UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN THE KWAHU WEST JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS.

EDWIN ADJEI

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BY

EDWIN ADJEI

Thesis submitted to the Department of Education and Psychology of the Faculty of Educational foundations, College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of Master of Philosophy degree in Educational Psychology

JULY 2018

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature……..…… Date……

Name: ……..……..……

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature …… Date ……

Name: ……..……..……

Co-supervisor's Signature ……...…… Date …….

Name: ……..……..……

ABSTRACT

The study sought to examine the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their classroom management practices among public Junior High School teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality. The descriptive survey design was used for the study. Proportional sampling and simple random sampling procedures were used to select a total sample of 217 respondents for the study. Two sets of questionnaires were employed for the study. The Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy teacher self-efficacy scale (TSES) was adapted and a structured questionnaire on classroom management practices were used for the study. Frequencies and percentages, Mean and standard deviation, Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Independent sample t-test were used to analyse the data for the study. The results showed a statistically significant moderate positive correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and classroom behaviour management practices. The study also revealed a statistically significant moderate positive correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional management practices as well as between teachers' self-efficacy and student classroom engagement practices. The study recommends that the Ghana Education Service organise training programmes for teachers to receive more training in the fields of self-efficacy and classroom management practices to yield higher outcomes in the classroom management.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mum Mrs. Joana Adjei.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

A teacher is required to teach a classroom full of students with a wide range of learning abilities, possibly coupled with some levels of learning abilities (Ryan, 2007). Also, every classroom is made up of students from stable, traditional or supportive home environments and from unstable, broken, or homeless situations. According to Senler (2011), both pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge are not the only factors which makes a teacher effective.

Evidence has been established on the fact that a lot of factors affect the teaching and learning process (White 2009). These factors, either remote or direct, mostly influence educational outcomes. Teachers' ability to manage time, space, activities, materials, social relations and the behaviour of students have come to be accepted as some of the factors that can be affected by teacher self-efficacy, which in the long run affects academic achievement (White, 2009).

Self-efficacy has been discussed by Bandura (1977) to be a powerful tool in learning and motivation. Teachers' self-efficacy, and confidence in their ability to promote students' learning was identified almost 31 years ago as one of the few teacher characteristics related to students' achievement in a study by the RAND Corporation (Armor, Conroy-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pascal, Pauly, & Zellman, 1976).

Since that early study, teacher self-efficacy has been associated with such significant variables as student motivation, teachers' adoption of innovations, superintendents' ratings of teachers' competence, teachers' classroom management strategies, and time spent teaching certain subjects, and teachers' referral of students to special education (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Other authors have also made the same argument; teacher self-efficacy, teachers' judgment of their capabilities to organize and carry out strategies necessary for successfully accomplishing a specific teaching task in a particular context is found to be significantly related to their classroom behaviour and to students' outcomes such as achievements and motivation (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Classroom management is a very important aspect of teaching and learning, however, if we consider the issues mentioned, we can only argue that good classroom management depends on the efficacy level of the teacher.

According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy refers to a person's ability to believe in his capabilities and implementation of actions to be successful. A teachers' self-efficacy influences his or her own thought patterns. He further stated that efficacy evokes emotions that steer actions towards objective perseverance through challenges or adversity, recovery from an obstacle, and addresses steadfastness over events that affect the task.

Teacher efficacy has been defined as "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance (Berman McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, and Zelman, 1977; cited in Abu-Tineh, 2011). In other words, a teacher's conviction that he or she can influence how well students learn, even those who may be having difficulties or are under-motivated (Guskey & Passaro, 1994).

According to Bandura (1977), people have different levels of self-efficacy in different areas. Having high self-efficacy to handle challenging and demanding conditions are required for high performance. People's level of self-efficacy affects their performances. Low self-efficacy leads to questions about the self in terms of capabilities and lack of motivation, both of which prevent people from concentrating on the activity they are involved in. When people cannot succeed in an activity, they question their capabilities and feel depressed (Yilmaz, 2004). However, people with high self-efficacy feel the strength to cope with difficulties. The difficulty of the activity may motivate them even more, and they strive for success.

The fact that someone has high self-efficacy and has done their best with enthusiasm does not mean that they will be successful. They may fail, but people with high self-efficacy do not feel the need to hide behind external factors like the physical conditions in a setting or the fact that they have shortcomings as people with low self-efficacy do. Instead, they think they should work harder for success and strive to gain control over "potential stressors or threats" (Bandura, 1997, p. 39). These qualities of people with high self-efficacy separate them from people with low self-efficacy, helping them perform well.

The level of self-efficacy varies among teachers. School administrators can directly influence the building of efficacy with their staff. Principals can build and foster efficacy in the areas of student engagement, effective instructional practices, and classroom management (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). An individual's feeling of comfort in a working environment, the feeling of being supported by leadership and the

acknowledgement of leaders' influence with others for gain or assistance, tend to have much higher efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Building a relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and the teacher's ability to transform the lives, attitudes, and motivation of their students from a negative direction to a more positive direction has remained important, but the challenge has always been how to isolate the teachers with the required characteristics needed to achieve this feet or connection.

Jerald (2007) summarized the characteristics associated with high levels of efficacy. He stated that efficacious teachers have the following characteristics:

1. Exhibit effective planning and organization.
2. Have the willingness to try new methods.
3. Are open to new ideas.
4. Are dedicated and have patience when things are not going as planned.
5. Are able to put up actions that prove to be more supportive to students who are not mastering the skills which are being taught.
6. Are more likely to help students who are under achieving rather than referring them for special education services.

In addition, he stated that teachers with enough self-efficacy are able to manage time in the classroom, arrange students in a way that will always make the classroom environment an enabling one for students with different capabilities, students with high capabilities and low capabilities, and as well as students with physical challenges. A self-efficacious teacher will make sure that there are no handicapping situations in the classroom.

Teacher self-efficacy is established during teacher education programs and first year of teaching. Results from studies on teacher self-efficacy have shown that teacher self-efficacy increases during teacher education experiences (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993). In other words, teacher self-efficacy starts from when a prospective teacher begins to receive education to become a professional teacher and refines it with experience in the teaching job. Other writers, including Moseley, Reinke and Bookour, (2003), argue that self-efficacy declines for a period, beginning after graduation, through the end of first year of teaching. According to Yin (2012), the concept of self-efficacy is of critical importance to teacher education, but it is mostly ignored during training, support programs and in the daily work environment.

Teaching and learning depend on the abilities and effectiveness of teachers. This includes teachers' confidence in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom behaviour management are important factors which determine the level of self-efficacy of a teacher (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993).

Classroom management is a complex interactive process that is highly dependent on the context of the classroom environment. It involves careful monitoring of the total environment of the classroom, including instructional management and behaviour management, in such a way that will promote an atmosphere where learning can take place (Marzano, Marzano, & Pickerinrg, 2003). The classroom activities in which students are engaged, the types of responses made to students by teachers, the teacher's awareness of factors competing for student attention, as well as the physical structure of the room, all impact on a well-managed classroom (McCreary, 2010).

According to Wong, Wont and Rogers (2012), classroom management refers to all the things that a teacher does to organize students, space, time, and materials so that students' learning can take place. Classroom management is the term used to highlight all those activities necessary to create and maintain an orderly learning environment such as planning and preparation of materials, organization, decoration of the classroom and certainly the establishment and enforcement of routines and rules. It also refers to all those positive behaviours and decisions teachers make to facilitate the learning process of their students (Mazano, et al, 2003).

McCreary (2010) defined classroom management as the methods and strategies an educator uses to maintain a classroom environment that is conducive to student success and learning. He stated that efficient teachers should acquire a toolbox of classroom management strategies that they can use in the classroom. Mazano, et al, 2003) asserted that a well-managed classroom provides an environment in which teaching and learning can flourish. He points out that the importance of feeling safe at school is linked to students learning. It was further stated that safe and orderly environment refers to an environment, which protects students from physical and psychological harm and maintain order so learning can take place.

Every teacher has his or her own strengths and weaknesses, and as such, teachers' ability to manage a classroom effectively can vary. According to Brannon (2010), little is known about the relationship between elementary school classroom management styles and students' outcomes. Sowell (2013) is also of the view that, classroom management optimization is one strategy towards maximizing student achievement. In today's society, schools are being

held accountable for every aspect of students' achievement. Classroom management plays a major role in students' classroom achievement.

Many of the educational reforms have failed to address the relationship between students' achievement and students' discipline which forms part of factors that need to be taken care of by effective efficacy and classroom management skills of teachers (American Association of School Administrators, 2002; Brannon, 2010).

For a number of decades, classroom discipline has been cited as a major issue for teachers (Martin & Sass, 2010), and if a teacher lacks the required strategies and the abilities to manage a classroom effectively, glimpses of indiscipline on the part of students will begin to break into the limelight. Students' achievement has been affected in schools where discipline and behavioural issues are not appropriately handled.

Research shows the importance of classroom management, however, knowledge on the most effective or appropriate classroom management strategy to be used in the classroom has been a problem (Brannon, 2010).

There is theoretical support for interventionist (Bandura, 1997) noninterventionist (Kounin 1977; Rogers 1994; Wong & Wong, 1998), and interactionist (Glasser, 1985; Lanoue, 2009) classroom management styles, however, not much is known about self-efficacy and classroom management. Further, little is known about the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, and classroom management practices.

Statement of the Problem

Different authors have pointed to the fact that some specific teacher attitudes and beliefs have a positive toll on the performance of their students (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Tournaki & Podell, 2005). Convincing evidence suggests that pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge are not enough for teachers to be effective (Senler, 2011). Teachers' beliefs about their abilities to positively influence student learning have been shown to have a substantial impact on teaching effectiveness (Knoblauch & Hoy, 2008).

Classroom management problems are the leading concern of novice and experienced teachers and are the most common causes of teacher attrition within the first five years of teaching (Ritter & Hancock, 2009; Rosas & West, 2009). However, self-efficacy has been noted to be the most influential factor which affects teachers' classroom management skills, which affects broad educational goals for students (Amor et al., 1976). Yet, teacher education programmes have generally failed to provide a well-conceptualised practical approach to classroom management (Burden, 1983). The Ghanaian context is not an exception. Although some teacher education programmes in the country require some form of training in classroom management, a critical scrutiny of the teacher education curriculum in colleges of education and universities in Ghana reveals that little emphasis is laid on classroom management (Boateng, 2016).

In Ghana, teachers as classroom managers are not adequately equipped with the necessary resources and pragmatic strategies in the delivery of their duties in most schools especially in deprived communities (Norviewu-Mortty, 2012). This is an indication of how a teacher may feel he or she is not adequately prepared to manage the classrooms effectively since self-efficacy is achieved

through mastery experience (Bandura, 1977). They are likely to have doubts in their ability in maximizing active classroom management practices to encourage students learning, and there is the need to find out the relationship that exists between teacher self-efficacy and classroom management. As individuals successfully achieve goals or tasks, they build a belief in their own personal efficacy, thus, successful experiences reinforce self-efficacy, but unsuccessful experiences act negatively on their own personal efficacy. Successful experiences reinforce self-efficacy, but unsuccessful experiences will damage individuals' belief in their in their abilities to manage the classroom (Bandura, 1997).

Research has shown that teachers who have positive classroom management experiences and student interaction tend to have greater self-efficacy in their teaching (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Interestingly, despite the importance of teacher self-efficacy in the teaching and learning process, with reference to classroom management, there is little research on the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their classroom management in basic schools (Yilmaz, 2004). Also, there is little research on the relationship between teacher self-efficacy on classroom management in Junior High Schools in the Kwahu West Municipality.

Empirically, findings to studies conducted on teachers' self-efficacy is limited, however, this study was conducted as a result the observation made by the Kwahu West Director of Education, Mr Maxwell Bonsu on November 12, 2013, that the rate of laziness and truancy on the part of teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality was very high and needed to be changed. He made the statement at an educational forum organised by the Catholic basic schools

Nkawkaw. It is in this light that this study sought to investigate the relationship between teacher's self-efficacy and classroom management among Junior High School teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to examine teachers' self-efficacy and classroom management practices among Junior High School teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality. Specifically, the study was guided by the following objectives:

1. Examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student behaviour management practices.
2. Examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional management practices.
3. Examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom engagement practices.
4. Explore the differences between the self-efficacy levels of male and female teachers.

Research Hypotheses

1. H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' classroom behaviour management practices.
   H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' classroom behaviour management practices.
2. H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional management practices.

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional management practices.

3. H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom engagement practices.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom engagement practices.

4. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy levels of male and female teachers.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy levels of male and female teachers.

Significance of the Study

The study will help provide information about the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and classroom management in the Kwahu West Municipality.

The study will also enable college of education curriculum developers to develop curriculums that will make training teachers to become self-efficacious a priority, thereby introducing ways of teaching and training teachers that will instil practical ideas of classroom management into trained teachers. This way, their efficacy levels with respect to classroom management will be enhanced.

Lastly, the findings of this study will add to the repertoire of existing literature on the impact of teacher self-efficacy on classroom management.

Delimitation

A full understanding of the study would have involved a wider study, including pedagogical skills, content knowledge, time management and their abilities to translate such qualities into effective teaching and learning in the classroom. However, this study was delimited to variables which included the teacher self-efficacy and classroom management (instructional management practices, student classroom engagement practices, student behaviour management practice). The scope of this study covers only public basic school teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality.

Limitations

The power to generalise the results of the study may be limited since the study was conducted among only public Junior High School teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality excluding private schools. This is because there might be differences in terms of teacher qualification and teacher supervision.

Again, the data collection instrument is a self-reported instrument and as results there might be some bias on the part of the teachers in terms of providing information which is a true reflection of themselves.

Definition of Terms

Teacher self-efficacy: The belief in one's capabilities to execute specific demands or reach goals.

Classroom Management: Classroom management refers to a teacher's efforts to oversee the activities of a classroom, including learning, social interaction, and student behaviour.

Student Behaviour Management: Controlling disruptive behaviour, calming and responding to defiant students, and establishing a routine and order to keep learning activities running smoothly.

Student Classroom Engagement: A psychological process; in particular, the attention, interest, investment, and the effort that students expend in the work of learning.

Instructional Management: Those events and procedures involved in the decision to initiate a specific activity for an individual student.

Organisation of the Study

Chapter Two discussed the literature related to the study. The review involved theoretical literature, conceptual and empirical studies of the problem under study. The third chapter describes the methodology used in the study, specifically, the research design, the research instrument, the procedure for data collection and data analysis. In chapter four, the results and discussion of the study were presented. The final chapter is the conclusions and recommendations of the research findings.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter presents a review of related literature, which provides critical points of knowledge with respect to the research topic "the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their classroom management practices in Kwahu West Municipality Junior High Schools". The literature review has been written in terms of a conceptual review and empirical evidence. The conceptual review address concepts, key variables and theories which are applicable and are relevant to explain the variables in the study, while the empirical review addresses the findings of studies conducted by other researchers regarding teacher self-efficacy and classroom management.

The Concept of Self-efficacy

According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy proves to be a powerful tool in teaching and learning and motivation. Teacher self-efficacy, refers to teachers' confidence in their ability to promote students learning. The success of these teaching activities and practices depends to a great extent on teachers' self-efficacy and confidence in their professional capacity to face up to the changes involved in teaching and learning.

Self-efficacy plays a major role in how teachers select assignment and activities, shaping their efforts and perseverance when addressing certain challenges, and even in their emotional response to difficult situations. Self-

efficacy ultimately accounts for a cognitive construct that mediates between knowledge and actions.

Teacher self-efficacy; a teacher‘s belief in his or her own capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context (Bandura, 1977). Hence, teacher self-efficacy is a teacher’s perceived capabilities to teach students effectively and to provide meaningful lessons to students. Teacher self-efficacy, also known as instructional self-efficacy refers to the “personal beliefs about one’s capabilities to enable students learn” (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Self-efficacy determines how individuals feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave (Pajares, 2002). Self-efficacy is an important mediator of all types of behaviour. Self-efficacy beliefs influence selection of activities, effort, and persistence (Pintrich & Schunk 2002). People select and participate in an activity based on their belief that they are able to accomplish it. In addition, people with high self-efficacy expend more effort and persist longer than those with low self-efficacy. Research has indicated that teachers’ sense of self-efficacy has a toll on the way they teach and maintain order in the classroom (Bandura, 1977).

