Teacher Self-Efficacy and Its Influence on Student Motivation

India R. Ford
Cleveland State University

Recommended Citation

Ford, India R., "Teacher Self-Efficacy and Its Influence on Student Motivation" (2012). *ETD Archive*. 99.
https://engagedscholarship.csuohio.edu/etdarchive/99

TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON STUDENT

MOTIVATION

INDIA R. FORD

Bachelors of Science in Education

Indiana University—Bloomington

December, 1995

Masters of Arts in Administration

Cleveland State University—Cleveland

December, 2002

Submitted in partial fulfillment of requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN URBAN EDUCATION

at the

CLEVELAND STATE UNIVERSITY

May, 2012

TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON STUDENT MOTIVATION

India R. Ford

ABSTRACT

This quantitative study examined the factors that impact urban teachers' efficacy and their ability to motivate urban students within their classroom. Teacher efficacy was the primary factor observed in this study. Five dimensions were created to guide the study: motivation, administrative support, teacher power, teacher morale, and a teacher's teaching method. There were significant differences found in all dimensions that supported the fact that efficacy measurements influence student motivation. 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 how a teacher may motivate his/her students. This study will prove beneficial to administrators hoping to develop methods that will increase teacher efficacy to improve student motivation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDICES

    A. Original Survey Items Listed

    B. Final Teacher Efficacy Survey

    C. Informed Consent Form

    D. Frequency Tables

    E. Respondents Demographic Characteristics by Race

    F. Respondents Demographic Characteristics by Gender

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study examines the relationship between teacher efficacy and student achievement by looking at a number of external factors that influence a teacher's belief in their ability to motivate children to perform. As an educator, the opportunity to work with many teachers and witness their personal growth in the teaching profession has allowed for a better understanding of what skills teacher's should possess in order to increase the likelihood of higher student achievement. Efficacy is one of the more popular research terms used in educational studies to show a teacher's beliefs in his/her abilities and how those beliefs can ultimately change the level of success students may experience within the classroom. Unfortunately, a teacher's efficacy can fluctuate drastically in positive and negative directions within the course of their teaching career due to various factors that will be looked at in this study. In most cases, if teachers are left with no assistance in developing methods to increase and maintain a high level of efficacy, the result will be teacher burnout. This term is analogous with a teacher's decline in motivation, low

morale, low productivity, high absenteeism and a diminished sense of accomplishment (Haberman, 2010).

Teacher burnout can significantly impact efficacy beliefs as Haberman (2010) uses a behavioral definition of burnout and defines it as a condition in which teachers remain as paid employees, but stop functioning as professionals. They teach with no emotional commitment to the task and no sense of efficacy. They have come to believe that what they do will make no significant difference in the lives of their students and see no reason to continue caring or spending any effort. Most teachers who reach this point in their teaching career, either change careers and leave the teaching profession or trudge through as an ineffective teacher until retirement. Avoiding this decline in efficacy and ultimate emotional burnout should be a continuous goal of administrators in their efforts to increase achievement. If teachers are experiencing success, they will put forth more effort to increase student achievement.

There are many factors that could possibly play a role in increasing or decreasing a teachers' efficacy and in this study, five major factors were observed that could be significant contributors to improving efficacy beliefs. Motivation beliefs, administrative support, level of teacher power, teacher morale and a teacher's teaching methods were chosen as possible factors. If these factors are looked at more closely, administrators and teachers could decrease the effects of low teacher efficacy on student motivation. Observation of these factors could possibly help develop methods to minimize high teacher turnover rates, increase teacher longevity, and ultimately increase student achievement in most urban districts if administrators and educators become proactive in their efforts to retain teachers through methods that directly increase efficacy beliefs.

Determining if the factors significantly impact efficacy is the first step to identifying and developing the methods that can be used to improve the motivation of students in urban schools.

Increasing efficacy can be very difficult, so assuring that educators do not decline in their efficacy beliefs is a major component to increasing student achievement. Educators play a big role in identifying their own level of efficacy and monitoring their efforts to change to improve student achievement. Moreover, Administrators are equally as important in their educational leadership. Administrators who are more proactive in their plight to increase achievement are aware that working closely with educators by including them in decisions making and providing them with a strong support network, lends itself to an increase in student achievement in the school building as well.

BACKGROUND

Self-efficacy is defined as one's self-judgment of personal capabilities to initiate and successfully perform specific tasks at designated levels, expend greater effort, and persevere in the face of adversity (Bandura, 1986). The concept of efficacy has been studied for centuries by psychologist trying to improve their understanding of social learning theories adopted by such known theorist as Jean Piaget, B.F. Skinner and Sigmund Freud. More recently, psychologists have formally lead series of studies to determine the relationship between efficacy and humanistic theory. Humanistic theory or human psychology, minimizes the effects of the unconscious mind and focuses on understanding one's place in the world and an individuals relationships with others. The humanist believes that human beings are unique in their development of personal goals,

have a unique sense of self, and often extraordinary potentials (Maslow, 1962). The relationship between the two actually has validity because in both theories, an individual is consciously reflecting and analyzing self. The focus on the conscious self acts as a precursor to understanding one's unique existence, place in society and how his/her relationships with others impact change in some way. The studies aforementioned measure efficacy and how it relates to humanistic theory in a variety of ways. They determined that different external influences may effect and change a person's level of efficacy in a given situation.

