

A Report Of The Responses Of Botswana Junior Secondary School Teachers On The Three Subscales Of The Teachers' Sense Of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

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

ABSTRACT

The focus of this paper is to present the findings of the study on teacher efficacy and classroom management. To collect data a survey was administered to 1006 Botswana participants. Out of 1006 participants only 6 did not complete the survey. Pearson-product moment correlation was computed to analyze the data using Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS). Pearson shows a correlation for the three subscales at 0.01 level (2- tailed). For Instructional Strategies and Student Engagement $r=.412$, Student Engagement and Classroom Management $r= .589$ and Instructional Strategies and Classroom Management $r=.589$.

For teacher practices items the results show that there is no significant relationship between the positive and negative practices reported by the teachers in regard to classroom management, student engagement, and instructional strategies. Bonferroni adjustment which changes from .05 to .017 shows no significant relationships.

Keywords: Student Engagement; Classroom Management; Instructional Strategies; Teachers' Sense of Efficacy

INTRODUCTION

The concept of teacher efficacy is important; Poulou (2007) suggested that psychology and education researchers have based their ideas about teacher efficacy on Bandura's theory of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy, as defined by Bandura (1997) involves "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required producing given attainments" (p. 2). This definition is relevant to teachers because they have to believe that they can influence a learner positively, and organize their instruction effectively so that good results are produced, which shows that their students know how to learn. Self-efficacy beliefs, according to Bandura (1993, 1977), has an impact on four main areas involving cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

The need to investigate teacher efficacy beliefs in an educational setting is vital because earlier research findings revealed that teacher efficacy is lowest among teacher attributes associated with teaching and learning (Woolfolk and Hoy, 1990). In its application to educational settings, teacher efficacy means teachers possess ideas with regard to their abilities to have an impact on student results (Tournaki and Podell, 2005). Teacher efficacy has been researched extensively, and conclusions have been drawn that it is relevant to "student achievement as well as classroom management" Armor et al., Ashton, Webb, Moore, Selman, and Ross (as cited in Tournaki and Podell, 2005 p.300). Therefore, teacher efficacy research can reduce some problems in education, especially if researchers investigate teacher efficacy in relation to other factors. For example, lack of experience in teaching has been associated with positive teacher efficacy. Rizvi and Elliot (as cited in Cheung, 2008 suggested that "teacher efficacy is an important dimension of teacher professionalism and, together with other dimensions such as teacher practice, leadership and collaboration" (p. 103).

Teacher efficacy research can also assist teachers who have insufficient confidence about their teaching abilities. Personal teaching efficacy has been viewed as having an impact on the growth of beliefs about being a good teacher according to Ng, Nicholas, and Alan, (2010). Efficacy is the ability to bring into being the desired results (Tschannen- Moran and Hoy, 2007). Therefore, teacher self-efficacy can motivate teachers to be effective and manage difficult students.

TEACHER PRACTICES

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

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Research on teacher efficacy and classroom management is lacking in Botswana. It is the same in Africa. Klaseen, Tze, Betts, and Gordon (2011) investigated teacher self- efficacy from 1998 to 2009, using Psycf INFO, Web of Science and Eric databases searching for articles written in English and reported 2% of studies carried in Africa. However, the researchers did not mention the countries the research was carried in.

Magogwe and Oliver (2007) researched the “the relationship between language and learning strategies, proficiency and self-efficacy beliefs of students in Botswana”. They found that the students used average self-efficacy beliefs in “their learning of the English Language although not consistently so” (p. 350).

Brandon (2000) investigated the effect of gender differences on self-efficacy of prospective teachers in the four primary teacher colleges in Botswana. Her study focused on “male and female students’ beliefs about their ability to perform specific teaching competences before going into the classroom” (p.37). The instrument used in her study was Likert-type and included 16 items that measured students’ behaviors. Brandon found gender differences between male and female pre-service teachers. Female students had lower self-efficacy in regard to “specific teaching competences” than males prior to going into the field. Both these studies analyzed students’ self-efficacy, leaving teacher efficacy under-researched.