Teachers’ practices and attitudes towards teaching and classroom management, students’ success in learning what is being taught them and self-efficacy for learning are characteristics which vary (Ross, Hogaboam-Gray & Hannay, 2001). Differences between teachers with low or high self-efficacy lies in the way they instruct, and deal with difficult situations in teaching students.

According to Shohani, Azizifar, and Kamalvand (2014), teachers with low self-efficacy believe that there are other factors which are more influential in students’ learning than their teaching. Such teachers think that they will not

be able to teach students with low motivation. On the other hand, teachers who have high self-efficacy believe that if they endeavour to teach, they can accomplish teaching, even in the most difficult situation (Bandura, 1977). The level of self-efficacy of teachers can potentially affect both the kind of environment they create as well as the various instructional practices introduced in the classroom (Bandura, 1977). Additionally, teachers who have high levels of self-efficacy believe that even the most difficult students can be reached if they apply extra effort. However, teachers with low self-efficacy feel a sense of helplessness when they are required to deal with difficult situations such as dealing with students who do not have any motivation to learn (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Some of the most powerful influences on the development of teacher efficacy are mastery skills they gain during their induction year. Previous research has found that some aspects of efficacy increase during student teaching while other dimensions may decline (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990). Bandura's theory of self-efficacy suggests that efficacy may be most malleable early in learning, thus the first years of teaching could be critical to the long-term development of teacher efficacy.

Student teachers with a low sense of teacher efficacy tended to have an orientation toward control, taking a pessimistic view of students' motivation, relying on strict classroom regulations, extrinsic rewards, and punishments to make students study. Once engaged in student teaching, efficacy beliefs also have an impact on behaviour. Student interns with higher personal teaching efficacy were rated more positively on lesson presenting behaviour, classroom

management, and questioning behaviour by their supervising teacher on their practicum evaluation

(Saklofske, Michaluk, & Randhawa, 1988).

It could be realised that teacher self-efficacy is psychological construct which influences teachers' approach to teaching and learning, thus teachers' belief in the abilities to promote teaching and learning. Teacher self-efficacy is mostly developed at the earlier stages of teaching (Bandura, 1977). It could be seen to be a critical period to the development of the efficacy level of the teacher. If the development doesn't go well it leads to doubtfulness on the part of the teachers in promoting teaching and learning and if development of self-efficacy goes well there is the believe one can achieve successful teaching and learning (Bandura, 1977).

Development of Self-Efficacy

As stated by Bandura (1977), there are four sources of efficacy expectations; mastery experience, physiological and emotional states, vicarious experiences, and social persuasion. According to Bandura, mastery and experience are the most powerful sources of efficacy information. The thought of a performance being successful raises efficacy beliefs, contributing to the idea that performance might be proficient in future. The perception that one's performance has been a failure lowers efficacy belief, contributing to the expectation that future performances will also be inept (Sharon, 2003).

The level of arousal, either of anxiety or excitement, adds to the feeling of mastery or incompetence. Attributions also have a hand in the development of self-efficacy among teachers. If success is attributed to internal or controllable causes such as ability or effort, then self-efficacy is enhanced. But

if success is attributed to luck or intervention of others, the level of self-efficacy may be adversely affected (Bandura, 1993; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

Vicarious experience or learning refers to the kind of experiences or learning in which the skill in question is modelled by someone else. According to social persuasion may entail a "pep talk" or specific performance feedback from a supervisor or a colleague or it may involve the general chatter in the teachers' lounge or in the media about the ability of teachers to influence students. Although social persuasion alone may be limited in its power to create enduring increases in self-efficacy, persuasion can contribute to successful performances to the extent that a persuasive boost in self-efficacy leads a person to initiate the task, attempt new strategies, or try hard enough to succeed (Bandura, 1982). Social persuasion may counter occasional setbacks that might have instilled enough self-doubt to interrupt persistence. The potency of persuasion depends on the credibility, trustworthiness, and expertise of the persuader (Bandura, 1986).

The development of teacher efficacy beliefs among prospective teachers has generated a great deal of research interest because once efficacy beliefs are established, they appear to be somewhat resistant to change. Evidence has been established that course work and practical work have different impacts on personal and general teaching efficacy. According to Spector (1990), general teaching efficacy appears to increase during college coursework, and declines during student teaching. This suggests that the optimism of young teachers may be somewhat tarnished when confronted with the realities and complexities of the teaching job.

Student teaching provides an opportunity to gather information about one's personal capabilities for teaching. However, when it is experienced as a sudden, total immersion, sink-or swim approach to teaching, it is likely detrimental to building a sense of teaching competence (Woolfolk-Hoy, 2000).

Student teachers often underestimate the complexity of the teaching task and their ability to manage many agenda simultaneously. Interns may either interact too much as peers with their students or find their classes out of control or they may grow overly harsh and end up not liking their "teacher self." They become disappointed with the gap between the standards they have set for themselves and their own performance (DeJarnette & Sudeck (2015). Student teachers sometimes engage in self-protective strategies, lowering their standards to reduce the gap between the requirements of excellent teaching and their self-perceptions of teaching competence.

Development of self-efficacy among inexperienced teachers during the early years of teaching have been related to stress and commitment to teaching, as well as satisfaction with support and preparation. According to Kentyl (2017), novice teachers at the end of their first year in the teaching job who had a high sense of teacher self-efficacy found greater satisfaction in teaching, had a more positive reaction to teaching, and experienced less stress. Efficacious teachers have good preparation, and as a result encounter less difficulty, however teachers with less efficacy have poor preparation and as a result encounter great difficult when teaching (Burley, Hall, Villeme, & Brockmeier, 1991; Hall, Burley, Villeme, & B rockmeier, 1992).

Giving attention to the factors that support the development of a strong sense of efficacy among pre-service and novice teachers is worth every effort

and care. This is because, once established, the efficacy beliefs of teachers seem resistant to change. Compelling evidence suggests that input during initial training has a different impact as compared to that of input received after teachers are in the teaching field (Kentyl, 2017).

Several years after self-efficacy was discovered, there was a lot of confusion surrounding how the construct could be measured. Bandura (1977 pointed out that teachers' sense of self-efficacy is not necessarily uniform across the many different types of task teachers are required to perform, nor across different subject matter. Therefore, measuring teacher self-efficacy should be done on multiple facets. Thus, the measurement of teacher self-efficacy should not be narrowed down to only one or few aspects of the factors which constitute teacher self-efficacy.

According to Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy (1998), deciding how to measure teacher efficacy presents thorny issues. For instance, based on Rotter's social learning theory, RAND organization added two efficacy items to their questionnaire. After their studies, three instruments namely Responsibility for Student Achievement, Teacher Locus of Control, and The Webb scale were developed. These instruments were built on Rotter's theory, which define teacher efficacy as teachers' beliefs that factors under their control ultimately have greater impact on the results of teaching than factors in the environment or in the student factors beyond the influence of teachers' (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

In order to be useful and generalizable, measures of teacher efficacy need to tap teachers' assessments of their competence across the wide range of activities and tasks they are asked to perform. However, there is the danger of

developing measures that are so specific which will make them lose their predictive ability for anything beyond the specific skills or context being measured. It is in response to the issue of context specificity that Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy (2000) developed their instrument for teacher self-efficacy, the instrument which was adapted to explore self-efficacy among basic school teachers.

Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory

Social learning theory and imitation was created by Bandura on the basis of the work of Neal E. Miller and John Dollard in the early 40s in an attempt to steer away from the behaviour theory of that time and account for cognitive aspect to behaviour. (Huitt & Monetti, in press.) Individuals do not only behave the way they have been told to do so, but also respond to stimuli in a spontaneous manner, meaning that behaviour is not something necessarily acquired by reinforcement and consequently solidified, but is subject to environmental influences as well as the individual's habits and worldview.

Although Bandura and Walters contributed significantly to their field with their work "Social Learning and Personality Development", written in 1963, it was in the 1970s that Albert Bandura identified self-beliefs as the missing piece of the puzzle which represented the cognitive aspect of his theory, as explained in his work "Self-efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change".

Self-efficacy was introduced by Bandura in 1977, when he suggested that environmental influences, one's own behaviour and internal personal factors, such as cognitive, affective, and biological processes, influence our behaviour. (Tobery- Nystrom, 2011). Who one is, and how they behave is an

outcome of an interplay between the external world, the internal world and established behaviour patterns. For instance, when externally regulated, we may behave in such a way as to avoid punishment or attain a reward, while under interjected regulatory influence, when we attach our behaviour to a sense of self-esteem, we try to avoid guilt or shame with our behaviour (Darner, 2012).

Similarly, how we behave and how we modify our behaviour may depend on our beliefs on self-efficacy. As far as teachers are concerned, their faith in the ability to instruct and their own strength as individuals as well as professionals significantly affects student engagement with learning and schooling in general. Teachers could be the models that students follow by observation and imitation of actions, and those responsible for administering positive punishment or reinforcement to influence or solidify behavioural outcomes and boost their students' sense of self-efficacy.

Bandura dubbed his theory "cognitive" as opposed to "social learning" not only to distance it from prevalent social learning theories contemporary to his own, but also to underline how crucial cognition is regarding people's capability to construct reality, self-regulate, encode information, and perform behaviours (Pajares, 2002). His theory is a conceptual framework that encompasses the origins or sources of efficacy beliefs, their structure and function, the processes through which they produce diverse effects, and the possibilities for change (Brouwers & Tomic 2000). It is a theory that shows how cognitive, behavioural and environmental determinants of human behaviour interact and affect one's beliefs about capabilities to produce effects (Bandura, 1977).

Where Bandura's theory differs from other self-efficacy theories of his time is that apart from the element of personal competence, it is of contextual nature, as it is task- or situation-specific, thus requiring of the individual to exercise his judgment as well as stir his motivation and self-regulatory processes to determine a course of action and the use of resources, and attain a set goal (Pajares, 2002).

There are four primary sources of influence on self-efficacy, which also are the basis of social relations pertaining to the learning processes that result in self-efficacy (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). The first one is through mastery experiences, whereby we learn to be resilient and sustain our efforts in the face of adversity or failure. The second one, vicarious experiences provided by social models, refers to how people seek proficient and competent models to mould themselves after, which are similar to themselves and by observation of which one can enhance their own belief in their capabilities to succeed. Another source of influence is social persuasion that verbally boosts one's self-efficacy, causing the development of skills and a stronger sense of personal efficacy; in effect, it is a verbal persuasion that makes individuals believe that they can achieve their goals if they use their capabilities and free themselves from doubt. Finally, the correct perception and interpretation of physiological indicators as opposed to stress and negative or false reactions to physical states also affects one's level of perceived self-efficacy. (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Pajares, 2002).

This theory provides the framework for understanding the influences shaping teacher self-efficacy. In terms of efficacy, it explains how a person can realise tasks or goals, use strategies, or maintain the necessary motivation required to accomplish the set tasks or goals. For teachers, possessing and

maintaining the skills or perseverance necessary to accomplish tasks or goals within the classroom falls within their teaching efficacy. Bandura's concept of self-efficacy supports this research indicating a teacher' self-efficacy in classroom management improves overtime as the teacher is exposed to more experiences provided by the everyday classroom situations.

Concept of Classroom Management

According to Poole and Evertson (2013), classrooms are complex social and cultural settings with multiple events occurring simultaneously. Classroom management is a dichotomous element which can be broken down into behavioural management and instructional management (Magableh & Hawamdeh, 2007). Behavioural management and instructional management intertwine to form a healthy classroom atmosphere for students and teachers.

On the other hand, behaviours which are related to behaviour management in the classroom include: side talks, joking during lessons, changing sitting places with friends, issuing annoying voices, too many requests, using a cell phone, occupation in side matters, eating in the classroom, stubbornness, lying, theft, laughing without reason, assaulting others, pretending of sickness, noninterest of classroom cleanliness, damaging individual or classroom property and bullying other students (Codding & Smyth, 2008). According to Wong and Wong (2009), the goal for classroom management is to provide a healthy and safe environment for learning, and to equip students with the necessary skills to be successful in life, both academically and socially.

Classroom management is considered a very important factor to the effectiveness of teaching and learning. This means that teaching is a complex

endeavour which requires teachers not only be effective in delivering instruction but also maintaining order in the classroom (Rosas & West, 2009). Milner and Tenore (2010) defined classroom management as the organization of learning environment; management of students' discipline, order, and care; the grouping of students for different tasks and patterns of interaction; and the individualization of student learning. Classroom management can also be referred to as all the actions taken by the teacher to create an effective classroom atmosphere where students could be highly engaged in the teaching and learning process (Romi, Lewis, & Roache, 2013).

According to Schwandt (1994), classroom management is the sum total of activities needed to allow the main tasks of teaching and learning to take place effectively so that aims can be achieved. It can also be defined as the strategies used by the teacher to maintain students' behaviours, influence student motivation, respect and discipline either positively or negatively (DeJarnette & Sudeck, 2015).

The competence of a teacher, as well as a teacher's ability to generate and retain order in the classroom has been viewed as important (Evertson, 1985). A conducive learning environment is not easy to establish; however, research reveals that the teacher's ability to supervise and organize instruction is vital to successful classroom management, leading to students' engagement in the learning process (Brophy, 1986). If well-managed, classrooms can become a place of freedom to learn and can provide safety for students. If not distracted, students can attend to instruction and further their long-term memory for retrieving information when taking examinations, doing assignments, and studying.

A well-managed classroom environment can obviously reduce the number of low achieving students. Research has supported the importance of classroom management for effective teaching and studies, and have demonstrated that more effective teachers generally have better organized classrooms and fewer behaviour problems (Evertson, 1989). Effective classroom management has been considered as the process of establishing, maintaining, and restoring the classroom environment in an effective way for teaching and learning (Brophy, 1986). This is, in return, expected to strongly influence the academic achievement of learners (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). However, classroom management has been ranked as one of the major problems teachers encounter (Rosas and West 2009). This is because the time allocated to run a regular classroom is spent not only on learning activities, but also on non-curricular activities, organisational activities, or disciplinary activities (Kunter, Baumert & Koller, 2007). Ineffective classroom management is a strong indicator of an unsuccessful teaching and learning process (Keidel, 2014). A poor classroom management interferes with teaching and learning practices, it eventually becomes a major cause of teacher stress (Friedman, 2006), teacher burnout and job dissatisfaction and results in teachers leaving the profession.

Classroom management has become a more serious issue to teachers because of the variety of stimuli in the environment, and the reality of social change leading to diversity in interest and needs of learners, and the heterogeneity in the background of students, such as ethnicity, gender, ability, health, nationality, geographic region, social class and age have worsened the case of classroom management being a more serious concern for teachers than

it has ever been before (Milner & Tenore, 2010). Goals of education on the part of students have changed dramatically in the current era (Evertson & Neal, 2006), education and educational settings have stronger orientations towards students-centered learning environments over the past years.

As a result, teachers are required to address the needs of their students who demonstrate an increasing demographic variety. Therefore, to maximize students' development, school culture and students' characteristics must be on the same level, and teachers are expected to practice culturally responsive pedagogy. According to Ladson-Billings (1992), culturally responsive pedagogy is a term which is used to describe the kind of teaching in which student culture is used as the foundation for enabling students to understand themselves and others. This mainly implies that teachers should acknowledge the contexts, be responsive to the needs and interests of students, be responsible for the academic progress of all students, and integrate the elements of students' culture in their teaching. From a theoretical viewpoint, culturally responsive pedagogy has its foundations in social constructivism. Social constructivism has its main operational idea rooted in encouraging learner-centered education and lays emphasis on responding to different characteristics and needs of all students as reality is constructed within a context through the terms, such as language, by which people perceive the reality (Cummins, 1986; Schwandt, 1994). If students from diverse backgrounds are empowered in the classroom, it will lead to a successful participation of all students in learning, where the teacher is the mediator.