Frank Pajares and Albert Bandura's, two prominent efficacy psychologists, have studied this concept and research suggests that there are four main influences that control the development of efficacy beliefs. The first influence is a person's mastery experiences or personal successes. Mastering and accomplishing given tasks influence self-efficacy because the more a person accomplishes a task, the more likely their confidence will increase when they are asked to complete the task again. Thus, repetitiveness increases a persons' efficacy levels because the more a concept or task is repeated, the more likely the self-efficacy of an individual will increase. The second influence is vicarious experiences or observation of social models. Observation of how a given tasks is to be done increases self-efficacy because the observers are not actually performing the task themselves and they are able to watch and follow along instead of completing the task alone. Social persuasion or positive verbal appraisal is the third factor that influences a person's self-efficacy levels. The more a person is praised for his or her accomplishments, the more likely the individual will gain confidence in their ability to accomplish the given task. Finally, self-reflection is the final factor that influences self-

efficacy. A person's thoughts of himself reflects the heaviest on how he or she perceives his/her ability to accomplish a given task.

These influences determine how a person views his or her own abilities to accomplish a given task, make rational decisions and even set goals. The concept of ability is not a fixed attribute in one's repertoire, but rather, is a generative capability in which cognitive, motivational, emotional and behavioral skills must be organized and effectively orchestrated to serve diverse purposes (Bandura, 1977). Persons who have a high level of efficacy will set their goals high even during difficulties will pursue challenges, will overcome them and recover from failure with the attitude that they must learn from their mistakes. On the other hand, a person who possesses a low efficacy level will be vulnerable to stress and depression because due to their lack of successes, they perceive themselves as incapable of accomplishing the task and thus don't attempt to do well. Students are prime examples of entities who must experience many successes to divert the risk of decreased self-efficacy. Students should be praised and their personal perceptions should continually be nurtured to assure they take risks in life.

Teachers play a significant role in the way student's perceive and motivate themselves because they are the models in which students observe when attaining knowledge. For example, if a math teacher does not exhibit confidence in his/her ability to teach the subject of math because of low self-efficacy and lack motivation to teach the subject, the actions of teachers with low efficacy will be modeled, observed and reflected to the students who are being taught. Moreover, when parents have experienced minimal successes in a given subject, their efficacy level will show in their actions and verbal responses when their child asks for help.   This can have a negative impact on the way the

child perceives his/her abilities to perform and can cause an additional hurdle for the student who may have a double problem when the teacher and the parent have low self-efficacy. This will lead the child to believe that perhaps math is not a personal strength; thus decreasing his/her possibilities of performing well if not capable of doing such a task.

Researchers have been able to relate this concept of efficacy to the educational setting through two major concepts. Instead of Banduras' self-efficacy, the terminology adopted by Gibson and Dembo (1984) is teacher-efficacy. Teacher-efficacy is looking at a teacher's belief in his/her ability to impact change in the educational setting. Gibson and Dembo developed a teacher-efficacy scale that measured two distinguishable factors. One factor appeared to represent a sense of whether or not a teacher's ability to bring about change is limited by factors outside his or her control. The second factor seemed to represent a teacher's sense of whether or not he or she personally, has the skills and ability necessary to enhance student learning (Gibson and Dembo, 1984). Most of the reflected beliefs about education, in a general sense, have been measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scales created by Gibson and Dembo; with the result that self-efficacy is situation specific and cannot be identified in general terms (Welch, 1995). Welch means that if this study were conducted elsewhere, a different setting, and a different area the results may not be similar.

Another major concept that has manifested itself within the vocabulary of many researchers more recently is collective efficacy. Collective Efficacy is the perception of teachers in a school that the efforts of the faculty as a whole will have a positive effect on student learning (Brinson & Steiner, 2007). This type of efficacy looks at the building

staff perceptions and states that if collective efficacy is high in a building, meaning the majority of the staff, including the administrators, believe that collectively they are capable of improving the school environment, the students will indirectly be impacted by their efforts and in turn increase their motivation to achieve. On the other hand, if collectively the staff feels less empowered to make the necessary changes in the building and they also feel a lack of collegial support amongst their staff, the school environment will not improve and the students will be negatively impacted by the staff efforts and their motivation will decrease.

Both forms of efficacy have been researched to determine if they impact student achievement. In most cases, there is a strong correlation between efficacy in any form, student motivation and student achievement. The topic of efficacy and student motivation is one that is discussed greatly in research because there is an educational push to determine the major factors that impact a students desire to learn in the classroom. Students spend a significant amount of their waking hours with their teacher throughout the week, hence efficacy would definitely be a factor that can impact a students motivation to succeed. Yet, how much does it influence student motivation; do administrators play a part in increasing or decreasing a teachers efficacy; does a teachers method of teaching determine levels of motivation, does his/her morale play a role and do teachers even believe that they have the ability to motivate students or do they feel that motivation is more intrinsic?