The study of Brandon (2000) and of Magowe and Oliver (2007) focused on students’ self-efficacy beliefs in Botswana. The focus on self- efficacy is different from the focus on teacher efficacy because, self- efficacy is the individual’s belief in their abilities to organize their learning and obtain satisfying results or better performance. Teacher efficacy is when teachers have ideas in relation to their abilities to have an impact of students’ learning results Tournaki, and Podell, (2005. Personal teaching efficacy is another aspect of teacher efficacy where among teachers there is a growth of beliefs about being a good teacher Ng et al. (2010). Therefore, being a good teacher can motivate teachers to have an impact on students learning. And teachers can also have an impact on the progress of students in learning.

Teaching practices are important in the learning environment; what teachers practice can have a positive or a negative effect on students’ lives. Classrooms also, if they are managed well by teachers can be places of freedom for students to learn and can provide safety for students.

Since no study exists on teacher efficacy in Botswana the present study was conducted on junior secondary school teachers’ sense -of efficacy and classroom management. The results of the present study will benefit teacher educators, the ministry of education and the stake holders on how to improve teacher education in Botswana.

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The purpose of the study was to conduct quantitative research among junior secondary school teachers in Botswana (JSS.) The study explored the 3 aspects of teachers' sense of efficacy; classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement. The TSES only measures teachers' self-efficacy. The intent of the researcher was also to explore the types of practices they use and determine whether they relate to a high or low level of self- efficacy.

The study used the below mentioned research questions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. For Community Junior Secondary School teachers in Botswana, what relationships, if any, exist among the three sub-scales of the TSES: Classroom Management, Instructional Strategies, and Student Engagement? Previous research in the United States of America showed significant relationships among the 3 subscales. This study is being conducted to determine whether this pattern of relationship also exists in Botswana.
2. Is there a relationship between the use of positive and negative practices reported by teachers regarding classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement and their level of teacher self-efficacy?

RESEARCH DESIGN

A quantitative research design was employed in this study, which investigated teachers' efficacy beliefs by surveying junior secondary school teachers in Botswana. The Office of Staff Training and Development at the University of Botswana sponsored the research.

INSTRUMENTATION

Two instruments were used in this study. The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) Short Form, containing 12 items designed by Tschannen-Moran et al. (2001), was administered in English to the participants to measure their beliefs about their efficacy. (The authors of the TSES instrument have issued a letter granting permission to researchers wanting to use the instrument). An additional 24-item questionnaire, a Checklist of Teacher Practices, investigated what teachers do in their classrooms.

POPULATION

Data were collected from junior secondary school teachers in Gaborone, the capital city of Botswana with 13 junior secondary schools, and in surrounding areas. Gaborone has a population of 186,007 as per 2001 Census report ([Http://www.state.gov/t/ pa/ei/bgn/1830.htm](http://www.state.gov/t/ pa/ei/bgn/1830.htm)). Surveys were distributed to 7 of 13 junior secondary schools Gaborone. They were also distributed in these surrounding villages: Mochudi, Bokaa, Sikwane, Gabane, Thamaga, Oodi, Tlokeng, Kumakwane, Kopong, Metsimothabe, Moshupa, Artesia, Ramotswa, Mogobane, Molepolole and Lobatse. These villages have 1 to 6 schools, and villages with 5 to 6 schools, the researcher and the team chose 3 schools to administer questionnaire. Villages with one junior secondary school have 20 to 25 teachers, and the questionnaire was administered to all the teachers. Schools in Gaborone and bigger villages have 40 to 50 teachers. With schools in bigger villages 30 to 40 teachers completed the survey. 1,006 teachers overall participated in the present study. Out of 1,006 teachers who received the survey, only 6 did not complete it. The age range of the participants is from 23- 62. The high response rate was (99.4%) was impressive. The teacher and pupil ratio in Botswana junior secondary school is 45-51 which is large for a teacher to handle the students and offer effective learning. However, Pheko, (2010) has found this ratio to be incorrect, because in the junior secondary schools she researched teacher and pupil ratio was 1: 51.

PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

The survey was distributed on two occasions. In November 2010, the researcher and research assistants distributed paper copies of two instruments, the Short Form and a Checklist of 24 items of Teacher Practices. The schools were closed for Christmas holidays the last week of November. Data collection continued in January of 2011, when the schools re-opened, until February 2011. The copies of printed questionnaires were used because data could be collected from many participants within a short time. Nardi (2006) has suggested that a questionnaire is "...ideally suited for respondents who can read, measuring people's opinions, and when we want to get a very a large number of respondents too difficult to observe with qualitative methods" (p. 17).