Despite the serious call for culturally responsive pedagogy, research on multicultural education has neglected the classroom management aspect of the

teacher (Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). However, classroom management practices have brought attention to the fact that the background of both the student and the teacher, as well as the setting of the school may account for what both the student and the teacher bring to the instructional process (Gay, 2002). Different contexts might vary with respect to instructional goals, subject matter, grade, age use of technology, socio-economic status of students, emotional behaviour disorders of students have strong effects for classroom management.

This is because, it is believed that bringing contextual factors into play will more likely yield in implementing equity initiatives in the classroom, promoting freedom and justice for everyone in the classroom, and making opportunities possible for all students (Gay, 2002; Weinstein, Curran, & Tomlinson- Clarke,

2003). The components within classroom management vary between experts. The most common pillars discussed by experts are engagement, discipline, procedures and routines (Burden, 1983; Greenberg, Putman, & Walsh, 2014; Saphier, HaleySpeca, & Gower, 2008; Wong & Wong, 2009). But in the view of the researcher, a more complete view of what constitutes classroom management is one which includes instructional management. A more comprehensive classroom management as argued by experts should be one which include the following; engagement on both sides (teacher and students), discipline, procedures and lastly, routines.

The literature supports the implementation of a curriculum and classroom management practice which is culturally orienteered. Taking into consideration the close connection between the context and classroom

management practices, the investigation of the way the teacher understands and implement classroom management processes requires a close look into physical, cultural, and psychological aspects of classrooms. Ghanaian education has always been centered on cognitive approaches in the curriculum and instruction. This has been challenging to teachers since the Ghanaian education system heavily depends on standardized testing (Mitchual, Donkor & Quansah, 2010). Besides, the social context of schools particularly with high prevalence of unsupportive, inadequate, and unstandardized infrastructure, strict rules, and discipline do not allow for the practice of constructivism practices which allows for a pedagogy which is highly focused on cultural factors. Therefore, it will be difficult to ask teachers to quit the behaviourism centered classroom practices and adopt the constructivist approach to classroom management practices.

In accordance with the shift in the educational approaches, it is expected of teachers to adopt a student-centered approach to classroom management (Çandar & Şahin, 2013). Schools are increasingly having diversity regarding student population, and as a result, teachers are encountering a wide range of student behaviours and are expected to respond effectively to misbehaviours (Mundschenk, Miner, & Nastally, 2011). Classroom management has been one of the most debated issues in education systems all over the world and have almost always been associated with discipline and has a lot to do with seeing the teacher as the authority of the class (Akar & Yildirm, 2009).

For instance, in Saban's (2004) study, it was seen that nearly two-thirds of the prospective elementary teachers perceived the role of teacher as the source of knowledge, one who transmits the knowledge, modifies students' behaviour and one-third of them perceived their role as a guide in the learning

process. Similarly, Akar, Tantekin-Erden, Tor, and Şahin (2010) found out that K-8 teachers had the tendency to practice traditional classroom management.

Components of Classroom Management

Classroom management has been rated as the most challenging aspect of teaching (Carr, 2013; Dunn, 2009; Hicks, 2012; Ritter & Hancock, 2007). Teachers have always been on the look for professional development in areas of classroom management to strengthen their abilities in the classroom. Interestingly, studies have revealed that most middle school teachers report lower self-efficacy for classroom management (Ryan, Kuusinen, & Bedoya-Skoog, 2015).

Collaborating and discussing behavioural encounters with peers are aspects of efficacy teachers seek to improve self-efficacy of classroom management (Ficarra & Quinn, 2014). However, teachers who are experienced tend to utilize strategies they are conversant with or have high sense of efficacy utilizing rather than employing new strategies (Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). The components of classroom management include: engagement (i.e. on the part of teachers and students), Discipline, procedures and routines, and instructional and behavioural management.

Engagement

Classroom management is the term used to describe how students are engaged with the instruction in the classroom. Engagement in the classroom is defined by the teacher's ability to promote and maintain students' engagement by teaching lessons which are interesting and include opportunities for active student participation (Greenberg, Putman, & Walsh, 2014). A lot of different

techniques or methods such as creating competition, games, and gestures, keeping students in suspense, and relating the activity to real-world experiences can be used to get students to pay attention and get them engaged in the lesson. According to Saphier, Haley-Speca, and Gower, (2008), if students are not actively engaged and participating in the lesson, they are probably not learning the academic content. When students are engaged in the learning activity, there is a less possibility of the learners being distracted and engaged in off-task or distractive behaviours (Eisenman, Edwards, & Cushman, 2015; Marshall, 2016).

It was reported by Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, (2013) that students did experience better classroom management and more individual learning support when it was associated with cognitive activation, which is the degree of cognitive challenge and activation offered to students in instruction. It is a challenge for teachers to capture students' attention, and sustain their focus throughout the lesson Saphier et al., (2008). Understanding the theory of how students learn allows the teacher to teach more effectively (Bembenutty, 2008). This means that by adopting more effective ways of teaching, the teacher is more likely to be able to maintain students' engagement and participation in the lesson for an extended span of time.

A teacher must be able to keep these challenges in mind when preparing a lesson. It will help to appeal to the students' understanding and relate the lesson directly to them. Bembenutty (2008) reported McKeachie stating that "Students will not work very hard if they believe there is no use in doing so". The academic tasks of the lesson need to be relevant to the students in a way

that enables them to relate to the instructional focus of the lesson and encourages student production of the tasks.

Within a class session, academic learning time is often decreased by transition time, either due to switching classes, or switching between tasks within a class. Codding and Smyth (2008) found that as transition time increased in three high school biology classes, instructional time spent on academic tasks was negatively affected. After feedback was given, the transition time decreased by up to 50% in two classrooms, and student engagement increased 30% over the baseline (Codding & Smyth, 2008). This information supports the idea that students are more engaged in the classroom academic tasks with proper management.

Setting time limits for students and following through by timing them causes them to increase their academic task completion rates. A study conducted by Rhymer, Skinner, Henington, D'Reaux, and Sims (1998) reported that overtly timing students increased problem completion rates when students were given a one-minute warning before time expired. Creating games to use for transition can also be used by educators as a strategy to decrease time spent on transitions. An investigative study conducted by Campbell and Skinner (2004) made use of the Timely Transition Game (TTG). As students made transitions throughout the day, the teacher used a stopwatch to time the students during off-task behaviour. The cumulative time was posted as feedback for the class to view. A quicker transition time was set for the next day as a goal for students. After TTG was implemented, "weekly transition times were reduced by approximately two hours" (Yarbrough, Skinner, & Lee, 2004).

Several educators initiate class by using 3-10 minutes for warm-up, reviewing a question from the previous day or a question that mimics a standardized test question. Marshall (2016) argued that the point of the warm-up activity was to get the students thinking, exploring, and talking from the beginning of the class. The question could be one which could be used to spark the students' sense of curiosity. It is suggested for teachers or educators to engage learners in something that was substantive and important to them or provide highlights of the coming days or weeks to reengage the students after a weekend or break (Marshall, 2016).

Procedures and routines

Procedures and routines in the classroom are vital elements of classroom management. Good procedures and routines offer security to students and guidance on the how-tos in the class (Wong & Wong, 2009). A classroom procedure may eventually become a classroom routine. Saphier et al. (2008) defined routine as any recurring event or situation for which there could conceivably be a regular procedure. Routines apply to a variety of procedures in the classroom, such as how the students are expected to enter and exit the classroom, submit assignments, ask questions, or work in groups. Procedures and routines are closely related.

Wong and Wong (2009) defined a procedure as "what the teacher wants done" and a routine as "what the students do automatically". Powell (2009) reported that in terms of procedures, specificity is crucial, because "if you don't know what you want and teach for it, you'll never get it". It is important the routines be explained to the students beginning the first day of school and are practiced (Marshall, 2016; Wong & Wong, 2009). Modelling the expectations

and giving performance feedback about student practice on the routine and procedures allows the students to have a vivid understanding of what is expected by the teacher (Powell, 2009). Students are made aware of the procedures and routines from the beginning of the school year and can be corrected in the first few weeks in case of violations.

According to Greenberg et al., (2014), purposeful routines decrease the likelihood of interruptions and misbehaviours, because the students can anticipate the process. When expectations of the routines are clearly communicated to the students, they are enabled to move efficiently when changing activities (Watson & Dicarlo, 2016). It is important for the procedures and routines to be communicated clearly and serve a purpose to decrease confusion or problems in the classroom (Powell, 2009; Saphier et al., 2008; Wong & Wong, 2009). Effective teachers have a well-monitored system of rules and procedures to deter inappropriate or off-task behaviour (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2014).

Vincent (1999) reported that teachers who continuously monitor and redirect incidents appropriately in a timely manner are effective teachers. When redirecting off-task behaviour, the teacher does not need to call attention to the behaviour so that it causes a break in instruction, just simply using proximity is often enough to redirect the student (Cain & Laird, 2011). According to Marshall (2016), procedures and routines doses not only improve classroom management and decrease off-task behaviour, but it also students become better when they have procedures and routines to guide them.

A meta-analysis involving 636 students completed by Marzano, Mozano & Pickering (2003) spanning roughly from 1965-2000 reported that, the

implementation of routines decreased disruptions by about 28%. With the decrease in disruptions and distractions throughout a lesson, more time can be spent on academic instruction and keeping students engaged.

Self-Efficacy

According to de Jong et al., (2014), self-efficacy is defined as predicting what effort will be put into activity. Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as the beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute a course of action required to produce a given attainment. The talents and self-efficacy of the teacher are the two most important factors a teacher need in order to create a conducive environment to develop the cognitive skills of his or her students (Bandura, 1997). When an individual fails to successfully complete a task or accomplish a goal, the sense of personal efficacy is undermined (Bandura, 1994). According to Nejati, Hassani and Sahrapour (2014), teachers' performance affects their self-efficacy and selfefficacy in turn influence teachers' performance. DeJarnette and Sudeck (2015) found that educators who had positive experiences in their teacher preparation courses had positive efficacy for instruction, and those who had positive informal experiences with students also had positive efficacy regarding student interaction and engagement. Research has shown that teachers who have positive classroom management experiences and student interaction tend to have greater self-efficacy in their teaching (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

One may come to expect quick results and become easily discouraged by failure if only easy successes are experienced. For an individual's sense of efficacy to become more resilient, overcoming obstacles through perseverance must be experienced. There is a quick rebound from setbacks and adversity

when self-efficacy is firmly established. Self-efficacious individuals are characterized by perseverance through adversity (Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2000).

According to Lewis (2014) meeting students' social-emotional needs and building the self-efficacy of the students starts with the positive classroom management strategies used by educators. However, a challenge for school leaders has been to develop or determine strategies they can use successfully to cultivate self-efficacy of their teachers, because doing so will affect students' learning (Hardin, 2010). Another way to strengthen self-efficacy is by providing social model experiences (Bandura, 1994). When people are uncertain of their own capabilities or have limited experience, they become more aware of their shortcomings by observing others (Matoti, Junqueira, & Odora, 2013). The key is for the observer to perceive similarities of oneself to the model. Greater successes and failures of self-efficacy are linked to the perceived similarity a person has to the model they experienced. If a person views the model as different from themselves, then their behaviour and results are not much influenced (Bandura, 1994).

Bandura (1994) also mentioned social persuasion as an alternate way of strengthening one's beliefs that they have what it takes to be successful. Through this method, one is essentially verbally persuaded that one possesses the necessary abilities to master given activities. Effective persuaders must cultivate people's beliefs in their capabilities while at the same time ensuring that the perceived success is attainable (Matoti et al., 2013). When faced with obstacles, the verbal persuasions boost self-efficacy, leading one to try hard enough to succeed. Self-doubts are overcome by the verbal persuasion.

Discipline

Logan (2003) defined classroom discipline as the adjustment of unacceptable behaviours to acceptable behaviour according to our individual standards and measures. Instructional time lost to behaviour management within the classroom can lead to lower academic engagement and achievement (DeJarnette & Sudeck, 2015). It is important to understand that all misbehaviour in the classroom has an antecedent or cause. The student may have had a difficult morning before arriving at school or may be provoked by a peer. The misbehaviour may stem from the teachers' poor general management, inappropriate work, boring instruction, unclear expectations, internal or external physical causes (Lennon, 2009; Saphier et al., 2008). Many teachers have not been properly trained to recognize the early signs of a student's misbehaviour beginning to escalate until crisis strikes (Pace et al., 2014). It is important that the expectations of classroom behavior are taught consistently and reinforced by the teacher using verbal and nonverbal cues (Stronge et al., 2004).

An analysis conducted by Mitchell and Bradshaw (2013) consisting of approximately 1900 elementary students compared the use of exclusionary discipline strategies to classroom based positive support. The researchers found that exclusionary discipline strategies were connected to lower order and discipline scores. In comparison, a greater use of classroom-based positive behaviour was connected to higher order and discipline scores, fairness, and student teacher relationship. This information suggested that promoting positive behaviour support strategies during pre-service teacher training and

professional development training could reduce the use of exclusionary discipline strategies to improve the conditions for learning.

Boynton and Boynton (2005) believe there are four components that are crucial for establishing an effective classroom discipline system. The four components are positive teacher student relations, clearly defined parameters of acceptable student behaviours, monitoring skills, and consequences. With each of the four components in place, teachers should have successful classroom discipline. Positive student and teacher behaviours and educational improvements are associated with high teacher self-efficacy (Chan, 2008).

According to Wong and Wong (2009), every classroom management plan must have a form of discipline that enforces occurrences of undesirable behaviour, but the overall goal for classroom management is not disciplining individuals. This is the case in Ghana where teachers are particularly interested in disciplining students than passing on the academic and social skills that they are obliged to give to their students.

The Concept of Instructional Management

Instructional management refers to those events and procedures involved in the decision to initiate a specific activity for an individual student (Tosti & Harmon 1973). According to Ball and Tosti (1969), the logic of the instructional management activity has three functions that must be performed. These include: Assessment: samples of students or individual behaviours or environmental conditions are observed, measured and summarized.

Decision: the data are evaluated with regards to some criteria set for various purposes which was because of the selection or assignment of some specific presentation.

Initiation: assigned actions are commenced or terminated.

According to Codding & Smyth, (2008), the behaviours which are related to management of learning situations, or instructional management include: interruption of teacher, non-interest of teaching material, collective answers, not participating, cheating, slowness in completing work, reading another subject during the lesson, preparing the assignments during the lesson, and not completing the assignments.

The three elements that make up instructional management; assessment, assignment decision, and initiation of a new activity can differ depending on the purpose of management. Tosti and Harmon (1973) distinguished seven (7) different forms of instructional management and related them to the activities integral to an instructional system. These management forms may be given different meanings but all must be accounted for in an instructional system and of course in the design of such an instructional system. The seven forms of instructional management are viewed as lines that connect the instructional systems activities.

The purpose of each of the seven (7) forms of instructional as identified by Tosti and Harmon (1973).

1. Aspiration Management	Purpose is to select objectives that will best meet a given student's aspirations, aptitude, or interests.
2. Prescription management	Purpose is to ensure that a given student receives the materials that will allow him to meet his objectives most efficiently.
3. Achievement management	Purpose is to ensure that the student has mastered the specified objectives.

4. Motivation management	Purpose is to ensure alert and continual student interaction with the educational stimuli to increase individual learning rates and performance levels.
5. Enrichment management	Purpose is to provide for access to additional information relevant to the objectives, but not necessary for their attainment.
6. Maintenance management	Purpose is to ensure long-term maintenance of the student continuity ability to perform at a specified criterion level.
7. Support management	Purpose is to ensure that data are collected as necessary to keep instructional system operating effectively and to provide individuals outside the system with information they require to evaluate and revise the existing instructional system.

According to Tosti and Harmon (1973) each of these instructional management practices have implications for both the instructional design specialists and supervisors of existing systems.

Effect of Classroom Management

Classroom management has been increasingly noted to be very important over the past few decades, with the main reason being the fact that if there is no good classroom management, effective teaching and learning cannot take place (Marzano, Marzano & Pickering, 2003).