<u>Objective of the Study</u>

The objective of this study is to determine to what extent certain factors impact urban teachers' self-efficacy and how those factors may affect a teachers' ability to motivate the students in their classroom. There is one primary question that guides the research. The question attempts to determine how 5 designed dimensions of influence impacts teacher efficacy. These 5 dimensions include motivation beliefs, teacher power, administrative support, teacher morale and a teacher's teaching methods. Since a teachers' self-efficacy may be related to other factors, such as ethnicity, age, gender, experience, previous experiences, level of education, subject taught and grade level, these teacher characteristics will be treated as control variables in the study.

<u>Research Questions and Hypothesis</u>

RESEARCH QUESTION: How do the 5 dimensions of influence impact teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation?

      A. A teacher's motivation beliefs do not influence teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation.

      B. A teacher's perceived level of power does not influence a teacher's efficacy as it relates to student motivation.

      C. The level of administrative support does not influence teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation.

      D. Teacher morale does not in influence teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation.

E. A teacher's teaching method does not influence teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation.

Limitations

1. The study is limited to teachers in two school districts in Northeastern Ohio.

2. The primary urban district of choice is on the verge of dropping into a continuous improvement status from ranking Effective this past year according to the Ohio Schools Effectiveness ranking system (OSE). This is due to its poor Ohio Assessment and Graduation Test scores. This may cause survey responses to be negatively bias due to external district stressors. The second urban district is currently in academic emergency, which is the lowest rank according to OSE ranking system.

Significance of the Study

Bandura stated that individual efficacy is highly associated with teacher motivation, which in turn affects student achievement (Bandura, 1993, 1997). Teachers with a strong sense of individual efficacy tend to spend more time planning, designing, and organizing what they teach. They are open to new ideas, willing to try new strategies, set high goals, and persist through setbacks and times of change (Goddard, Hoy & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Ultimately, those teachers who put forth the additional effort to develop lessons that are successful and who are motivated to make changes when necessary to improve their instruction, have the likelihood of increasing student motivation. In the classroom, motivation is the key to assuring students will put forth the effort to perform well on state mandated tests or even pursue the honor roll. If teachers are unable to motivate their students to perform, the child stands to lose a year of needed subject specific skills to help them later in their academic career. Moreover, if the teacher is not motivated to teach, s/he will not put forth the efforts necessary to build relationships, organize effective lessons or develop management strategies to assure minimum classroom disruption. Unmotivated teachers will also be more unlikely to build relationships with their students; which is definitely an important factor to successful teaching in the urban settings.

Understanding to what extent certain factors impact efficacy has implications for not only the teachers, but administrators as well. If certain factors, such as administrative support or teaching style, affect efficacy more significantly, then administrators can better design their school year to include additional efforts to improve support activities geared to the needs of their staff. This study could also assist administrators in revealing

the building collective efficacy measures as well. If the majority of their staff has low

individual efficacy, the buildings collective efficacy is definitely impacted. With that

information, further research can be conducted to better understand why there is low

efficacy and what can be done to increase individual and building efficacy levels to have

a higher likelihood of increasing overall student achievement.

Summary

Efficacy research has become very popular and should be continually reviewed and discussed to further understand the needs of educators who are directly impacting the students in urban settings. Moreover, educators do not stand alone in their efforts to increase achievement and help those with whom they teach; administrators must also take responsibility and carry a portion of the accountability for low student achievement in urban schools. The cliché, success starts from the top, is definitely very true because when administrators empower those whom they supervise, the energy is manifested in the classroom.

Motivation is very important in and out of the classroom setting. Yet, it does not only start in or out of the classroom, it starts within the teacher. Students who attend classes that they enjoy because the teacher is engaging and noticeably loves what they do, have students who are motivated and engaged to perform well. Although everyone is motivated in different ways, a teacher is usually a catalyst to changing a student who would normally not be motivated to perform, to one who makes every effort to succeed because now s/he believes that they can. If every classroom could be staffed with a motivated and empowered teacher who in turn, motivates and empowers his/her students, the achievement gap would close much quicker than it is now.

Efficacy research is very important to changing the face of education and helping the urban child achieve at higher levels academically; and our primary goal as educators should be to consistently identify weaknesses within ourselves and collectively to assure that all students are receiving the best possible education that a public institution can offer. Understanding these weaknesses and strengthening them to become better

educators and administrators will motivate our students to become higher achievers and competitive entities in a global society.

Definition of Terms:

Self-Efficacy: Ones self-judgment of personal capabilities to initiate and successfully perform specific tasks at designated levels, expend greater effort, and persevere in the face of adversity. (Bandura, 1986)

Teacher Efficacy: A teachers ability to impact change in the educational setting. (Gibson & Dembo, 1984)

Collective Efficacy: The perception of teachers in a school that the efforts of the faculty as a whole will have a positive effect on student learning. (Brinson & Steiner, 2007)

Teacher Burnout: A teachers decline in motivation, low morale, low productivity, high absenteeism and a diminished sense of accomplishment. (Haberman, 2010)

Motivation: The forces that account for the arousal, selection, direction and continuation of behavior. (Biehler & Snowman, 1997)

Engaging Work: Work that stimulates curiosity, permits students to express their creativity, and develop positive working relationships with others. (Strong, Silver & Robinson, 1995)

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A study conducted by the Center for Effective Schools at the University of Washington in 1992 surveyed 87 elementary and secondary schools in four urban school districts in Chicago, Detroit, Indianapolis and Milwaukee. A large percentage of the 2378 teachers who responded to the survey did not have high expectations for the academic achievement of students in their schools. After analysis, the results suggested that teachers in urban schools-regardless of grade level had lower expectations for their students.