The data collected from the participants were transferred from the answer sheets to a computer-generated SPSS spread sheet. The researcher and research assistants visited schools, first to meet with the school heads to introduce themselves and the purpose of the research. Also appointments for teachers to complete the survey were requested in the above mention visits. School heads received the Ministry of Education's approval letter and the researcher's request letter during the visit. Letters to teachers were issued in the staff rooms, when the research team had meetings with teachers on the days they were completing the surveys. During data gathering the research team made introduction of themselves to teachers and explained to them how they should complete the surveys. The demographic data, which is on the first page of the survey, was explained first, then the Short instrument and finally the Checklist items. The participants also read their letters before they completed the survey. They did not sign their names on the letters because there was no personal information needed from them and participation was voluntary. Completion of the TSES and the list of Teacher Practices took no more than thirty minutes. In most cases, the researcher and assistants were present when participants completed the questionnaires and helped answer participants' questions.

The quantitative approach of the study is its main limitation, and the limitations are discussed below.

LIMITATIONS OF METHOD OF COLLECTING DATA

The lack of a random sample implies that the researcher used a convenience sample of teachers available to participate in the city. Therefore the findings cannot be generalized to all Botswana teachers. The other limitation too, is using the TSES (Short Form) Instrument, which was designed in the United States of America and not used in the past with teachers in Botswana. However, the TSES has been used in other countries that are not of the West, for example, Korea and Singapore and the reliability and validity has been reported by these researchers Klassen, Bong, Usher, Chong; Huang, Wong, and Georgiou (2009).

Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) considered TSES to be "superior to previous measures of teacher efficacy in that it has a unified and stable factor structure" and it is related to the theory of self-efficacy (p.354). The teacher practice items that were used as an addition to the questionnaire were developed from the research of Lewis, Romi, Qiu, and Katz (2005), and some from Guide lines of Student Engagement and Instructional Practices from Woolfolk, (2010). Thus teacher practices items are an informal measure and there is no psychometric analysis to have been done to create a formal instrument.

DELIMITATIONS

The study has been delimited to Gaborone junior secondary school teachers and surrounding areas in Botswana. Limited time and funds for the researcher as a sponsored student has disadvantaged her from working with other JSS teachers across the country to get their responses. Senior secondary schools teachers are also not included in the study. The study further delimited to TSES (Short Form), comprising 3 subscales of measuring teacher efficacy and its 12 items. Buehl and Fives (2010) reported that "the 3 factor structure—efficacy for classroom management, instructional practices, and student engagement—relevant for in-service teachers. The present study found the short form suitable for use with in-service teachers.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data were coded and analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS), a computer program. Birley and Moreland (1998) defined coding as “the process of assigning a symbol as a shorthand way of summarizing a completed questionnaire response. Typically, numbers and or letters are used in coding” (p.58). Salkind, (2006) added that “data are coded when they are transferred from the original collection form (such as a test booklet) into a format that leads itself into data analysis” (p. 148). Data collected from the participants was transferred from the survey forms into SPSS spread sheets. The mistakes in the data was checked by the researcher and assistant, it was a process of viewing every variable in the data to make sure that there is no missing information.

The gender variable was coded 1 for males and 2 for females. Using digits rather than words not only saves space and data-entry time, but also enhances accuracy of data analysis (Salkind, 2006 p.148). The 6 participants who did not complete the survey were regarded as missing data and excluded from the study. Kline (2009) suggested the “available- case method,” which involves excluding incomplete data from analysis. Also encoded were demographic data variables, such as age, education qualification, teaching experience, and districts. The study included 590 females and 416 males. The participants’ ages ranged from 21 to 54. Education qualification (the qualifications that teachers have earned from training institutions) was coded as 7.

The following is an analysis of questions 1 from the TSES short form and question 2 from the Checklist of teacher practices.

Question 1

For community junior secondary school teachers in Botswana, what relationships, if any, exist among the three sub-scales of TSES: classroom management, instructional strategies and student engagement? Previous research in the United States showed a significant relationship among the three sub-scales. This study is being conducted to determine whether this pattern of relationship also exists in Botswana.