Increased accountability and high stakes testing require students to meet a desired level of academic success, and without a properly managed classroom, this task is near impossible. If one cannot manage a classroom, one cannot be sure that the students are learning the material. Poor classroom management may also lead to increased levels of school violence and bullying (Allen, 2010). A lot of different authors have also argued that poor classroom management leads to increased teacher stress levels, increased probability of burnout, and higher levels of teacher wear and tear (Jepson & Forrest, 2006; Hamann, 1985; 1986; O'Hair, 1995, Clunies-Ross, Little, & Keinhuis, 2008; Lewis, Romi, Qui, & Katz, 2005).

Factors Affecting Classroom Management

Classroom management requires the development and honing of skills and strategies to produce a safe and orderly learning environment. Classroom management varies with every teacher, every classroom, and every situation and is arguably the most complex aspect of teaching (Wong & Wong, 2009). According to Wong & Wong, (2009), classroom management is highly

dependent upon planning, establishing, and maintaining routines and procedures, and enforcing rules with consequences. One of the factors which influences classroom management the most is experience. Surveys suggest that teachers with more years of experience perceive fewer problems regarding classroom management. This implies that teachers learn to manage classroom over time, but these surveys could also be evidence that teachers who did not learn to manage classroom properly left the profession (Baker, 2005). Apart from experience, there are several other factors that influence the classroom management abilities of new teachers, including teacher preparation programs, certification methods, school policies, and organizational culture.

Teacher Education Programs

Effectiveness of a teacher is judged by the teacher's ability to manage a classroom rather than on their academic knowledge and ability (Taylor & Dale, 1971; Veenman, 1984). According to the literature, classroom management and discipline are very important to principals. In a survey of 600 principals, 85% agree that classroom management is the most severe and threatening problem that new teachers face, and the primary adversary to becoming a successful teacher (Principal Perspectives, 2004). Among the principals who were interviewed, 63% believe that teacher education programs should "put a greater emphasis on teaching practical knowledge of classroom conditions, including classroom management skills and discipline strategies" (Principal Perspectives, 2004).

A study by Taylor and Dale (1971) noted that 73% of principals in secondary schools reported that classroom management was a major problem for new teachers. Merrett and Wheldall (1993) discovered that 72% of

secondary school teachers were dissatisfied with initial professional training and teaching experience concerning classroom management. Among the respondents who were involved in the study, 86% felt that they had to learn classroom management skills 'on the job' (Merett & Wheldall, 1993). A survey of Colorado teachers also noted that new teachers were unsatisfied with their classroom management preparation and felt inadequate in classroom management (Silvestri, 2001).

Supervisors of new teachers verified that over 90% of the teachers met all districts standards other than in classroom management (Silvestri, 2001). Research also shows that most students feel that their college courses are not applicable in the real classroom (Merrett & Wheldall, 1993). Classroom life is highly unpredictable. Experiences of teachers in the classroom during the early stages of their teaching career are often not clearly depicted by university or college coursework, neither is it depicted by the classroom practicum experience provided in teacher education programs. According to Kagan (1992), most new teachers felt unprepared for the experiences they went through in the classroom; they however felt that their university coursework was somehow disconnected from the classroom management issues they faced during their first teaching experiences (Kagan, 1992; Merrett & Wheldall, 1993).

Behaviour in older children is particularly unpredictable. It must however be noted that despite the huge attention given to classroom management during teacher education programs, situations in the real classroom may be different. Classroom management is an ever-changing discipline that is

to be practiced, and is not necessarily a single fact or set of facts that can be acquired through book knowledge.

Let us consider developing classroom management skills as learning how to ride a bike. For instance, an individual can vividly explain how to ride a bike, but cannot learn how to ride the bike all by himself or herself. In other words, there is a difference between 'knowing' and 'doing'. Unfortunately, many of the teacher education programs allow their teachers to 'get on the bike' of classroom management 'without a helmet and knee and elbow pads' (experience and strategies) to protect the teacher from injury. These prospective teachers often do not have support personnel, teacher education programs, mentor teacher or principal running along them to ensure their success. These teachers often stumble upon obstacles and never get the chance to learn how to 'ride a bike' again, thus, they never get the opportunity to equip themselves with the required classroom management skills.

There is a general agreement among new teachers that there is a great division between theory and practice in classroom management (Stoughton, 2007). Most novice teachers complain about the issue of lack of practically useful knowledge on classroom management (Sadler, 2006; Veenman, 1984). Before teachers begin the teaching profession, they often have a false sense of security regarding their ability to perform and preconceived beliefs regarding classroom life and student behaviour; they often have a 'save the world' mentality (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Veenman, 1984).

During the first few months of teaching, the 'save the world' mentality is often replaced with survival skills. During this time, theory, or what was taught in the teacher education programs, is often replaced with 'old-hat'

remedies and techniques to control behaviour (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Veenman, 1984). Because the theory has not been practiced and engrained into beginning teachers through experience, progressive methods often taught by teacher education programs are easily replaced with more traditional, authoritarian methods of classroom management (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Veenman, 1984; Veenman, 1987). Thus, the failure to practice theory leads to a practice devoid of theory.

It is however prudent to note that regardless of the level of education a teacher has had, if classroom management is not taught and practiced alongside other strategies and procedures for managing the classroom, teachers may question good teaching methods because of students' behaviour and revert to more traditional methods. Consequently, it is imperative to tightly integrate classroom management into all course work. This is because of the effect it has on classroom environment and the mental and physical well-being of the teacher and students. It should not be forgotten that the classroom is the cornerstone of quality education.

Teacher certification method

Over the past few years, improving teacher quality has led to huge debates on methods of teacher certification. States are responsible for their own systems, there is no single prescribed way of gaining certification. Certification methods could be another factor influencing classroom management abilities (Laczko-Kerr, 2002; Laczko & Berliner, 2001). There are many ways of attaining teacher certification including traditional, alternative, emergency and out of field methods of certification. Because of teacher shortages, many teachers are hired on an emergency certificate, which allows them to teach while

they are going back to school to get certified. This puts teachers in classroom without formal classroom management (or academic) training, which can lead to further stress for the teacher.

Teachers who go through alternative certification usually have a Bachelor's degree in a subject area, and are usually given a less dense version of the traditional certification classes. Due to budgeting issues, teachers are forced to sometimes teach out of field. This can also affect classroom management practices. If teachers feel that they are less prepared in terms of pedagogy and course content, it can also lead to behavioural problems among students in the classroom.

Literature on the 'best' certification method (as in the most beneficial to teachers) has shown mixed results. Studies by Laczko-Kerr, (2002), and Laczko & Berliner (2001) have shown that traditional certification produces more highquality teachers than emergency certified teachers and alternatively certified teachers. Results from a meta-analysis of 24 studies that examined the issue of teacher quality concluded that traditional certification was effective as alternate route training, and generally more effective than emergency certification (Qu & Becker, 2003).

Research also implies that certification methods may influence the way teachers conduct and manage their classroom. A study conducted to determine if teacher certification methods or years of experience (or the combination of these two elements) affect teacher ideals and practices regarding classroom management. The results indicated that neither years of experience or certification method alone influenced classroom management beliefs, but the combination of these factors did produce change in ideals of practice (Ritter &

Hancock, 2007). Teachers that were traditionally certified and had several years of experience were more likely to have progressive views regarding classroom management and allow children to be part of the decision processes in the classroom (Ritter & Hancock, 2007).

Inconsistencies have been noted in teacher education program curriculum and routes to certification, it is difficult to get an accurate picture of which method works the most. Universities and education policy makers need to collaborate and focus on needs of new teachers across the country. It is true that content knowledge (theoretical knowledge) is good, but this will not help a teacher who struggles with issues like classroom management which is more practical.

The Ripple Effect Theory (Jacob Kounin)

Jacob Kounin was an educational psychologist and a classroom management theorist. He was popular for his work on classroom management in the 1970s. Prior to the Kounin's work, most educational researchers viewed discipline and instruction as two very different variables of education which were not related in any way (Evertson, 2001).

Kounin's work integrated the concepts of discipline and instruction and postulated that the two entities were not separate, but in fact very much interrelated and dependent upon one another (1997). Kounin became aware of several important teacher behaviours that dramatically impact the occurrence of misbehaviour in students. One of the most important was the evidence of teacher planning and organization (Kounin, 1977). After years of research, Kounin used five terms to denote actions of teachers that made a vast difference

in preventing student behaviour. These includes with-it-ness, overlapping, momentum, group alerting, and smoothness.

With-it-ness

Refers teacher's ability to know what is always going on in the classroom. The teacher is responsible for inhibiting poor behaviour. The teacher can always maintain his strategy by making eye contact to all students. The teacher must know all each student on a personal basis (the teacher must know each student's strength weaknesses, name, and interests). The teacher must be able to communicate to all students the expectations and should have these displayed so that everyone can be "with it".

Overlapping

According to Kounin (1977), overlapping refers to a teachers' ability to multi-task. The teacher can have procedures that will allow the teacher to be effective when two situations occur at the same time. For instance, if a student finishes an assessment or an assignment early, the teacher must be able to find something else for the student to do, asking the student to move to the next assignment, reading a book, or quiet enrichment exercise. While the students who finished early are staying busy, the teacher can move around the classroom to answer questions or assist struggling students.

Momentum

According to Kounin (1977), momentum in the ripple effect theory refers to a teacher's ability to keep the lesson going smoothly. The teacher should make lesson short to allow students to group together and move around to gain more knowledge of the content. The teacher should make sure that these exercises remain short so students do not get bored.

Group Alerting

Group alerting refers to a teacher's ability to keep all students engaged and actively involved in the activities going on in the classroom. According to Kounin (1977), the teacher can implement this strategy with several techniques. Encourage accountability; the teacher should make sure that students are aware that they will be graded for their participation and contributions to the group.

Smoothness

This refers to a teacher's ability to transition from one activity to another (Kounin, 1977). The teacher can have students make hand gestures that will tell the teacher whether a student has a comment or question concerning the lesson. This technique allows the teacher to have an idea about those students who may cause an unwanted tangent and those who may have a good question, pertaining to utilise the time effectively.

In preventing student misbehaviour, Kounin (1977) discovered the ripple effect theory. The theory states that how a teacher handles one student's behaviour influences the present and future behaviour of other students. The ripple effect can be positive or negative in terms of student behaviour (Kounin, 1977).

Kounin's contributions to the field of education have had a tremendous impact on the field of education, especially in classroom management. This theory is important to this study because it notes that instruction and discipline are interrelated and cannot be separated from one another. It also contributes to the ideology regarding the importance of planning and organization in the classroom, and putting up disciplinary measures for satisfactory teaching and learning to take place.

Self-Efficacy and Classroom Management

The integration of theories of self-efficacy and classroom management is relatively new in educational research. Although researchers have tried to dance around the kind of effect the two concepts have on each other since the beginning of Bandura's work on self-efficacy, only few researchers have recently tried to comingle the two ideas or concepts and possibly even students' behaviour (Narvaez, Vaydich, Turner, & Khmelkov, 2008; Newman-Carlson & Horne, 2004). This aspect of this research study discusses the results of a few studies that dealt directly with the areas of classroom management and self-efficacy.

A study conducted by Mcneely and Mertz (1990) tracked the behaviours of 11 secondary school student teachers in numerous content fields. At the beginning of the semester, student teachers experienced a high sense of self-efficacy, were detailed planners, and used a variety of activities on each lesson. At the end of the student teaching experience, these teachers saw their students as their opponents, were focused on controlling student behaviour, and taught lessons that allowed the teacher to be the sole controller of the teaching and learning process. This implies that high self-efficacy encourages productive habits and activities in teachers, however, if teachers lack classroom management skills, a classroom full of efficacy can be changed to a classroom where the teacher is a dictator, as has been demonstrated by the findings of the study by Mcneely and Mertz.

A study by Baker (2005) revealed that there is a relationship between self-efficacy and the willingness of teachers to manage and challenge students.

According to the study, the level of teachers' self-efficacy with regards to situations where they must deal with behaviour problems presented by students who have emotional or behavioural disorders, has been noted to be lower than when they are dealing with students who do not have emotional and behavioural problems. This information is of so much importance because self-efficacy has a direct relationship with teacher behaviour in the classroom (Guskey, 1988; Milner, 2002), and the number of students with emotional and behavioural disorders in the mainstream classroom is on the rise (Albrecht, Johns, Mounsteven, & Olorunda, 2009).

This means that teachers need to be prepared to manage unwanted student behaviours in the classroom, this in turn proposes the need for increased attention on teacher self-efficacy in classroom management.

Gordon (2001) conducted a study that compared the cognitive, affective, and behavioral factors associated with classroom management of 96 highly efficacious teachers and 93 low efficacy teachers. The study found that teacher self-efficacy is a good predictor of general effectiveness in classroom management. Gordon's accusation that high teacher efficacy is directly related to managerial excellence is noted through the following findings of her study: High efficacy teachers are less likely to perceive their difficult students as having chronic behaviour problems, are more likely to expect behaviour improvement, are less likely to feel angry, embarrassed or guilty about student misbehaviour, are more likely to like problem students, and are more likely to feel confident about being able to manage student misbehaviour.

> In addition, high efficacy teachers tend to possess stronger humanistic pupil control ideology and tend to utilize fewer negative consequences and severe punishments.
>
> High efficacy teachers also have fewer problem students in their classes, are more likely to have been mentor or supervising teachers, are less stressed, have better relationships with their principals, experience greater job satisfaction, and are more likely to report that the students in their classes are above average academically.
>
> In contrast, teachers who have low efficacy are more likely to perceive their difficult students as having behavioural problems, are less likely to expect improvement in students' misbehaviour, such teachers are also more likely to feel angry, embarrassed, and guilty about students' misbehaviour. Teachers who have less efficacy tend to possess less humanistic (more custodial) pupil control ideologies and are more likely to use negative consequences and severe punishments. Low efficacy teachers have more problem students in their classroom
>
> (Gordon, 2001).

As shown above, self-efficacy is directly linked to teacher behaviour and attitude towards students that are prone to misbehave. Self-efficacy is also directly linked to overall teacher effectiveness (Allinder, 1994; Ashton, 1984; Fuchs et al., 1992; Guskey 1988; Milner, 2002; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). According to Henson (2003), self-efficacy is crucial to accomplish the goals of

the teacher education programs and in the creation of a shift in educational practice regarding classroom management in every country. This could mean that the induction and development of self-efficacy in teacher education programmes along with more practical classroom management courses may lead to better classroom managers. This could have a dramatic effect on new teachers and their struggles with classroom management (Hicks, 2012).

Teacher Self-Efficacy and Students Behaviour Management

Teacher self-efficacy has almost always been found to relate to positive student and teacher behaviours in the classroom and affects educational systems in a more positive way (Ross, 1994; Soodak & Podell, 1993). Teachers who have high levels of self-efficacy are known for their high levels of planning, organization and passion for teaching. In the words of Shaukat and Iqbal (2012), 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' classroom behaviour. Classroom management and student engagement go hand in hand. Thus, if students are engaged, classrooms are more discipline leading to a decrease in disruptions Shaukat, Abdullah, & Rashid, 2011).

Study by Shaukat and Iqbal (2012) studied teacher self-efficacy as a function of students' engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. The results indicated significant differences between efficacy beliefs of male and female, B.Ed. and M.Ed., permanent and temporary, elementary and secondary, younger and older teachers with regards to classroom management. A study by Ford (2012) found a significant difference in the dimensions that supported the common notion that self-efficacy influence students' motivation. According to the study, such factors as the number of days

that a teacher missed in a given school year and the teacher's grade level were found to be significant factors that determine a teacher's efficacy level and how that level influenced the way a teacher will motivate his/her students' punctuality and attentiveness in class.

Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh, and Khalaileh, (2011), conducted a study on teacher self-efficacy and classroom management styles in Jordanian schools. The findings of the study showed that there was a statistically significant moderately positive correlation between general self-efficacy and instructional management (r=0.423; with a p-value 0.000). Then again, the study found a statistically significant moderately positive correlation between general self-efficacy and behaviour management (r=0.360, with a p-value of 0.000). Self-efficacy and people management correlated moderately positive (r=0.350; with a p-value of 0.000). Finally, self-efficacy and classroom management correlated moderately positive (r=0.472; with a p-value of 0.000).

