scored lower in their perceptions of self-efficacy than those teaching in private schools.

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