"Forces and Factors Affecting Ohio Proficiency Test Performance: A Study of 593 Ohio School Districts", a comparison study of predominately black schools, predominately white schools and their proficiency scores was conducted by Randy L. Hoover in 1997. Hoover found that the larger the percentage of black students in a given district, the lower the proficiency scores. Conversely, the larger the percentage of white students in a given district, the higher the proficiency scores.

Within both studies, the urban child was the student who lost out on an equitable quality education and the possible primary factors that may surround student's inability to successfully achieve in urban districts are low teacher efficacy coupled with low teacher expectations. The decline in these two major areas of a teacher's personal beliefs have an impact on student motivation and student achievement as evidenced by the two formerly mentioned studies. Numerous factors play a role in altering a teacher's personal beliefs or self-efficacy. This study examined five factors that directly or indirectly increased or decreased a teacher's self-efficacy: Motivation, Administrative Support, Teachers Perception of their personal power, Teacher Morale, and the Teacher's Teaching Method. By possibly observing the aforementioned factors, the appropriate steps to developing effective methods to help minimize the occurrence of a decline in self-efficacy can ensue.

Motivation and The Urban Child

Motivation is typically defined as the forces that account for the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behavior (Biehler & Snowman, 1997). The level of motivation a child has, determines how successful that child will be in accomplishing a given task. A teacher has an impact on helping a child remain motivated through the use of creative activities that include engaging work, work that is interesting to them and relates to their personal experiences.

Phil Schlecty has become the forerunner in methods that motivate students to learn with his research on engaging work. Schlecty (1994) found that students who are motivated to learn are very engaged in their work. When engagement has occurred, students have a tendency to exhibit three characteristics: (1) they are attracted to their

work, (2) they persist in their work despite challenges and obstacles, and (3) they take visible delight in accomplishing their work.   As noted previously, high achievement is consistent with teachers who have high teacher morale, efficacy and motivation.

In a study conducted in 1992 by Jerome Stiller and Richard Ryan entitled, *Teachers, Parents, and Student Motivation: The Effects of Involvement and Autonomy Support,* they found that an academic environment that was experienced in providing student choice had the most impact on student motivation. Autonomy was also a variable observed in the study and it was found that this factor significantly influenced student motivation as well (Stiller and Ryan, 1992). Choice and autonomy allows students to think for themselves and make decisions based on what they perceive to be a viable way of better understanding and learning a given concept. If more teachers would allow for these two options within the classroom, according to the aforementioned study, student motivation would increase and students would be more prone to desire being a part of the educational setting.

In another study conducted in 1995 by Candice Logan and others entitled, *The Relationship between Teacher Perceptions and Observations of Motivational Practices in the Classroom,* they found that autonomy and decision-making in the classroom had a strong influence on student motivation. In addition, they found that student ownership of ideas, student confidence and independence in thinking (cognitive autonomy) encouraged higher amounts of motivation in students. The data also suggested that supporting cognitive autonomy may be an essential catalyst that leads to a heightened master-orientation and deeper thinking (Logan, 1995). With that in mind, more educators designing their classroom methods around student autonomy to promote individual

thinking and leadership could increase not only their student's motivation levels, but their belief in their abilities to motivate the students.

<u>The Impact of Administrative Support and Perceived Teacher Power on Teacher Efficacy</u>

Administrative support can be viewed differently by different people, especially when one is looking at the concept through the eyes of their position, teacher or administrator. Pat Hensley (2008) wrote an article that asked, *What does Administrative Support mean?* In his article, he defined what administrative support meant from a teacher's and administrator's perspective to show the differences in the way educators look at support given by administration. He defined a teachers' view of administrative support as: (a) Administration backing the teacher if there is a conflict between a student and/or parent. (b) Administrative consistency in student discipline. (c) Available and accessible materials to be able to do his/her job. (d) Uninterrupted planning time to plan effective lessons for class (not being asked to cover other teacher's classes due to the lack of substitutes in the district). (e) Time to collaborate with faculty to align lessons and units. (f) Not being asked to attend meetings that are irrelevant to the teaching positions. (g) Given duties around the school at the same frequency as other teacher's in the building. (h) Fair evaluation which is based on the abilities of the teacher during the current year. (i) Ability to approach administrators with ideas, student concerns or problems in confidence and without it being used against the teacher later in the year. (j) Being treated professionally and not like students in the building. (Hensley, 2008)

On the other hand, Hensley found a different view from the administrative standpoint. He found that administrators believe support is: (a) Allowing the discipline of students to be left up to the teacher because teachers are trusted by administration. (b)

Allowing teacher's to deal with the students and parents so that administrators can concentrate on the school as whole. (c) Allowing teachers to request the materials they need when they need it because administration is not aware of the needs within each department until they are notified. (d) making sure that the school is run properly so that teachers have the ability to teach. (e) making sure all departments have what they need, within the allotted budget. (f) making the best decisions that will affect the most people in a positive way. (g) planning a school schedule that will affect the most people in a positive way. (h) expecting teachers to act professionally and not like students. (Hensley, 2008) Views on how administrative support is perceived is very different depending on the position the individual possesses. The difference in the way administrative support is perceived can definitely cause a disconnect in the way situations are handled. Due to this disconnect, teachers can easily become frustrated and disappointed in their efforts to explain what is best for the students they serve and the lack of collaboration that may stem from the disconnect can cause a decline in the teacher's self-efficacy.