Pappa (2014) studied the impact of academic and teaching self-efficacy on students' engagement and academic outcomes. The study found out that teachers perceived instructional efficacy does not significantly impact engagement in the course. Recent literature also shows that perception of instructor's teaching selfefficacy can influence how students engage in the course.

Gender and Teacher Self-Efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy which has been described as an important construct has a great effect on teachers' motivation and accomplishments (Amankwah, Sam, & Konin, 2015). Teachers with low self-efficacy tend to have low self-esteem and harbour pessimistic thoughts about their abilities to

complete task. Bandura (1995 argued that teachers who perceive task as difficult will be slow to embrace the task. This implies that the self-efficacy of an educator could have a great impact on how successful he or she will be in implementing instructional strategies, managing classroom and engaging students (Amankwah et al., 2015).

Findings on the effect of gender on teachers' self-efficacy are conflicting. Some research studies report an association between teachers' sense of self-efficacy and gender. These studies include (Gurbuzturk & Sad, 2009; Hamurcu, 2006; Tabak, Akyildiz & Yildiz, 2003), however, other studies have also reported that gender have no impact on teacher self-efficacy (Chacon, 2005; Cubukcu, 2008; Karimvand, 2011; Mitchual, Donkor & Quansah, 2010).

Mitchual, Donkor & Quansah, (2010), conducted a quantitative study in Ghana on the effect of gender on self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers. The findings revealed that the overall self-efficacy levels of teacher interns do not differ significantly according to gender. Karimvand (2011) investigated the effects of teachers' gender and their interaction on Iranian English Foreign Language Teachers' sense of self-efficacy. After performing a linear regression analysis, it was found out that gender had no significant effect on the participants' efficacy. Chacon (2005) reported no relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and gender in a study that examined perceived efficacy among English foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. Similarly, Cubukcu (2008) investigated correlation between self-efficacy and foreign language who found teachers' self-efficacy beliefs do not differ significantly in terms of gender.

On the other hand, a study by Klassen and Chiu (2010) reported that female teachers have lower self-efficacy in classroom management but not in instructional strategies and student engagement. Similarly, a study conducted by Tabak, Akyildiz, and Yildiz, (2003) reported higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs among female teachers than their male colleagues. Gurbuzturk and Sad (2009) found out that the self-efficacy levels of male and female participants in their study differed significantly. Female participants were found to have slightly higher selfefficacy scores than those of male participants. Also, Hamurcu (2006) found a significant difference in favour of female teachers in a study assessing candidate class teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching science.

Nejati, Hassani and Sahrapour (2014) examined the relationship between gender and subscales of self-efficacy of Iranian English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers. The study which sampled 34 EFL drawn from private English language institutes in Karaj were asked to respond to Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale. After data analysis, it was revealed that male and female teachers did not differ as far as classroom management was concerned. However, they differed in terms of student engagement and instructional strategies; male teachers were better at student engagement while female teachers were better at instructional strategies.

Shaukat and Iqbal (2012) examined teacher self-efficacy as a function of student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. The study was specifically conducted to determine teachers' efficacies in student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies, with respect to gender. A total of 108 male and 80 female teachers were conveniently

selected from four public schools in Lahore, Pakistan. Results showed no significant difference between male and female teachers on student engagement and instructional strategies but male teachers were likely to be significantly better in classroom management than female teachers. The study therefore concluded that male teachers are more likely to manage their classroom better than female teachers. Similarly, Shaukat, Abiodullah and Rashid (2011) in a study observed that male teachers usually maintain sticker discipline in the classroom and control disruptive behaviours of students than what female teachers do.

Safo et al. (2015) conducted series of independent sample t-test on the differences in the levels of male and female teachers' self-efficacy in areas of instructional management, classroom management, and student engagement. The independent sample t-test results indicated no significant gender differences in self-efficacy among male and female teachers. Based on descriptive statistics, female teachers were found to have relatively higher (mean =33.48; SD= 6.16) self-efficacy than their male colleagues. For the subscales, independent sample t-test statistics revealed a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers about their instructional management efficacy ($t = – 2.374$, $p = .018$). The descriptive statistics indicate that on the average, female teachers have better instructional management efficacy ($X = 31.32$; $SD = 5.61$) than male teachers ($X = 29.70$; $SD = 5.86$).

On the other hand, both male and female teachers did not differ in terms of classroom management and student engagement efficacies. However, based on the descriptive statistic scores, female teachers have a higher classroom management efficacy ($X = 35.77$; $SD = 6.92$) than male teachers ($X = 31.87$;

SD = 5.84) whereas male teachers have better student engagement efficacy (X = 36.75; SD = 6.46) than their female colleagues (X = 33.34; SD = 5.94).

Based on the literature, it is unclear, the findings on the influence of gender and teacher self-efficacy. Some studies indicated a relationship between the two variables, thus gender and teacher self-efficacy (Chacon, 2005; Cubukcu, 2008; Karimvand, 2011; Mitchual et al., 2010). An equally good number of studies have also documented a relationship (Gurbuzturk & Sad, 2009; Hamurcu, 2006; Tabak et al., 2003). But however, these studies which found the relationship between gender and teacher self-efficacy were inconclusive. Some of the studies revealed stated that male teachers have stronger self-efficacy than female teachers. According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy works in the form of a facilitator between individual teacher's knowledge of his or her skills and the kind of actions he or she will put up in future. When self-efficacious teachers are compared to their non-efficacious counterparts, efficacious individuals are likely to avoid challenging activities that might exceed their abilities.

Self-Efficacy and Instructional Management

Safo et al. (2015) conducted a study on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: the relationship between gender and instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement. The study which was made up of 437 participants recorded the following results mean and standard deviation scores of the three subscales of self-efficacy. The teachers' scored the highest on the student engagement aspect (X = 35.05; SD = 6.20), followed by the classroom management aspect (X = 33.82; SD = 6.38) and lowest been instructional strategies aspect (X = 30.51; SD = 5.71). This means that teachers' efficacy for

student engagement is higher than efficacy for classroom management and instructional strategies. Overall, teachers indicated relatively higher self-efficacy (X = 33.13; SD = 6.11).

Huber, Fruth, Avila-John and Lopez-Ramirez (2016) conducted a study on teacher self-efficacy and student outcome and recorded a pre-test scores instructional management (mean =54.7; SD = 7.2) and a post-test scores instructional management (mean = 55.4; SD =17.4). Bruce, Esmonde, Ross, Dookie, and Beatty (2010) in their study teacher self-efficacy and related achievements concluded that research in a field of teacher efficacy beliefs has provided key information which shows that high self-efficacy teachers are more likely to persevere in their attempts to reach learning goals when they encounter obstacles, are more prone to experiencing with effective instructional strategies that represent a challenge and are more willing to run risks in their classrooms.

Various researches suggest a significant correlation between teacher self-efficacy and increased students' achievement, by influencing teachers' instructional practices, enthusiasm, commitment, and teaching behaviour (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Tournaki & Podell .2005; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007).

Teacher Self-Efficacy and Student Engagement

Students' engagement has been brought to the limelight cast by educational researchers. When anyone talks about student engagement with school, it means committing, valuing, and connecting with people, educational goals and learning outcomes desired by school (Appleton & Lawrenz, 2011). For instance, students' engagement may include participation in activities incorporated into the school program. In other words, it can be described as a

subtle cognitive, behavioural and affective indicator set in specific learning tasks (Chapman, 2003).

Skinner and Belmont (1993) explain that students' engagement with school is the degree and quality of emotional and behavioural involvement in learning activities, which are evident in a positive and active attitude towards learning opportunities that are invested with concentration, initiative-taking and personal challenge on the part of the children (Chapman, 2003). In an educational system where the engagement or involvement of the student is considered an important factor to the success of education, the teacher is no longer the sole regulator of students' progress with regards to learning. According to Pappa (2014), the educational process must be initiated by the student, according to what he or she needs and what can be learned.

According to Appleton and Lawrenz (2011), it is hard to agree upon and determine the exact set of dimensions that may be attributed to the construct of students' school engagement because of the complex interaction of diverse factors. However, before they added the subtype of academic engagement in 2006, there were initially three detected and accepted subtypes, namely behavioural, emotional or affective and cognitive engagement. Concentration, persistence, and attention can be considered as variables affecting behavioural engagement (Sciarra & Seirup, 2008).

Affective engagement concerns variables such as assurance, comfort, and pride in one's institution. Among other variables, cognitive engagement pertains to levels of effective study and homework realization as well as the significance of investing in one's own academic progress. Regarding academic engagement, it manifests in the effort exerted on academic tasks and the

completion of the credits necessary for graduation. (Appleton & Lawrenz, 2011).

The affective aspect of student engagement is elemental in understanding the concept of student engagement. 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. In other words, affective engagement does not only include 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.

A study conducted by Dibapile (2011) on efficacy and classroom management among Botswana Junior Secondary School teachers and recorded the following results; Instructional Strategies and Student Engagement, r = .412; Student Engagement and Classroom Management, r = .589; and Instructional Strategies and Classroom Management, r = .589. The correlations are consistent with those that Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy, (2001) obtained. Efficacy in Student Engagement showed significant results, and teachers with postgraduate qualifications rated themselves higher than their colleagues in engaging students in learning. For teacher practices, results showed no significant relationship between the positive and negative practices reported by the teachers regarding classroom management, student engagement, and instructional strategies. Another study conducted by Cobanoglu (2011) on teacher self-efficacy and teaching beliefs as predictors of curriculum implementation in early childhood education revealed implementation of

learning process and teachers' years of experience was found along with teacher self-efficacy as significant predictors of student engagement.

Huber, Fruth, Avila-John and Lopez-Ramirez (2016) conducted a study on teacher self-efficacy and student outcome and recorded a pre-test scores on student engagement (mean =52.7; SD = 7.0) and a post-test scores on student engagement (mean = 58.5; SD = 803). Persinski (2015) conducted a study on the impact of teacher self-efficacy and student engagement on eleventh-grade South Carlina U.S. History and Constitution End of Course State exam scores. The aim of the study was to analyse the relationship between the variables of teacher efficacy, student engagement, and student achievement. The study recorded no significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' classroom engagement.

Summary of Review of Literature

The review of literature under theoretical framework considered Albert Bandura Self-Efficacy Theory and Jacob Kounin Ripple Effect Theory. On the other hand, review of literature on self-efficacy included the concept of self-efficacy and development of self-efficacy. The literature on classroom management highlighted on instructional management practices, student behaviour management practices and student engagement practices. Further, literature on classroom management was on factors that affect classroom management and effects of classroom management.

Finally, empirical studies were carried out under four headings: teachers' self-efficacy and student behaviour management, teachers' self-efficacy and instructional management, teachers' self-efficacy and student

engagement practices and the gender differences in the efficacy levels of teachers.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Overview

The study was designed to examine teacher's self-efficacy and classroom management practices among junior high schools in the Kwahu West Municipality. This chapter considers the following headings; research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedure.

Research Design

For the purpose of this study the descriptive survey was used. The study adopted a descriptive survey method, which used quantitative approaches to make inferences on teachers' self-efficacy and classroom management practices of teachers. With the help of the survey method, the study was able to describe a current, previous and phenomenon in its existing situations or conditions (Balci, 2004; Karasar, 2012). This means the study used the characteristics of the descriptive survey for the sake of drawing a true picture of relationships between teachers' self-efficacy variables (student behaviour management, instructional management and student engagement) and classroom management variables (student classroom behaviour management practices, instructional management practices and student classroom engagement practices). The objective of using the quantitative approach was to develop and make use of

mathematical models, theories and or hypotheses pertaining to the phenomenon of teacher self-efficacy in the Kwahu West Municipality.

According to Aggarwal (2008), descriptive research is devoted to the gathering of information about prevailing conditions or situations for description and interpretation. In the words of Kulbir (2009), descriptive research design seeks to find factors associated with certain occurrences, outcomes, conditions or types of behaviour. According to Best and Khan (2007), descriptive research is concerned with the conditions or relationships that exist, such as determining the nature of prevailing conditions, practice and attitudes; opinions that are held; processes that are going on or trends developed. Amedahe (2002) also maintains that in descriptive research, accurate description of activities, objects, processes and persons is the objective. It concerns the gathering of data to answer research questions or test hypotheses. The descriptive research design allows for generalization of findings from sample to population. It does not only deal with the characteristics of an individual but rather the characteristics of the whole sample. It provides information useful to the solutions of local issues or problems.

The study found the descriptive survey approach the most appropriate method to describe the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and classroom management in the Kwahu West Municipality. This is in the sense that it allows for usage of large population and again permits generalization of results from sample to population. Descriptive research allows for the collection of large amounts of data within a relatively short period of time. When used, the descriptive design also gives clear meaning to events. It will therefore be the best approach in finding answers to the variety of levels of teacher self-efficacy

(high and low efficacy) and how they are related to classroom management in Basic Schools in the Kwahu West

Municipality.

Population

The target population for the study included all public Junior High School teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality. The total number of public Junior High Schools were 47 and the total number of teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality were 499, these included 339 (68.0%) male teachers and 160 (32.0%) female teachers (Ghana Education Service [GES] Kwahu West, 2017). All the public Junior High Schools in the Kwahu West Municipality were involved in the study. Among the 47 schools, 25 (53.2%) had 11 teachers each, 20 (42.6%) had 10 teachers each and 2 (4.2%) had 12 teachers each. The population of teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality is shown in Table 1.

Table 1-Population of teachers

	Frequency	Percentage
Male	339	68.0%
Female	160	32.0%
Total	499	100.0

Source: Ghana Education Service [GES], Kwahu West (2017)

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample of 217 teachers was selected from the total number of teachers 499 for the study (See Table 1). The sample size for the study was based on the table for sample size determination suggested by Krejcie and Morgan (1970).

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) population of about 499 will take an estimated sample size of 217.

Proportional sampling was used based on differences in population of teachers in each of the 47 schools. To arrive at the sample size for each school, the sample size 217 was divided by the population size 499 giving a ratio of 0.43 and then multiplied by the number of teachers in the school.

Therefore, the following computations were conducted to arrive at the number representative for each school:

Sample size for each school with 11 teachers = $\frac{217}{499} \times 11 = 4.78$

Sample size for each school with 10 teachers = $\frac{217}{499} \times 10 = 4.34$

Sample size for the school with 12 teachers = $\frac{217}{499} \times 12 = 5.21$

Male and female teachers were selected using proportional sampling, 32.0% of the sample from each school was selected as the representative sample size for female teachers and 68.0% as the representative sample for male teachers in each school. Therefore, each of the schools with 10 teachers were represented by 3 male teachers and 1 female teacher, schools with 11 teachers were represented by 3 male teachers and 2 female teachers from each school, the final category which was schools with 12 teachers had a male teacher representation of 4 and female teacher representation of 2 (see APPENDIX C).

Proportional sampling is noted to be a sampling procedure that is used when a known population is composed of subgroups that are greatly different

in number. Proportional sampling provides a way to achieve even greater representativeness in the sample of the population.

Simple random sampling was used to select the teachers from each school. The simple random sampling is considered most appropriate because it gives each element in the population an equal probability of getting into the sample and all choices are independent of one another (Kothari, 2004). It also gives each possible sample combination an equal probability of being chosen (Kothari, 2004). This informed the researcher's choice in selecting the sampling procedure. In the simple random sampling, the lottery technique was used in selecting the teachers from each school.

At the school level, the names of the teachers were written on pieces of paper, folded, placed in a bowl, and reshuffled. Name of the teachers were picked randomly from the bowl till the sample need was reached.

Data Collection Instrument

Two questionnaires were used in the study. Questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of series of questions and other prompts for gathering information from respondents. The questionnaires were structured based on the key variables of the study. The teacher self-efficacy scale (TSES) was made up of four sections including a section investigating the demographic characteristics of the respondents, sections B, C, and D investigated teachers' self-efficacy with respect to student classroom behaviour management, teacher self-efficacy on instructional management, and teacher self-efficacy on students' classroom engagement respectively.