A summary score on the three TSES subscales was computed for each teacher from Botswana. Pearson’s product-moment correlation was computed (using SPSS) between each pair of subscales, yielding three correlation coefficients. Each of these *rs* was evaluated to see if it was significantly difference from 0.00. In doing this, the Bonferroni adjustment procedure was used to protect against an inflated Type I error rate. Thus, the modified level of significance used in evaluating these correlations was $.05/3 = .0167$.

Table 1
Student Engagement by Qualification
Descriptives

TSES_SE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Diploma	534	26.51	6.766	.293	25.93	27.08	7	112
Degree	393	26.31	4.447	.224	25.87	26.75	9	32
M.ED	16	28.19	3.885	.971	26.12	30.26	18	32
MSC	5	24.00	5.244	2.345	17.49	30.51	17	29
MA	24	26.79	3.230	.659	25.43	28.16	20	32
PGDE	30	30.27	15.565	2.842	24.45	36.08	18	110
PHD	4	26.25	6.652	3.326	15.67	36.83	20	32
Total	1006	26.56	6.340	.200	26.17	26.96	7	112

The Analysis of Variance statistical test was conducted and the results above show significant level how Botswana teachers differed in engaging students in learning, in regard to the 3 subscales, Efficacy in Student

Engagement, Efficacy in Instructional Strategies and Efficacy in Classroom Management. Referring to Question 1 and in relation to the studies conducted in the United States, the results are consistent with the findings of Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001): Classroom Management and Instructional Strategies $r = .046$, Student Engagement and Instructional Strategies $r = 0.61$, Student Engagement and Classroom Management $r = 0.50$. The findings in the present study of Botswana teachers and in the United States' study show a significant correlation of $.05/3 = .017$, using the Bonferroni adjustment. The sample size for Botswana is large ($n = 1000$) compared to the US sample ($n = 410$).

TSES, Efficacy in Student Engagement and educational qualifications show significant results for postgraduate diploma in education teachers (Table 1). The means for teachers with PGDE qualification are higher than those of other teachers, followed by those teachers with Master of Education qualifications. Anova results show the significance level of $.046$ ($p < .05$). The differences in Efficacy for Student Engagement by PGDE qualifications are impressive for PGDE teachers because PGDE is one year teacher preparation program, with a ten week teaching practice practicum. The trainees spend four years doing an undergraduate degree to acquire Bachelor of Arts (humanities). During the fifth year, PGDE students specialize in their majors or teaching subjects and are exposed to learning for a longer period of time.

Teachers with Master of Arts, diplomas, degrees, and Ph.D.'s are similar in the way they engage students in learning. Teachers with Masters of Science scored lower in Efficacy in Student Engagement. Efficacy for Student engagement is the only subscale among TSES's three subscales in which teachers in the present study differed in engaging students in learning. The results are encouraging because they show teachers with PGDE qualifications; doing better than their colleagues in engaging students in learning. Though more differences could be expected because these teachers are trained in different institutions in Botswana, and they should be using different effective methods of engaging students in learning. The results are consistent with those of, Gibson & Dembo, Ross, (as cited in Woolfolk- Hoy and Spero 2005), Tschannen- Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, Wolters & Daugherty, Ross, Cousins, & Gadalla, (as cited in Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008); Klassen & Chiu (2010); Fives & Buehl, (2010).

Table 2
Student Engagement by Experience
Descriptives

TSES_SE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					1-36	216		
37-72	253	27.56	10.248	.644	26.29	28.83	7	112
73-108	194	25.85	4.294	.308	25.24	26.46	12	32
109-144	163	26.60	3.851	.302	26.01	27.20	15	32
145-180	104	25.88	4.307	.422	25.05	26.72	15	32
181-216	45	26.96	3.966	.591	25.76	28.15	18	32
217-252	20	28.25	4.375	.978	26.20	30.30	18	32
253 and above	11	26.91	4.742	1.430	23.72	30.10	20	32
Total	1006	26.56	6.340	.200	26.17	26.96	7	112

Teachers with three to six years of teaching experience and those with seven to nine show a slight difference in engaging student learning because of the number of years they have in teaching (Table 2). There are other results that show trends towards significance. For example, Efficacy in Instructional Strategies and gender Efficacy in Classroom Management and teaching experience show trend towards significance. Also, there are non-significant results of Efficacy in Student Engagement and gender, Efficacy in Instructional Strategies, and Classroom Management by districts, cities and towns. Teachers raised in rural villages in the Chobe District use different instructional methods in their classes than teachers raised from cities and towns. Teachers from the Chobe district had the highest means in student engagement, followed by teachers from cities (see the population section for names of cities, towns and villages).