A qualitative study conducted by Wilson and Coolican (1996) entitled, *How High and Low Self-Empowered Teachers Work with Colleagues and School Principals*, found that high and low self-empowered teachers view administrative support very differently. Identifying the terms high and low self-empowered teachers as the central points of their study, teachers were given surveys that identified if they were high or low, and then specific teachers were selected from the survey group to participate in the study because of their scores. They found that the high self-empowered teachers felt that working with principals was important to improve decisions made about students or the school. They

18

actually valued working with principals in a collegial manner and believed that it positively improves the school climate.   On the other hand, low self-empowered teachers viewed working with their school principal as being hierarchal. They saw the principal as a separate entity and that the best thing to do is to avoid encounters with the principal at all cost and to "play by the rules" so their jobs won't be in jeopardy (Wilson & Coolican, 1996).

In a school with high self-empowered teachers, there would be a higher exertion of energy to assure the success of the students in the building because they would spend more time working cooperatively with the principals to develop methods to improve the school environment. On the other hand, the level of energy exerted by low self-empowered teachers would more likely be minimal because they shy away from administrative interactions, hence with no communication and dialogue, there would be little to no progress.

Support from administration is an important factor that helps teacher's achieve their goal of helping students. Feeling valued, respected and appreciated are all intrinsic parts of an individuals being and an administrator's ability to focus on the intrinsic elements of his/her educators will motivate them to desire more for their students. Administrators have an obligation to not only educate their staff on ways to productively execute high levels of teaching through the sharing of best practice methods; they also have a duty to empower their teachers as well. The type of support given by administrators has been proven to improve the school climate by empowering its teachers to participate in the organization of the school. Such empowering behaviors include allowing teachers to make decisions regarding school policies and procedures,

curriculum, and student discipline. Administrator's must create an open climate that

enables information to flow smoothly, engage in planning and evaluation process that

help to create a shared commitment to organizational goals, and motivate employees such

that they have pride in their accomplishments and are able to accomplish their work with

confidence (Davis & Wilson, 2000). Moreover, studies have shown that the more

administrator's engaged in behaviors that were personally empowering to the teacher, the

more likely the teacher would see that they had choices they could make in completing

their work and the greater the impact they perceived they were making through their

personal efforts (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Farrell & Weitman, 2007).

Shared decision making is another term that is analogous with the educational

movement to create a school environment that empowers its teachers, and administrative

support through the sharing of decisions is a key component. From a teacher's

standpoint, assisting in decision making helps support the belief that their contribution is

important, hence increasing their self-efficacy. It also helps bridge the communication

gap between administrator and teacher to better openly dialog about the effectiveness of

the school environment procedures. Unfortunately, there is a great deal of concern over

what decisions teachers should be allowed involvement, thus many schools are

implementing methods that allow teachers to participate only minimally. This defeats the

purpose of creating an environment where teachers feel that their input is valued in the

workplace, hence decreasing efficacy.

Since 1987, terms such as shared leadership in education, distributive leadership

and teachers as partners have emerged as major terms to show the direction taken by

public education officials to better unite administrators and teachers as one team.

Research has proven that teacher empowerment through shared decision making has been positively related to enhanced teacher self-esteem, increased teacher knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy, stronger staff collegiality, improved curriculum and instruction and higher student achievement (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1986).   Many people in the field of education espouse that leadership plays an important role in self-efficacy.

According to an article written by Farrell and Weitman (2007) entitled, *Action Research Fosters Empowerment and Learning Communities*, the definition of power or empowerment for an educator is increased teacher access to decision making, increased teacher knowledge, and increased teacher status. Each have a tremendous impact on the way a teacher perceives him or herself which directly translates into their self-efficacy beliefs. A teacher who has the power to make decisions in his/her classroom and make policy decision that effect the school environment has been proven to change the culture of the school. The level of perceived power a teacher feels that they possess motivates them to want more for their students. The teacher becomes more open to changes within the school environment and they are more willing to collaborate with administration. There is definitely power in the belief that one's opinions and/or suggestions within a given situation are valued; and because of the value placed on an individuals thoughts, they are more willing to complete tasks at an attempted level of perfection.

Despite the positive benefits of including teachers in decision making to improve the school environment, increase their perceived level of power and increase student achievement, recent studies are showing distributive leadership that includes teachers is still not occurring. A study entitled, *Teacher Principal Empowerment: National,*

Longitudinal and Comparative Perspectives by Jianping Shen (2001), examined at the

evolution of teacher leadership in education. He found that teacher leadership has not

changed and teachers still believe that they have more power over making decisions in

the classroom than they do in the school overall. Shen also found that out of 50,000

surveyed teachers, only 35% of them indicated that they had much influence on

schoolwide policy issues such as setting discipline policies, determining the content of

the in-service programs and establishing curriculum. Conversely, he found that the

percentage of teachers who reported they had much influence on classroom issues ranged

from 54% to 87% (Shen, 2001). These findings strengthen the point that although much

is being said about including teachers in decision making, not many administrative

leaders are practicing the proven theory. In most cases, administrators may not want to

give up their power to teachers because they may feel that their authority will be

undermined in some way.