The classroom management questionnaire was also made up of three sections (A, B, and C). The first section of the classroom management scale

consisted of items that sought to measure student behaviour management practices, the second section measured instructional management practices while the third section measured students' classroom engagement practices.

The study adapted the TSES from the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran &Woolfolk Hoy (2001). The original scale consists of 24 questions measured on a 9-point scale. The score point ranged from 1-9 as follows; Nothing-1, Very Littile-3, Some Influence-5, Quite A Bit-7 and A Great Deal-9. The instrument measures teacher self-efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management with eight questions pertaining to each sub topic. The TSES has an overall reliability coefficient of .94 and reliability coefficient for the subscales are instructional management .91 and student engagement .87. For the purpose of the study two sub topics (instructional management and student classroom engagement) were adapted from TSES and an additional 9-items for student behaviour management were developed through the review of literature. In all, the teacher self-efficacy scale (TSES) comprised 29 questions.

The questionnaire measured teacher self-efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies, and student behaviour management with nine questions pertaining to student behaviour management and ten questions each pertaining to instructional management and student classroom engagement. The 29-items were structured along with a 5-point Likert Scale. The score point was ranged from 1-5 as follows: Nothing-1, Very Littile-2, Some Degree-3, Quite A Bit-4 and A Great Deal-5.

An additional 30-item questionnaire, of classroom management practices, investigating what teachers do in their classrooms was developed.

Some of the items related to classroom practices were taken from literatures including Little- Akin, (2007)'s, Classroom rules and Lewis (2005)'s items for measuring classroom discipline. For the 30 items, ten items were for each classroom management variables (student classroom engagement, instructional management and student classroom behaviour management). The 30-item were structured along with a 4point Likert scale. In the Likert Type Scale, the respondents were asked to respond to each item on four degrees of agreement or disagreement. The score point ranged from 1-4 as follows: Strongly Disagree-1, Disagree-2, Agree-3, and Strongly Agree-4.

Validity and Reliability of Instrument

The instruments for the study were thoroughly vetted before final approval by supervisors and two experts of measurement and evaluation in the Department of Education and Psychology to establish their validity. The instruments were then pre-tested to ensure their reliability. The pilot study was done with twenty teachers selected from four Junior High Schools in the Kwahu South District. Junior high schools in the Kwahu South district were used for the pre-test they share the same characteristics as they are people from Kwahu. Based on the analysis of the pre-test, modification and removal of ambiguous and unclear items such as questions, inaccurate responses which indicated weaknesses was done to attract appropriate responses from the respondents.

The establishment of reliability was accomplished by measuring the internal consistency of the instrument using a reliability coefficient, obtained by means of Cronbach's alpha. A reliability coefficient of .95 was obtained for the overall teacher self-efficacy scale. The reliability coefficient for the subscales were student classroom behaviour management .87, instructional

management .89 and student classroom engagement .87. The reliability coefficient for the overall classroom management practices questionnaire was .93, and .77 for student behaviour management practices, .86 for instructional management practices and .86 for student classroom engagement which according to Fraenkel and Wallen (2001), is considered very reputable for determining the appropriateness of the instrument.

Data Collection Procedure

An introductory letter was collected from the Department of Education and Psychology of the University of Cape Coast and hand-delivered to the institutions that participated in the study. The headmasters and the teachers of the various schools gave their support and approval to the study. Data collection was done by the researcher together with the assistance of four field assistants. A period of 15 working days was used to collect the data. Thus, from 4th June, 2018 to 22nd June, 2018. The field assistants received orientation on the purpose of the study and how to administer the questionnaires. The purpose of the study was explained to the respondents and they were assured of confidentiality and anonymity. After conducting the simple random sampling, the questionnaires were left behind for the respondents to respond to them and return them to their respective head teachers. Upon receiving all the questionnaires, the headmasters contacted the researcher for collection.

Data Analysis Procedure

Quantitative data analysis methods were used to analyse the responses gathered from the study. This has to do with assigning numerical attributes to the data. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) computer software

version 20 was used for the data analysis. Percentages, frequency tables, standard deviations, and mean were used to analyse the data. Data on the demographic characteristics of the respondents were presented in frequencies and percentages. Subscales of teachers' self-efficacy and classroom management were presented using means and standard deviations.

Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 were tested using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient. The relationship between teacher self-efficacy and (student behaviour management, instructional management and student classroom management) were tested at a significance level of $p < 0.05$ 2-tailed. According to Pallant (2005), Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient is designed to examine the relationship between two continuous variables. Thus, an independent variable (teacher self-efficacy) and a dependent variable (student behaviour management practices, instructional management practices and student classroom engagement practices), both of which were measured on a continuous or interval scale.

Hypothesis 4 was tested using the independent samples t-test. The test was performed to investigate the differences in self-efficacy levels of teachers with respect to gender at a significance level of $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed). Self-efficacy is a continuous variable, gender is a dichotomous variable, therefore, to find the differences in self-efficacy levels of male and female teachers, the independent sample t-test was the most appropriate test to use. The independent sample t-test is appropriate when you have a continuous variable (self-efficacy) and a dichotomous variable and you want to find differences in mean scores of the two sub-groups which constitute the dichotomous variable (Pallant, 2005).

Ethical Consideration

The protocols in research such as informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity of respondents and information provided were considered. Thus, permission was sought from the relevant authorities including the heads and administrators of the schools involved in the study. All participants were reassured that what they had divulged was to be treated with utmost confidentiality and was never to be used against them and their names were also not going to be disclosed.

Apart from these infield protocol, an ethical clearance form was obtained from the Ethical Review Board of the University of Cape Coast. Ethical clearance form is a form which demonstrates the awareness of any potential issues and how the researcher will ensure conformity with regards to the principles of Ethical Review Board. The ethical clearance forms were sent to the various schools to seek permission from the head teachers of the schools. The actual data collection exercise pended approval until consent was received from all the schools for the study to be conducted.

They were also told about the fact that participation in the study was strictly voluntary and that they could back out at any point in time if they felt the need to.

Summary of Chapter Three

This chapter has described the research methodology chosen for the study. TSES and classroom management questionnaires using Likert-type scales were used to collect quantitative data. The purpose of the questions were to gather data about teachers' self-efficacy and their classroom management practices. Research design, procedures for participant selection, validity of the

instrument, and description of data analysis were provided in this chapter. Ethical considerations were also considered in this chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview

This chapter comprises presentation, interpretation and discussions of the findings from the study. The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and classroom management practices among public Junior High School teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality. Descriptive survey design was used for the study. The study measured teachers' self-efficacy along with classroom management practices variables (student behaviour management, instructional management and student classroom engagement), and the gender difference in the efficacy levels of the teachers.

The testing and interpretation of data were carried out based on the results of the background of the respondents and research hypotheses. They included; the demographic characteristics of the respondents (gender, age, the level of education of the respondents and the number of years they have spent in teaching), the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom behaviour management practices, the difference in the self-efficacy levels of the male and female teachers, the relationship between self-efficacy and instructional management practices and the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom engagement practices. The response rate was 204 (94%) of the sample size of 217.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The study requested each respondent to indicate their background characteristics since these characteristics and attributes could influence their responses. These include gender, age, the level of education of the respondents and the number of years they have spent in teaching. The demographic characteristics of respondents is presented in Table 2.

Table 2-Demographic characteristics of respondents

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	138	67
Female	66	33
Age Range		
18-25	34	16.7
26-30	57	27.7
31-35	46	22.5
36-40	15	7.7
41 above	52	25.4
Highest level of education		
Diploma	95	46.4
First degree	97	47.4
Second degree	12	6.2
Number of years spent in teaching		
First year	17	8.6
1-5	44	21.5
6-10	67	32.5
11-15	24	12
15 years and above	52	25.4

Source: Author's Fieldwork 2018

As presented in Table 2, majority 138 (67%) of the teachers were males, whilst 66 (33%) were females. This is an indication that the number of male teachers in the study area far outweighs that of females.

Table 2, further indicates that majority of the teachers 57 (27.8%) were between the ages of 26 and 30 years, 52 (25.4%) of the teachers were above the ages 40 years, 46 (22.5%) were between the ages of 31 and 35 years. Also, 34 (16.7%) were between 20-25 years and 15 (7.7 %) of the teachers were between the ages of 36-40 years. An investigation into their level of education found out that 97 (47.9%) of the teachers had their first degree which was marginally higher than teachers with Diploma certificates 95(46.4) and the least were teachers who had the Second-degree certificates 11(6.2%).

Majority, 67 (32.5%) of the teachers had been in teaching for 6-10 years, 52 (25.4%) had also been in teaching for more than 15 years, 44 (21.5%) were between 1-5 years of teaching experience, 24 teachers representing 12% had a teaching experience of between 11-15 years and 17 teachers representing 8.6% were in their first year of teaching. From the data it could be inferred that 70% of the teachers has more than 5 years teaching experience. Thus, the municipality has majority of its teachers being experienced teachers.

Hypothesis one:

H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' classroom behaviour management.

The main purpose of this hypothesis was to ascertain the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and student behaviour management. The results are presented in Table 5.

Additionally, descriptive statistics was used to explore the relationship between the variables. Mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the data on teachers' self-efficacy and student classroom behaviour management. The criterion mean score (established mean score cut off point) for teachers' self-efficacy and student behaviour management was 3.0. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3-Teachers' self-efficacy on student behaviour management

Items	N	Mean	SD
How much can you do to control disruptive behaviours in the classroom?	204	4.11	.824
To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behaviour?	204	4.04	.820
How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	204	4.21	.877
How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	204	4.14	.835
How well can you describe what students are doing wrong and expect them to stop?	204	4.11	.824
How well can you respond to defiant students?	204	4.05	.931
How well can you keep a few problem students form ruining an entire lesson?	204	4.11	.949
How well can you reward targeted positive behaviours?	204	4.15	.894
How well do you involve students in establishing classroom rules?	204	4.03	.919
Mean of means		4.11	

Source: Author's Fieldwork (2018) N = Number of teachers, SD = Standard Deviation

Table 3 shows that teachers had a high sense of self efficacy regarding how much they could do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom (M =

4.11, SD = .824), and how well they can establish routines to keep activities running smoothly in the classroom (M = 4.21, SD = .877). Table 3 also indicates that the teachers had high sense of self-efficacy on how much they could do to get students to follow classroom rules (M = 4.14, SD = .835). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy with respect to how well they can reward targeted positive behaviour was also high (M = 4.15, SD = 894).

Furthermore, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the data on student behaviour management practices. The criterion mean score (established mean cut off point) for student behaviour management was 2.50. To attain the test value as the criterion measure, responses on the four-point Likert scale were scored from 4 to 1. That is 1+2+3+4=10/4=2.50. Therefore, mean scores of any student behaviour management practice which is above 2.50 is a high classroom management practice, and a mean score of below 2.50 is a low classroom management practice. Table 4 represents the results for teachers' behaviour management practices.

Table 4-Students' classroom behaviour management

Items	N	Mean	SD
I am able to respond to defiant students effectively.	204	3.20	.603
I am able to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom.	204	3.35	.544
I establish routines or protocol for students to follow in the classroom.	204	3.30	.643
I am able to get students to follow classroom rules.	204	3.43	.632
I describe what students are doing wrong and expect them to stop.	204	3.43	.617
I make sure that students know what is expected of them in the classroom.	204	3.53	.673
I am able to keep problem students from ruining an entire class.	204	3.25	.699
I am able to reward targeted positive behaviours	204	3.35	.604
I involve students in establishing classroom rules.	204	3.31	.762
Mean of means		3.35	

Source: Author's Fieldwork (2018) N=Number of teachers, SD=Standard Deviation.

From Table 4, it could be inferred that teachers' response to the items "I am able to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom (M = 3.35, SD = .603), I am able to get students to follow classroom rules (M = 3.43, SD = .632), I describe what students are doing wrong and expect them to stop (M = 3.43, SD = .617), I make sure that students know what is expected of them in the classroom (M = 3.53, SD = .673), and I am able to reward targeted positive behaviours (M = 3.35, SD = .604), is an indication of the teachers having high levels of efficacy in terms of managing students' classroom behaviour.

Relationship between Teacher Self-Efficacy and Students' Behaviour Management.

Responses gathered from respondents were used to conduct a correlation analysis to determine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' classroom behaviour management. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5-Relationship between Teacher Self-Efficacy and Students' Behaviour Management

Variable	Mean	SD	Pearson correlation (r)	df	p-value	Coefficient of determination
Self-efficacy	36.96	5.03	.544	202	.000	29.6%
Behaviour management	30.14	3.68				

Correlation is significant at 0.05 level, SD =Standard Deviation, Df=Degrees of freedom.

A Pearson' Product Moment Correlation was performed to determine the relationship between student behaviour management efficacy and students' classroom behaviour management practices. The results from Table 5 indicate a moderate positive (r=.544) relationship between teacher's self-efficacy in students' behaviour management and student classroom behaviour management practices. The two variables share 29.6% variance with degree of freedom 202. The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and students' classroom behaviour management was statistically significant (p = .000).

Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that there is no statistically significant correlation between teacher self-efficacy and students' classroom behaviour management is rejected. It can be inferred that the higher the teacher self-efficacy level for student behaviour management, the higher the teacher's student behaviour management in the classroom.

The results suggest that teachers have high levels of self-efficacy in managing students' classroom behaviours. It also suggests that an increment in teachers' self-efficacy levels lead to an increment in their abilities in the management of students' classroom behaviour. This finding supports the assertion made by Shaukat and Iqbal (2012) that, 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' classroom behaviour. High sense of efficacy encourages productive habits and activities in teachers.

This finding also corroborates the finding of Gordon (2001) who found that teacher self-efficacy is a good predictor of general effectiveness in classroom management. Thus, high efficacy teachers tend to possess stronger humanistic pupil (student) control ideologies and tend to utilize fewer negative

consequences and severe punishments, however, teachers who have low efficacy are more likely to perceive students who put up disruptive behaviours as having behavioural problems, and are less likely to expect improvement in students'

It could be inferred that self-efficacy is directly linked to teacher behaviour and attitude toward students that are prone to misbehave. Self-efficacy is also directly linked to overall teacher effectiveness (Allinder, 1994; Ashton, 1984; Fuchs et al., 1992; Guskey 1988; Milner, 2002; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

The finding also supports Abu-Tineh et al. (2011) study on teacher self-efficacy and classroom management styles in Jordanian schools, the study found a statistically significant moderately positive correlation between general self-efficacy and behaviour management.

Hypothesis two:

H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional management practices**.**

The main purpose of this hypothesis was to ascertain the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional management practices. The results are presented in Table 8.

Additionally, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the data on teachers' self-efficacy on instructional management. The criterion mean score for teachers' self-efficacy on instructional management was 3.0. To attain the test value as the criterion measure, the scores on the five-point Likert scale were scored from 5 to 1. That is 1+2+3+4+5=10/5=3. Therefore, mean scores of any of the self-efficacy items above 3.0 was identified as high sense of

teacher self-efficacy and mean score below 3.0 was low sense of teacher self-efficacy. Table 6 presents the results for teachers' self-efficacy on instructional management.

Table 6-Teachers' self-efficacy on instructional management

Items	N	Mean	SD
How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	204	3.82	.962
How much can you do to help your students think critically?	204	4.08	.895
How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest?	204	4.11	.900
How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	204	4.27	.881
How much can you do to help your student value learning?	204	4.27	.876
How much can you do to foster student creativity?	204	3.97	.906
How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	204	4.07	.882
How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	204	3.83	1.03
How much can you do to promote teacher-student interactions?	204	4.27	.830
How much can you do to get students to work together?	204	4.18	.896
Mean of means		4.15	

Source: Author's Fieldwork (2018) N=Number of teachers, SD=Standard Deviation

Inferring from Table 6, the results revealed high sense of teachers' self-efficacy on how much they can do to motivate students who show low interest in classroom activities (M = 4.11, SD = .900), how much they can get students to believe they can do well in school work (M = 4.27, SD = .881), how much they can help students value learning (M = 4.27, SD = .876). Table 6 further indicates teachers' high sense of self-efficacy on how much they can do to promote teacher-student relationship (M = 4.27, SD = .830), and a high sense

of self-efficacy on how much they can do to get students to work together (M = 4.18, SD = .896).