This result is encouraging because teachers in the Chobe district, which is north of Botswana and considered rural, was expected to have a low teacher efficacy when teaching students in the city, villages and towns close to Gaborone. Therefore, growing up in rural areas has not affected them. Bandura’s (1989) concept of reciprocal determinism can help in understanding that the commitment of teachers from the Chobe district is controlled by their cognitive abilities, environment, and “external systems.” Also, the implication is that teachers used what they have learned while they were training as teachers. Therefore, according to Bandura, (1989) they are “products and producers of their own environment” (p.3). However, the limits of this study do not allow for the examination of this aspect. A larger group of participants could yield significant results, as well as qualitative methods, that could shed light on Botswana junior secondary school teachers’ efficacy beliefs.

Question 2

Is there a relationship between the use of positive and negative practices reported by teachers regarding classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement and their level of teacher self-efficacy?

Botswana teachers were grouped according to their responses to a set of 24 questions about their practices related to classroom management, student engagement and instructional strategies. The teachers were put into three groups based on how frequently they said they use research based techniques for managing classrooms, engaging students, and using instructional strategies. These groups were determined by a scoring system. Teachers earned no points for responding “no” to a statement deemed to be “good practice” and earned 1 point for responding “yes.” Those with total scores of 17 to 24 went into the first group; those with scores of 15 and 16 went into the second group; those with scores of 14 and below went into the third group. The three groups corresponded to those who regularly, sometimes, or infrequently use proper classroom-management methods.

A one-way variance analysis (ANOVA) was used to compare the three groups on each of the TSES subscales (efficacy in classroom management, in instructional strategies, and in student engagement). The level of significance used in making each of these three tests was adjusted via the Bonferroni procedure ($.05/3 = .0167$). Any ANOVA test that was significant was probed using a series of Tukey pairwise post hoc comparisons. All of these tests were conducted on SPSS.

Table 3
Descriptive results for Efficacy in Student Engagement.

		Descriptives							
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
TSES_SE	1	248	26.42	4.300	.273	25.88	26.95	9	32
	2	393	27.10	7.384	.372	26.37	27.84	7	112
	3	359	26.11	6.284	.332	25.46	26.76	11	110
	Total	1000	26.58	6.349	.201	26.18	26.97	7	112
TSES_IS	1	247	28.50	6.290	.400	27.71	29.29	17	112
	2	393	28.19	3.678	.186	27.82	28.55	12	32
	3	360	27.62	3.808	.201	27.23	28.02	14	32
	Total	1000	28.06	4.515	.143	27.78	28.34	12	112
TSES_CM	1	248	27.96	3.894	.247	27.48	28.45	10	32
	2	393	28.03	3.870	.195	27.65	28.41	7	35
	3	360	27.33	4.019	.212	26.91	27.74	16	36
	Total	1001	27.76	3.940	.125	27.52	28.00	7	36

One way Anova shows no significant relationship among the three groups in Efficacy for Student Engagement subscale. The significance level of Anova results between groups show that TSES, Student Engagement is .089 ($p > .05$), TSES, Instructional Strategies, .048 ($p < .05$) and Classroom Management .032 ($p > .05$). F is significant when using Bonferroni adjustment. This implies that even those teachers who are thought to be using the best teaching practices in the classrooms have similar scores as those with average and the lower scores.

Among the participants, 248 teachers scored 17 and higher out of 24 and were categorized as Group 1; 393 scored 16 and 15 were in Group 2; 360 scored 14 and below in the third Group. Therefore, these groups did not differ in regard to what they employ in classrooms, particularly with the activities they use to engage students in learning, using different methods in teaching as well as managing disruptive behaviors of students in the learning setting.