<div align="center">The Impact of Collective Efficacy on Teacher Efficacy</div>

In 2007, collective efficacy was defined by The Center For Comprehensive

School Reform and Improvement as the perception of teachers in a school that the efforts

of the faculty, as a whole, will have a positive effect on student learning. Although the

amount of research that correlates collective efficacy and student achievement is

minimal, it can be assumed that if teacher's possess high levels of personal efficacy in

addition to strong levels of collective efficacy beliefs, achievement will more than likely

be effected in a positive way. Moreover, collective efficacy and teacher efficacy are

positively correlated in that if a teacher possesses high teacher efficacy, it is more than

likely s/he will possess strong collective efficacy. Similarly, if a teacher possesses low

teacher efficacy, it is more than likely they will have weak collective efficacy as well. In

some cases, the teacher could have low personal efficacy, but still strongly believe in the

faculty and staffs ability to do their jobs.

According to a study conducted by Dana Brinson and Lucy Steiner (2007), there

were positive benefits for fostering a school environment with strong collective efficacy.

They found that strong collective efficacy improves student performance, ameliorates the

negative effects of low socioeconomic status, enhances parent/teacher relationships and

creates a work environment that builds teacher commitment to the school. Furthermore,

strong collective efficacy encourages individual teachers to more effectively deploy the

skills they already have, find new ways to tackle difficult challenges, and share what they

know with others. Collective efficacy is a key to unlocking the existing talents of

individual teachers and building their commitment to the schools success (Brinson and

Steiner, 2007). Hence, collective efficacy can have a positive impact on a teacher's

personal efficacy because they will feel supported, open to changes, and respected as

educators. The support given will motivate them to become positive contributors to the

whole school environment.

<u>The Impact of Teacher Morale on Teacher Efficacy</u>

In an article entitled, *Positive Teacher Morale: The Principals Responsibility,*

Washington and Watson (1976) defines *morale* as the feeling a worker has about his job

based on how the worker perceives himself in the organization and the extent to which

the organization is viewed as meeting the worker's own needs and expectations

(Washington and Watson, 1976). Hence, how a teacher perceives him/herself in a given teaching environment is based on if their needs as professionals are being met and this makes them feel either good or bad about their abilities. If a teacher does not feel that his/her needs are being met, i.e., decisions are not respected, suggestions are not recognized, limited resources available to be effective, lack of administrative support, a teacher's morale will decrease because their perception is that their needs are being neglected. Overall morale will decrease as will their efficacy because they feel that their ability to be successful is minimized.

The benefits of high staff morale definitely outweigh that of the alternative. Administrators and supervisors who constantly make efforts to increase staff morale reap the benefits of increased achievement, increased teacher efficacy, increased collective efficacy and an overall positive work environment. All the former components give way to increased achievement because teachers will be more willing to educate their students. According to a study conducted by William Miller (1981), "teacher morale can have a positive effect on pupil attitudes and learning. Raising teacher morale level is not only making teaching more pleasant for teachers, but also learning more pleasant for students. This creates an environment more conducive to learning." (Miller, 1981).   In an article entitled *Factors Affecting Teacher Morale* found that where morale is high, schools showed an increase in student achievement; in addition, morale and achievement were related (Ellenberg, 1972).

There are various factors that can impact how teacher morale changes. Job stress, student behaviors, school climate, amount of workload and salary can increase or decrease a teacher's morale. For example, student attitudes have a direct impact on a

teacher's morale even more so than administration at times. In an article written by Kaye Jones (2011) entitled, *What affects Teacher Morale"*, she found that "when teachers are faced with poor student behavior, apathy or low levels of motivation in the classroom their morale is negatively affected (Jones, 2011). When a teachers' morale declines due to lack of control in the classroom and minimal administrative support, self-efficacy declines causing the teacher to become more ineffective in the classroom. Another issue that causes a decline in morale is not having the opportunity to make decisions in the school environment. Decision making supports a teacher's desires to be a part of the school dynamic and ultimately increases or decreases teacher efficacy. According to Richard Ingersoll's (2007) article, *Short on Power, Long on Responsibility*, he found that a teacher's sense of commitment and student behavioral problems are all linked to teacher control (Ingersoll, 2007). The more control a teacher perceives that they have in the school environment the higher the likelihood of high teacher morale. The more decisions teachers are able to be a part of, increases their sense of the control they have and the commitment they will make in and to the school environment. Ultimately, Kaye Jones (2011) found that teacher efficacy is linked to high levels of morale.

Principals have the ability to increase teacher morale in a way that can directly benefit students. Actively standing behind teachers when they are in need of support, minimizing micromanagement, respecting the decisions of educators, and finally "…principals should serve as guardians of teachers instructional time, assist teachers with student discipline matters, allow teachers to develop discipline codes and support teachers' authority in enforcing policy" (Blasé & Kirby, 1992). Self-efficacy is affected by a teacher's morale and the more administrators begin to create positive experiences

that allow teachers to make decisions and have control over various elements of the school dynamic, the higher the likelihood for increased achievement.