Furthermore, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the data on instructional management practices. The criterion mean score (established mean score cut off point) for instructional management practices was 2.50.

Table 7-Instructional management practices

Items	N	M	SD
I am able to respond to difficult questions from students.	204	3.34	.601
I am able to craft questions for my students.	204	3.51	.564
I am able to gauge students' understanding of lesson I teach them.	204	3.46	.537
I am able to provide appropriate task for very capable students.	204	3.15	.681
Implementation of alternative strategies is not an issue for me.	204	3.05	.833
I am able to use alternative explanations or examples for students when they are confused.	204	3.47	.546
I am able to use different assessment strategies.	204	3.40	.547
I am able to adjust my lessons to the proper level of individual students.	204	3.41	.549
I am able to get students to do their assignments.	204	3.41	.574
I am able to provide a clear explanation of instructional objectives.	204	3.10	.537
Mean of means		3.36	

Source: Author's Fieldwork (2018), N = Number of teachers, SD = Standard Deviation

According to Table 7, the teachers had high sense of self-efficacy on being able to craft good questions for their students (M = 3.51, SD = .564), gauge students' understanding of lessons they teach them (M = 3.46, SD = .537), use alternative explanations or examples for students when they are confused (M = 3.47, SD = .546), adjust lessons to the proper level of individual students (M = 3.41, SD = .549), and being able to provide a clear explanation

of the instructional objectives (M = 3.40, SD = .537). This result indicates that the teachers had high sense of self-efficacy on instructional management.

Relationship between Teacher Self-Efficacy and Instructional Management

Responses gathered on teachers' self-efficacy on instructional management and instructional management practices were used to perform a correlation analysis to determine the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional management. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8-Relationship between Teacher Self-Efficacy and Instructional Management

Variable	Mean	SD	Pearson correlation (r)	df	p-value	Coefficient of determination
Self-efficacy	41.49	5.60	.533	202	.000	28.4%
Instructional management	33.61	3.63				

Correlation is significant at 0.05 level

A Pearson' Product Moment Correlation analysis was performed to determine the relationship between teachers' instructional management efficacy level and instructional management practices. The results from Table 8 indicate a moderate positive (r = .533) relationship between teacher's self-efficacy on instructional management and instructional management practices. The two variables share 28.4% of their variance with degree of freedom 202. The

relationship between instructional management efficacy and instructional management practices was statistically significant (p = .000). Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that there is no statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional management is rejected. It can therefore be said that the higher the teacher self-efficacy level for instructional management, the higher the teacher's instructional management level in the classroom.

This implies that teachers are able to adjust their lessons to the proper level of individual students and implement alternative strategies in their classroom, provide a clear explanation of instructional objectives, measure student understanding of what they have taught, respond to difficult questions from students, use a variety of assessment and instructional strategies, provide alternative explanation or examples when students are confused, provide appropriate challenges for very capable students, and get students to do their assignments. The results suggest that the teachers had high levels of self-efficacy in managing instruction. It also suggests that high self-efficacy level is related to high instructional management abilities.

The results of this study, support Gibson and Dembo (1984) who maintained that teachers with a high sense of efficacy believe that unmotivated students can be taught, given the extra effort and suitable methods. In contrast, teachers with a low sense of instruction efficacy feel that they can do little if students are poorly motivated. The kind of impact teachers can exert on their students' intellectual development is limited by non-supportive or opposing influences from the home and the community in which the students live. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001), argue that teacher self-efficacy is

associated with many meaningful educational outcomes such as teacher persistence, enthusiasm, commitment and instructional behaviour, as well as student outcomes. This also supports the assertion made by Bruce et al. (2010) that teachers with higher efficacy levels are more likely to persevere in their attempt to reach learning goals when they encounter obstacles, are more prone to experiencing effective instructional strategies that represent a challenge and are more willing to run risks in their classrooms.

The results of this study support the findings of the researches (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Tournaki & Podell .2005; Wolters & Daugherty,2007) suggesting a significant correlation among teacher self-efficacy and increased students' achievement, by influencing teachers' instructional practices, passion, commitment, and teaching behaviour. The results are also in line with Bandura's observation (1994) that teachers who have a strong sense of efficacy about their capabilities can motivate their students and improve their cognitive development. However, those who have a low sense of efficacy favour a "custodial orientation that relies heavily on negative sanctions to get students to study". The level of self-efficacy of teachers can potentially affect both the kind of environment they create as well as the various instructional practices introduced in the classroom (Bandura, 1977).

Hypothesis three:

H_0: There is no statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom engagement practices.

The main purpose of this research hypothesis was to ascertain the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and student classroom engagement practices. The results are presented in Table 11. Also, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the data on teachers' self-efficacy on student classroom engagement. The criterion mean score (established mean score cut off point) for teachers' self-efficacy on student participation was 3.0. To attain the test value as the criterion measure, the scores on the five-point Likert scale was scored from 5 to 1. That is 1+2+3+4+5=10/5=3. Therefore, mean scores of any of the self-efficacy items above 3.0 was identified as high sense of teacher self-efficacy and mean score below 3.0 was low sense of teacher self-efficacy. Table 9 presents the results for teachers' self-efficacy on student classroom engagement.

Table 9-Teachers' self –efficacy on Student classroom engagement

Items	N	M	SD
How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	204	4.21	.866
How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	204	4.09	.847
To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	204	4.41	.736
How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level of individual students?	204	4.17	.826
How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	204	4.07	.847
To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or examples when students are confused?	204	4.05	.862
How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	204	4.01	.872
How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	204	3.97	.857
How much can you do to get students do their assignments?	204	4.22	.864
How well do you provide a clear explanation of instructional objectives?	204	4.27	.806
Mean of means		4.10	

Source: Author's Fieldwork (2018) N = Number of teachers, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation

Inferring from Table 9, the results revealed that teachers have high sense of self-efficacy on how well they can respond to difficult questions from their students (M = 4.21, SD = .866), gauge student comprehension of what they have taught (M = 4.09, SD = .847), the extent to which they can craft good questions for their students (M = 4.41, SD = .736), adjust their lessons to the proper level

of individual students (M = 4.17, SD = .826), and how well they can use a variety of assessment strategies (M = 4.05, SD=.862).

Mean and standard deviation were also used to analyse the data on student participation practices. The criterion mean scores for instructional management practices was 2.50. To attain the test value as the criterion measure, the scores on the four-point Likert scale were scored from 4 to 1. That is 1+2+3+4=10/4=2.50. Therefore, mean score of any of student participation practices which was above 2.50 was a high student participation practice and a mean score of below 2.50 was a low student participation practice. Table 10 present the descriptive results for student classroom engagement practices.

Table 10-Students' classroom engagement practices

Items	N	M	SD
I am able to get through to the most difficult students.	204	3.18	.585
I am able to help students think critically.	204	3.45	.563
I am able to motivate students who have low interest.	204	3.33	.679
I am able to get student to believe they can do well in class.	204	3.52	.520
I assist students to value learning.	204	3.49	.564
I am able to instil creativity in my students.	204	3.35	.588
I am able to improve the understanding of my students.	204	3.41	.638
I assist families in helping their children to do well in school.	204	3.13	.680
I am able to get students to work together.	204	3.44	.525
I am able to encourage my students to express their thoughts in class.	204	3.50	.556
Mean of means		3.38	

Source: Author's Fieldwork (2018) N = Number of teachers, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation.

As presented in Table 10, teachers had high sense of self-efficacy on being able to help students to think critically (M = 3.45, SD = .563), to get students to believe they can do well in class (M = 3.52, SD = .520), assist students to value learning (M = 3.49, SD = .564), improve the understanding of their students (M = 3.41, SD = .638). Table 10 further revealed that teachers had high sense of self-efficacy on being able to encourage their students to express their thoughts in class (M = 3.50, SD = .556).

Relationship between Teacher Self-Efficacy and Students' Classroom Engagement

The responses gathered on teachers' self-efficacy on classroom engagement and students' engagement practices were used to perform a correlation analysis to determine the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and students' classroom engagement. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11-Relationship between Teacher Self-Efficacy and Students' Classroom Engagement

Variable	Mean	SD	Pearson correlation (r)	df	p-value	Coefficient of determination
Self-efficacy	40.86	6.44	.603	202	.000	36.7%
Student Engagement	33.80	3.64				

Correlation is significant at 0.05 level. SD = Standard Deviation, Df = Degrees of freedom.

A Pearson' Product Moment Correlation was performed to determine the relationship between teachers' student engagement efficacy and student classroom engagement. The results from Table 11 show a high positive (r =.603) relationship between teachers' self-efficacy in student engagement and student classroom engagement. The two variables share 26.7% of their variance with degree of freedom 202. The relationship between student engagement efficacy level of teachers and students' classroom participation was statistically significant (p =.000). Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that there is no statistically significant correlation between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom engagement practices is rejected. It can be inferred from the results that the higher the teacher self-efficacy level for student engagement, the higher the teachers' ability to engage students in classroom practices.

This finding is in line with Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh, and Khalaileh, (2011), who found a statistically significant positive correlation between self-efficacy and people management. The finding corroborates the findings of Dibapile (2012), who recorded a significant positive correlation between instructional strategy efficacy and student engagement. However, this finding of this is not in agreement with the findings of Persinski (2015) who found no significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and students' classroom engagement.

When students are engaged in the learning activity, there is a less possibility of the learners being distracted and engaged in off-task or distractive behaviours. In the same way, when teachers use various tasks in their teaching to engage students in learning, undesirable classroom behaviours will decrease because students will be engaged in their work thereby increasing students'

academic achievement. For teachers to be able to use various tasks to engage students, the most needed ingredient is the belief that they can use these tasks (self-efficacy belief). Therefore, if teachers have high self-efficacy levels, they can use various tasks and instructional strategies to engage students in the teaching and learning processes.

Student engagement with school refers to committing, valuing, and connecting with people, educational goals and learning outcomes desired by school (Appleton & Lawrenz, 2011). Saphier et al. (2008) posits that if students are not actively engaged and participating in the lesson, they are probably not learning the academic content. Therefore, when students are involved in the learning activity, there is a less possibility of the learners being distracted and engaged in off-task behaviour or distractive behaviours. If teachers adopt more effective ways of teaching, they are more likely to be able to maintain students' engagement and participation in the lesson for an extended span of time.

Hypothesis four:

H_0: There is no statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy levels of male and female teachers in classroom management**.**

The main purpose of this research hypothesis was to ascertain the differences between male and female teachers' self-efficacy levels in classroom management. The results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12-Gender differences on teachers' self-efficacy levels

Subscales	gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	DF	p-value
Teacher Self-efficacy	Male	140	39.60	5.60	-.596	202	.552
	Female	69	40.05	5.89			

Significant level=0.05.

An independent sample t-test was performed to determine the gender difference in self-efficacy levels of teachers' in classroom management. From Table 13, the independent sample t-test shows no statistically significant difference t(202) = -.596; p =.522) between male and female teachers' self-efficacy levels in classroom management. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis which states that there is no statistically significant difference between the self-efficacy levels of male and female teachers in classroom management. Based on the descriptive scores, female teachers had relatively higher (M = 40.05, SD = 6.02) self-efficacy than male teachers (M = 39.60, SD =5.89).

By implication, male and female teachers at Junior High Schools have similar self-efficacy levels. This finding is in line with the findings of other studies (Chacon, 2005; Cubukcu, 2008; Karimvand, 2011; Mitchual, Donkor & Quansah, 2010). For instance, the study conducted by Mitchual et al., on the effect of gender on self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers revealed that the overall self-efficacy levels of teacher interns had not been affected significantly by gender.

Correspondingly, Chacon (2005) reported no relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and gender in a study that examined perceived efficacy

among English foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. The findings of this study support the findings of Nejati, Hassani and Sahrapour (2014) which revealed that male and female teachers did not differ as far as self-efficacy in behaviour management was concerned. The study results also support the findings of Safo et al. (2015) who indicated no significant gender differences in self-efficacy among male and female teachers.

Likewise, the results of this study support the findings of Cubukcu (2008) who studied the correlation between self-efficacy and foreign language found that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs do not differ significantly in terms of gender. Also, the findings of this study go hand in hand with the findings of Shaukat and Iqbal's (2012) who found no significant difference between male and female teachers on student engagement and instructional strategies but male teachers were significantly better in behaviour management than female teachers.

However, the finding of this study is in contrast with the studies conducted by Gurbuztur & Sad, 2009; Hamurcu, 2006; Tabak, Akyildiz & Yildiz, 2003. Gurbuzturk and Sad (2009) who found out that the self-efficacy levels of male and female participants in their study differed significantly. Female participants were found to have slightly higher self-efficacy scores than those of male participants, whilst Hamurcu (2006) found a significant difference in favour of female teachers in a study assessing candidate class teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching science.

Gender as a variable in this study was found to be the cause of no significant difference in the levels of male and female teachers' self-efficacy in classroom management. By implication, it means that both male and female

teachers believe they can put up classroom management practices in a relatively similar fashion. This implies that employing either a male or female teacher may lead to relatively similar educational outcomes and that the classroom of a male teacher will not be superiorly managed or better than that of a female teacher and vice versa.

The research evidences the similarity between male and female teachers when it comes to self-efficacy in classroom management. Being well organised is one of the most important aspects of being a teacher. According to the results established from this study both male and female teachers had a sense of self-efficacy that is similar in physical arrangement (making the classroom safe, comfortable and attractive), behavioural considerations (such as being visible for the students all the time, applying rules in the classroom and getting acceptable behaviours reinforced). This shows that both male and female teachers can play the role of classroom management in a similar fashion, and can bring out similar educational achievements. Therefore, the results of this study approve what most literature have stated about the similarity between male and female teachers' classroom management practices.

Summary of Chapter Four

This chapter comprised presentation, interpretation and discussions of the findings from the study. Tables were used in the presentations of the scores. Frequencies and percentages were used to present the demographic characteristics of the teachers. Further, mean and standard deviation were used to interpret the variables (teachers' self-efficacy on student behaviour management, teachers' self-efficacy on instructional management, teachers' self-efficacy on student engagement, student behaviour management practices,

instructional management practices and student engagement practices) for the study.

Research hypothesis on was tested with Pearson product moment correlation coefficient and the results found a positive moderate significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and student behaviour management practices. Research hypothesis two was tested using Pearson product moment correlation and the results found moderate positive significant relationship correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional management practices. Research hypothesis three was tested using Pearson product moment correlation and the results found strong positive significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and student engagement practices.

Finally, research hypothesis four was test with independent samples t-test and the results found no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

Overview

In this chapter, the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study are highlighted. The summary highlights the main objective of the study, aspects of the methodology and the key findings of the study. The conclusions drawn from the findings of the study and finally, recommendations, contribution to knowledge and areas for further research have been suggested in this chapter.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and the classroom management among public Junior High School teachers in the Kwahu West Municipality. The descriptive survey design was used for the study. The study was guided by the following research objectives; to examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student behaviour management practices, the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional management, the differences between the self-efficacy levels of male and female teachers, and the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom engagement. In all 217 teachers were sampled from a population of 499 teachers. The response rate was 204 (94%) of the respondents. The results were presented using frequency tables,

percentages, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and independent sample t-test.

The key findings of the study were:

1. The study found a moderate positive correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and student behaviour management practices. The relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student behaviour management was statistically significant.
2. In addition, the study found that there was a moderate positive correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional management. The relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional management was statistically significant.
3. There was a high positive correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and student classroom engagement. The relationship between teacher self-efficacy and student classroom engagement was statistically significant.
4. The independent sample t-test found no statistically significant difference between self-efficacy of female (M=40.05; SD=5.60) and male (M=39.60; SD=5.89) with t (207) =-.596; p=.596 teachers.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study the following conclusions were drawn.