There are other factors that can contribute to teachers' inability to engage students in learning. In Botswana junior secondary schools the teacher and pupil ratio of 1- 51 it is larger and it may not be easy for a teacher to handle many the students in learning. The classrooms are designed to accommodate 35 students, and the physical space is also another factor, it limits the teacher to expertise in her/his work. Some junior secondary schools as reported by Pheko, (2010) are taught in "open pavilions". In such instances the attention of students can be interfered by what they see in open spaces and engaging them in learning by teachers cannot be easy. Learning materials, (books) for students are not enough for them to use during teaching time and also to use at home when they have assignments. Therefore, students cannot benefit much even if teachers could engage them more in learning. The 2009 junior secondary schools results showed more students failing, but it is not easy to tell whether it is the teachers who are not engaging students in learning, as there are contributing factors discussed above. Teacher centered approaches have been reported in Botswana classrooms (secondary and primary) (as "generally simple" and with ineffective instructional methods Fuller, Synder, Chapman & Hua, (1994). Maseko, (2010) has advocated for student centered approaches in learning. The effective and ineffective teacher practices showed no relationship with the 3 groups of teachers, it is not easy to answer what causes teachers not to be effective in their work because the teaching profession in Botswana is facing more challenges than ever. During the data collection of this present study from October to November 2011 there were work related conflicts between teachers and the government teachers did not do other duties like invigilating junior secondary examinations, they complied with Teacher Unions rather than their employer. Therefore, such job related dissatisfactions can affect their performance in their vocation. Also, it is not known if it is the teacher institutions in Botswana that are not preparing effective teachers or not. Brandon, Moorad, Bogopa & Dambe, (1989) investigated the trainees teachers' "perceptions of the usefulness of teacher training in Botswana" among the five colleges, PGDE trainees were also included in their study. Their findings showed that trainee teachers felt that the education programs were average in preparing them to become teachers. Also "the teacher education programs are perceived to be of little use in teaching students how to ask higher order questions" (p.50).

The PGDE program was viewed by the trainees as the least in training them to be teachers. However, in the present study teachers with PGDE scored higher than other teachers in the TSES Efficacy in Student Engagement subscales. It is an improvement for teachers with PGDE because, Dibapile, 2005's study on reasons for choosing teaching as a career among PGDE trainees in the University of Botswana; reported negative results of extrinsic reasons where PGDE trainees opted the teaching profession because of what the job offers like, long holidays and money, not committed to imparting knowledge in the students. In Botswana the 2009 junior secondary results final showed more students failing. Pheko, (2010) reported the same findings for 2003 and 2006 junior secondary results.

Efficacy in Instructional Strategies (IS) shows that Group 1 and 3 had significant difference in the way they employ instructional methods as they teach (Table 3). These are encouraging results because teachers in Group 1 assumed that they were using best methods of various methods in the classrooms. The two pairs of groups, 1 and 2, and 1 and 3 were the same in classroom management. Groups 2 and 3 also showed significant difference in classroom management. This implies that teachers in Groups 2 and 3 differ in how they managed disruptive behaviors of students in learning. The three groups of Botswana teachers use similar approaches in regard to in student engagement, instructional approaches and classroom management. Research has clearly found that teachers with high efficacy have been perceived as displaying a great deal of knowledge in planning and organizing activities Allinder, (as cited in Tschannen- Morana & Woolfolk Hoy 2001). Particularly those teachers who believed that they do best practices and those who are above average.

In conclusion, the responses of Botswana junior secondary school teachers on the three subscales of TSES, (Short Form) Efficacy in Student Engagement, Efficacy in Instructional Strategies, and Efficacy in Classroom Management; showed significant results on one subscale, Efficacy in Student engagement by qualification (.046 $p < .05$). Future researchers of teacher efficacy can include primary, secondary school teachers, teacher trainees, and teacher educators in educational institutions in Botswana exploring teacher efficacy.

The relationship of the TSES three subscales, Student engagement, Instructional strategies and Classroom management, exist with Botswana participants, as Research Question 1 asked. The TSES Short Form instrument is reliable to use with other cultures which the present study is an example. The use of positive and negative practices reported by teachers in regard to classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement is evident. Future research of teacher efficacy can investigate designing instruments of efficacy from Botswana teachers' self – efficacy beliefs, which would be more informative. Finally, Tschannen- Moran, (2001) asserted that “teacher efficacy is a simple idea with significant implications” (p.784). This writer believes these ‘significant implications’ ought to be further investigated among other cultures.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

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

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