The Impact of A Teacher's Teaching Method on Teacher Efficacy

There has not been much research regarding how a teacher's teaching method or way of teaching effects teacher efficacy. However, it has been found in numerous research articles that the way a teacher teaches can directly impact student achievement.

Education on Cultural Diversity: A Definite Necessity

It is very pertinent that educators understand the learning styles of the culturally diverse students that they encounter each year. With today's black student achievements being significantly lower than the dominant culture, there must be a problem that is not being considered. Lack of cultural understanding has become a major contributor to the low self-image of many black youths (Regional Education Laboratory, 2001). Black History Month cannot continue to be the only infusion of black culture when dealing with the black child. Black children's heritage does not exist for one month, they live it everyday of their lives and must be immersed in their culture in order to understand their inherent identities.

When teachers' beliefs or personal insecurities hinder their ability to include cultural necessities, it unwittingly decreases the self-efficacy of the black child. Many black youth have barely mastered the norms of their own culture when they are confronted with teaching styles that are incompatible with their accepted learning patterns (Hale-Benson, 1982). In her book, Black Children: Their Roots, Culture and

Learning Styles, Janice Hale-Benson suggests that formal education has not worked for many black youth because it has not employed teaching styles that correspond with student learning styles. Due to this complex predicament, the black child begins to question their self-worth and with this questioning comes lower efficacy in their ability to excel in school. In addition, Hale-Benson included that when black youth find learning difficult, they blame themselves and/or develop animosity toward the educational environment.

If teachers do not make an effort to become more culturally diverse, the expectations of educators who teach in predominately black schools will remain negative and unfortunately the black child will continue to fail. Cultural sensitivity and understanding the concept of "belonging" to a cultural entity must be infused to help increase the achievement levels of black children.

The Effects of Low Teacher Efficacy and Expectations on the Achievement of the Urban Child

Most teachers enter the profession with the hopes and dreams to change a child's life forever. When reality hits, lack of resources, lack of vision and parental involvement, which is prevalent in predominately black school settings, decreased efficacy will ensue. Teachers ultimately will experience a decline in their personal beliefs in their ability to help their students. A teachers' efficacy measurement is directly related to the expectations they have of themselves. If their expectations are high, their efficacy measurement will be high as well. High efficacy measurements directly benefit the students the teacher interacts with because teacher's who have high efficacy are usually more organized and very knowledgeable about their subject matter. On the other hand if

a teacher has low-efficacy, their expectations of themselves as well as their students will be low.

Low teacher efficacy increases the likelihood that children will be treated differently. Differential treatment by teachers may negatively affect the behavior and learning of students who are especially looked upon as low achieving. The effects of negative teacher behaviors is that low expectations students are given fewer opportunities to interact and participate in classroom activities and as a result make less effort to get the teachers attention (Smey-Richman, 1989). Low expectations of students have been shown to reduce the motivation of students to learn, destroys student egos and contributes to the loss of positive cultural and racial identity in students (Regional Educational Laboratory, 2001). In addition, teacher perception of students will heighten deferential treatment of students in the classroom. For instance, studies in the Journal of Negro Education found that both black and white teachers perceived that schools and schooling, in general, valued neatness, conformity, particular concepts of beauty or appearance, attitudes, language and behavior. Both white and black teachers viewed black males as most negatively different from the valued characteristics and white females as the most positive (Washington, 1982).

Other cultures also witness the same psychological changes of students when teachers enter the classroom with low expectations. *Low Expectations by Teachers Within an Academic Context*, a study conducted by Wallace C. Strong, researched the relationships of teachers and students in the Native American Culture. Strong (1993) found that Native American students were told in both direct and indirect ways that they were not worthy or good at anything. The efficacy measurements of the teacher's who

expressed these thoughts were very low because the students were not expected to achieve. Hence, their expectations of the students were low and the Native American students continued to fail.

Similarly, Jacqueline Jordon Irvine (1985) found that black students receive more negative behavioral feedback and more mixed messages than white students. In addition females receive significantly less total communication, less praise, less negative behavioral feedback, less neutral procedure feedback and less nonacademic feedback (Regional Education Library, 2001). This, ultimately, gives black students the feeling that no matter what positive actions they try to achieve, the negative will always overshadow their efforts to do better.

A teacher's lack of support, lack of cultural awareness and lack of personal belief or confidence gives rise to the reason why many black children may not be achieving up to the standards for which they are capable. A number of factors, such as tracking, standardized test results and a student's previous school history, alter a teacher's beliefs in a student's ability to accomplish various tasks. Unfortunately, the beliefs that a teacher possesses cause them to unconsciously stigmatize and alienate young black children.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

<u>Introduction</u>

This chapter discusses the research methodology that drove the research study. It states the research questions, instruments used to collect data and how the data was analyzed. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between teacher efficacy and student achievement by looking at a number of external factors that influence a teacher's belief in their ability to motivate children to perform. There was a primary question that guided the research study. The question attempted to determine how 5 designed dimensions of influence impacted teacher efficacy. The 5 dimensions included teacher beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students, teacher's perceived level of power, administrative support, teacher morale and a teacher's teaching methods. Since a teachers' self-efficacy may be related to other factors, such as ethnicity, age, experience, previous experiences, level of education, subject taught and grade level, these teacher characteristics were treated as control variables in the study. The following

procedures were used in this study: (a) The Research Questions and Hypothesis, (b)

Sample, (c) Instrumentation, (d) Data Collection and (e) Data Analysis Summary.