In terms of the relationships between teacher self-efficacy and classroom management styles, the results clarified that teacher efficacy has a high significant relationship with each of the classroom management styles.Although a direct causal relationship may not be drawn from this result, the positive and significant relationships between teachers' self-efficacy and

each of the classroom management practices suggest that the higher the teachers perceive their efficacy levels, the more successful they become in practicing classroom management.

Recommendations

1. A moderate relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and classroom management shows there is still room for improvement, therefore, the study recommends that the Ghana Education Service organise training programmes for teachers receive more training in the fields of self-efficacy and classroom management practices in order to yield higher outcomes in the classroom and in future research.
2. Since the results of this study suggest that a high sense of self efficacy among teachers yield higher classroom management abilities, it is recommended that training of pre-service teachers to become highly self-efficacious even before they leave school for the teaching field be made a top priority in the Colleges of Education.

Suggestions for Further Research

1. Further research is needed to investigate the difference in the self-efficacy levels among beginning teachers and experienced teachers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire aims at investigating teacher self-efficacy in Junior High Schools in the Kwahu West Municipality. This research work is purely for academic purposes, hence, the honest and sincere response you give will contribute a lot to the research. Please be rest assured that your responses will be treated with strict anonymity and confidentiality. Please tick (√) or provide the appropriate response.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARATERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Age: ☐ 18- 20 years ☐ 21-25years ☐ 26-30years ☐ 31-35year ☐ 36-40years ☐ above 40 years ☐
3. How long have you been working as a teacher?
   ☐ First year ☐ 1-5years ☐ 6-10years ☐ 11-15years ☐ above 15years. ☐
4. What is your highest holding certificate?
   Diploma ☐ First Degree ☐ Second Degree ☐ PHD.

Others specify _____

SECTION B: Teachers' self-efficacy on student behaviour management.

What is your opinion regarding the following statements considering the importance for the students to support learning? For each of the statements please mark the response that best describes what you do. Please indicate by ticking (√) the appropriate response on of scale 1-5, where 1= **nothing**, 2= **very little**, 3= **some degree**, 4 **quite a bit**, and 5= **a great deal**

	1	2	3	4	5
5. How much can you do to control disruptive behaviours in the classroom?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
6. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behaviours?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
7. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
9. How well can you describe what students are doing	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

wrong and expect them to stop?					
10. How well can you respond to defiant students?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
11. How well can you keep a few problem students form ruining an entire lesson?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
12. How well can you reward targeted positive behaviours?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
13. How well do you involve students in establishing classroom rules?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

SECTION C: Teachers' self-efficacy on instructional management.

	1	2	3	4	5
14. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
15. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
16. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level of individual students?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
19. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
20. How well can you implement alternative	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

strategies in your classroom?					
21. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
22. How much can you do to get students do their assignments?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
23. How well do you provide a clear explanation of instructional objectives?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

SECTION D: Teachers' self-efficacy on student classroom engagement.

	1	2	3	4	5
24. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
25. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
26. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
27. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work??	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
28. How much can you do to help your student value learning?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
29. How much can you do to foster student creativity??	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
30. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
31. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

32. How much can you do to promote teacher-student interactions?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
33. How much can you do to get students to work together?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

SECTION A: Student behaviour management practices.

Instruction: this section of the questionnaire is designed to investigate teachers' student behavior management. Please indicate by ticking (√) the appropriate response on of scale 1-4, where 1= **Strongly Disagree,** 2= Dis**agree,** 3 = **Agree,** and 4= **Strongly Agree**

Statement	SD	D	A	SA
1. I am able to respond to defiant students effectively.				
2. I am able to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom.				
3. I establish routines or protocol for students to follow in the classroom.				
4. I am able to get students to follow classroom rules.				
5. I describe what students are doing wrong and expect them to stop.				
6. I make sure that students know what is expected of them in the classroom.				
7. I am able to keep problem students from ruining an entire class.				
8. I am able to reward targeted positive behaviours.				
9. I involve students in establishing classroom rules.				

SECTION B: Instructional Management practices.

Statement	SD	D	A	SA
10. I am able to respond to difficult questions from students.				
11. I am able to craft good questions for my students.				
12. I am able to gauge students understand of lessons I teach them.				
13. I am able to provide appropriate tasks for very capable students.				
14. Implementation of alternative strategies is not an issue for me.				
15. I am able to use alternative explanations or examples for students when they are confused.				
16. I am able to use different assessment strategies.				
17. I am able to adjust my lesson to the proper level of individual students.				
18. I am able to get students do their assignments.				
19. I am able to provide a clear explanation of instructional objectives.				

SECTION C: Students classroom engagement practices.

Statement	SD	D	A	SA
20. I am able to get through to the most difficult students.				
21. I am able to help students to think critically.				
22. I am able to motivate students who have low interest.				
23. I am able to get students to believe they can do well in class.				
24. I assist students to value learning.				
25. I am able to instill creativity in my students.				
26. I am able to improve the understanding of my students.				
27. I assist families in helping their children do well in school.				
28. I am able to get students to work together				
29. I am able to encourage my students to express their thoughts in class.				

APPENDIX C

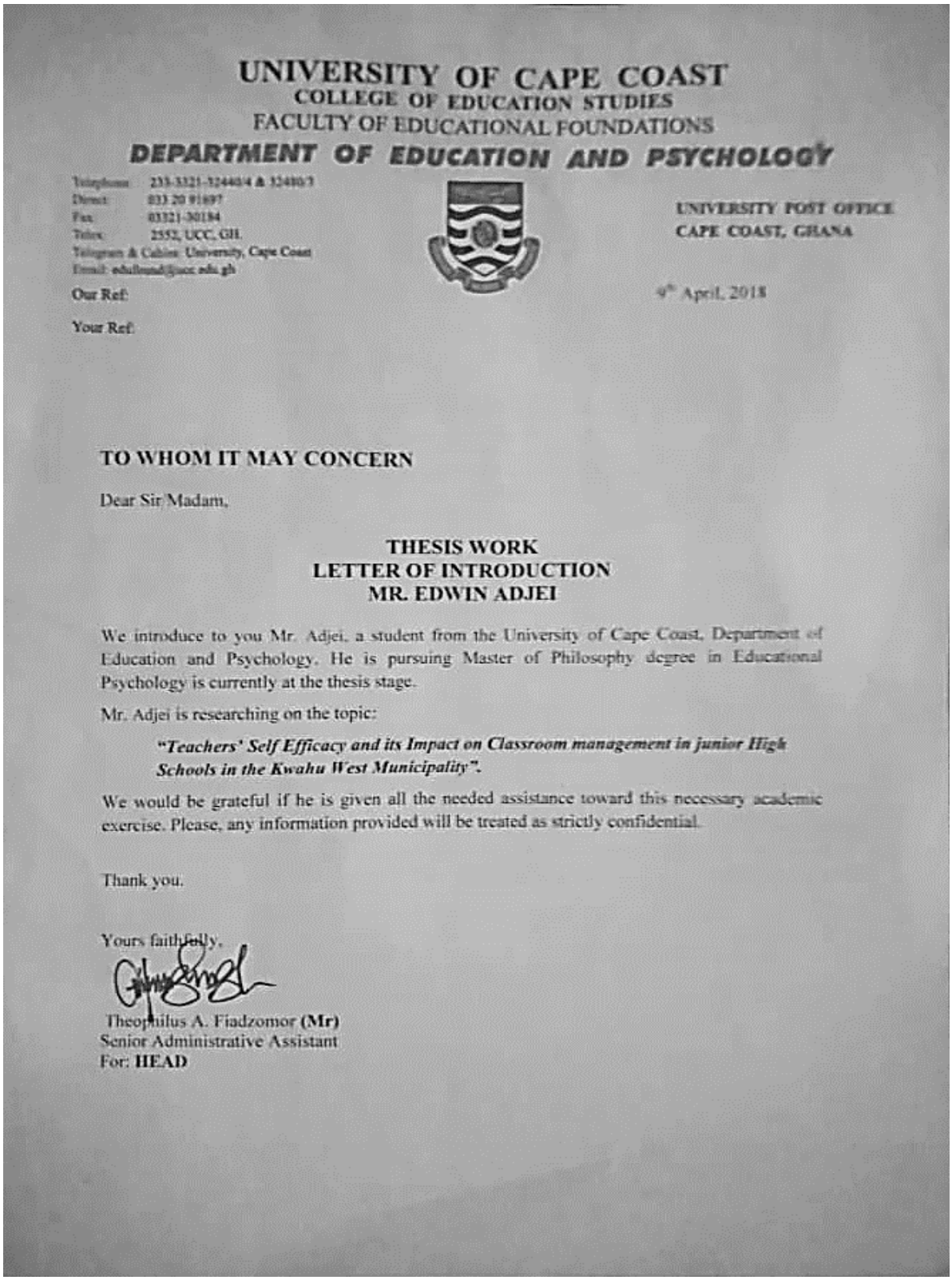
SAMPLING FRAME

Name of school	Number of Teachers in School	Sample of Male Teachers	Sample of Female Teachers	Total Sample of Teachers
St. Anthony JHS	12	4	2	6
St. Cecelia JHS	12	4	2	6
SDA JHS	11	3	2	5
Methodist JHS	11	3	2	5
Opinamang L/A	11	3	2	5
Presbyterian JHS	11	3	2	5
Akuamoa Acheanpong JHS	11	3	2	5
Anglican JHS	11	3	2	5
Islamic JHS	11	3	2	5
Akuajoo JHS	11	3	2	5
Church of Christ JHS	11	3	2	5
Amanfrom JHS	11	3	2	5
Nsuta JHS	11	3	2	5
Asuogya JHS	11	3	2	5
St. John's JHS	11	3	2	5
Ahmaddiya JHS	11	3	2	5
Kwahu Fodoa JHS	11	3	2	5

Christ Apos. JHS	11	3	2	5
Akoase JHS	11	3	2	5
Saafi JHS	11	3	2	5
Hweehwee JHS	11	3	2	5
Oframase D/A	11	3	2	5
Odumasi L/A	11	3	2	5
Abepotia JHS	11	3	2	5
Akwasihu JHS	11	3	2	5
Breku D/A	11	3	2	5
Awenade JHS	11	3	2	5
Suminakese JHS	10	3	1	4
Jejeti D/A	10	3	1	4
Asubone Rails	10	3	1	4
Kwahu Oda JHS	10	3	1	4
Wisiwisi JHS	10	3	1	4
Ahantanan D/A	10	3	1	4
Pankese L/A	10	3	1	4
Bramkrom JHS	10	3	1	4
Apesika JHS	10	3	1	4
Asona JHS	10	3	1	4
Gyamase JHS	10	3	1	4
Besease JHS	10	3	1	4
Wawase JHS	10	3	1	4
Ekowso JHS	10	3	1	4
Atibie Amanfrom	10	3	1	4
Nkawanda JHS	10	3	1	4

Krokrompe JHS	10	1	1	4
Dadieso JHS	10	3	1	4
Kwaamnan JHS	10	3	1	4
Asubone No.3	10	3	1	4

APPENDIX D



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9th April, 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

THESIS WORK
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
MR. EDWIN ADJEI

We introduce to you Mr. Adjei, a student from the University of Cape Coast, Department of Education and Psychology. He is pursuing Master of Philosophy degree in Educational Psychology is currently at the thesis stage.

Mr. Adjei is researching on the topic:

"Teachers' Self Efficacy and its Impact on Classroom management in junior High Schools in the Kwahu West Municipality".

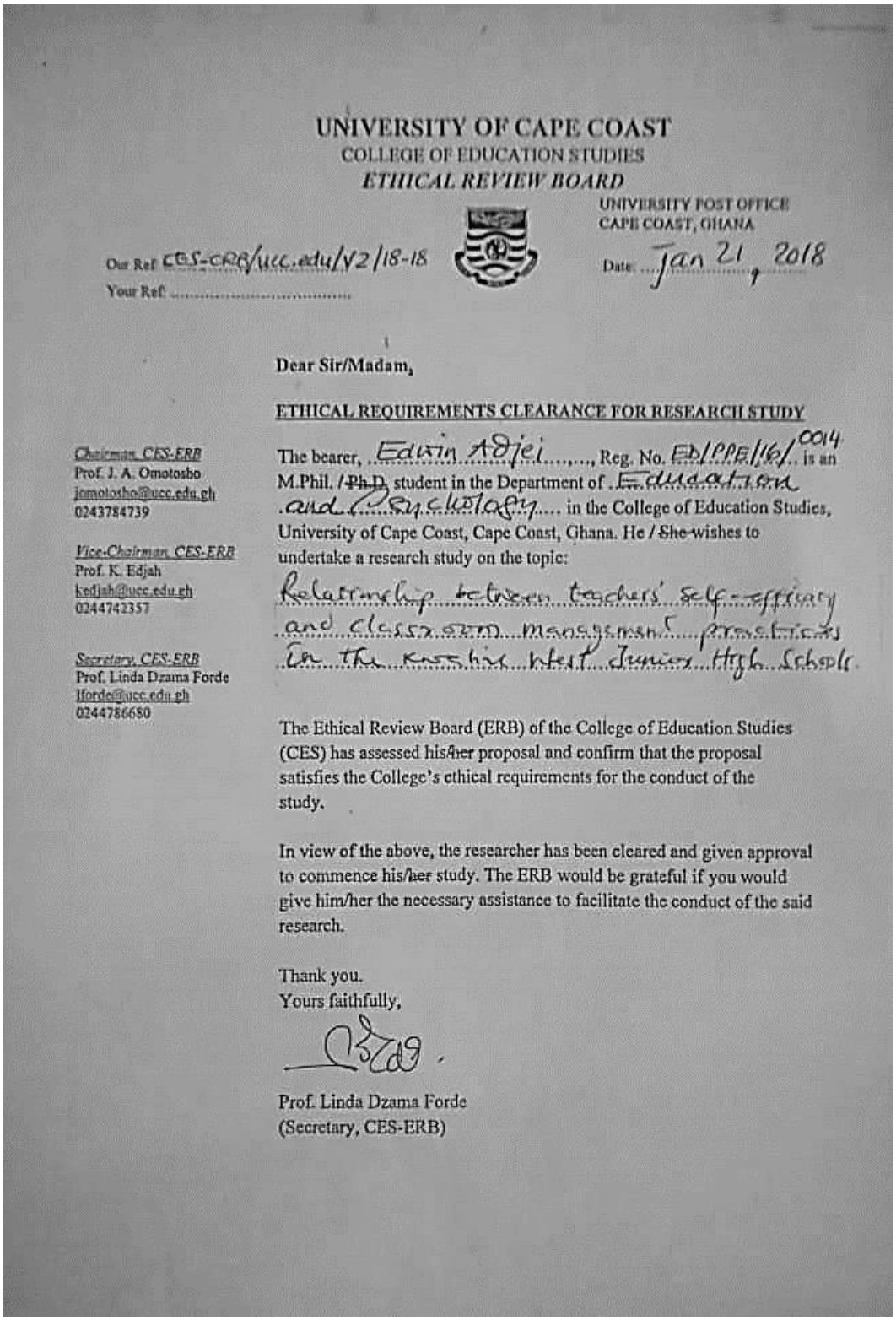
We would be grateful if he is given all the needed assistance toward this necessary academic exercise. Please, any information provided will be treated as strictly confidential.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Theophilus A. Fiadzomor **(Mr)**
Senior Administrative Assistant
For: **HEAD**

APPENDIX E



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Date: Jan 21, 2018

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Secretary, CES-ERB
Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
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Dear Sir/Madam,

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS CLEARANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDY

The bearer, Edwin Adjei, Reg. No. ED/PPE/16/0014 is an M.Phil. / ~~Ph.D~~ student in the Department of Education and Psychology in the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. He / ~~She~~ wishes to undertake a research study on the topic:

Relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and classroom management practices in the Kwahu West Junior High Schools

The Ethical Review Board (ERB) of the College of Education Studies (CES) has assessed his/~~her~~ proposal and confirm that the proposal satisfies the College's ethical requirements for the conduct of the study.

In view of the above, the researcher has been cleared and given approval to commence his/~~her~~ study. The ERB would be grateful if you would give him/her the necessary assistance to facilitate the conduct of the said research.

Thank you.
Yours faithfully,

Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
(Secretary, CES-ERB)