<u>Research Questions and Hypothesis</u>

Research Question: How do the 5 dimensions of influence impact teacher
efficacy as it relates to student motivation?

      A. A teacher's beliefs about their ability to motivate

         urban students does not influence teacher efficacy as

         it relates to student motivation.

      B. A teacher's perceived level of power does not

         influence a teacher's efficacy as it relates to student

         motivation.

      C. The level of administrative support does not influence

         teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation.

      D. Teacher morale does not in influence teacher efficacy

         as it relates to student motivation.

      E. A teacher's teaching method does not influence

         teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation.

The subject's were chosen for two primary reasons. Studies have shown that in the urban setting, teacher's have access to limited resources, minimal planning time, minimal time to collaborate with their peers and higher incidents of disciplinary issues in the classroom that causes class disruptions. These factors can increase the likelihood that teacher's in urban settings will have lower efficacy, lower motivation to teach and a higher chance of burnout early in their career. Ultimately, teachers possessing the aforementioned factors could possibly have lower efficacy and lower achieving students. This study examined teacher efficacy and motivation, hence, the group of teacher's selected were from two urban school districts in Northeastern Ohio. The researchers target population included 2 separate school districts with a total of 500 educators qualified to participate in the study. The goal was to have a sample size of at least 240 participants due to the number of items on the survey.

Another reason why the urban teachers were chosen was the administrative support component. In most urban districts, administrators are overworked and have minimal time to observe classrooms outside of the mandatory teacher observations, lead curriculum based professional development or even have staff meetings that deal with discussing student achievement methods. Most of the time it is because they have two many students that they are supervising, many parent/student issues to deal with and too much paperwork to organize, so they end up losing out on the opportunity to provide quality administrative support. The results from the urban teacher's assessment of how

strongly their administrators support their needs will determine how their efficacy measurements will change.

The sample subjects range from new teachers to veteran teachers. Some veteran teachers have been in the district for over 30 years. The teacher's selected use a variety of teaching methods to reach their students in an attempt to increase achievement.

<center>Instrumentation</center>

The instrument used for the collection of the data was developed and modified before it was actually finalized. What had begun as a 52 item list of statements geared to measure the areas of focus (see Appendix A), ended up as a 46 item likert scale survey (see Appendix B) which had a response selection ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Construct Validity

Construct validity defines how well a test or experiment measures up to its claims. It refers to whether the operational definition of a variable actually reflects the true theoretical meaning of a concept (Shuttleworth, 2009). In order to assure the validity and reliability of the instrument, the researcher conducted two independent pilot studies which were approved by the superintendent of the urban district. The purpose of the first study was to test the construct validity of the research items to assure the items were valid. This pre-pilot validation study was conducted on May 5th, 2011 with 5 urban teachers. The teachers were asked to organize the pre-developed survey items divided into 12 envelopes each. Each teacher was given one envelope at a time to place the items

under 5 construct groups to see if the items would measure the item intended. The 5 construct groups: Motivation, Power, Administrative Support, Teacher Morale, and Classroom Methods. (See Table I).

Once all items were filed into their selected category and the teacher's had left, the results were tallied against the developed survey. There were 2 items that the word "sometimes" was removed under the power construct. The word was removed to assure clarity of the item.   Item number IIe-OLD::*Sometimes I feel like other people are really making the important decisions in my classroom./NEW: I feel like other people are really making the important decisions in my classroom.* Item number IIf--OLD *Sometimes I feel that I do not have the opportunity to be creative in my classroom./NEW: I feel that I do not have the opportunity to be creative in my classroom.* There were 4 items that were eliminated altogether because they were not good measures of the category.

- ➢ MOTIVATION CONSTRUCT
  - o A. I feel that I am able to motivate any student in my classroom.
  - o C. Most of my students understand what I teach and it motivates them to do well.

- ➢ ADMINISTRATIVE CONSTRUCT
  - o G. The administrative staff has favorites in the building.
  - o H. I am involved in a number of school-wide activities that help the administrators do their jobs more effectively.

Based on the pre-pilot, the items remaining after review were reliable and measured what they were intended to measure.

Construct Reliability

The construct reliability is the degree of consistency between two measures of the same thing (Mehrens and Lehman, 1987). After re-developing the survey following the pre-pilot, the researcher conducted a more formal instrument to conduct a pilot study. Fifty-six teachers represented the target sample for the formal pilot study. The reliability analysis was used to group similar items together to find a "fair" or "reliable" measurement of self-efficacy. Items from the survey were grouped by using the pre-pilot study and the Cronbach Alpha was used to measure reliability. The Cronbach Alpha reliability indices for the 5 constructs are presented in Table I. A week was allotted as the completion time for the anonymous survey. Thirty teachers completed the survey by the end of the week. The researcher stored the data for the pilot using SPSS output of Cronbach's Alpha in order to conduct the statistical analysis.

In order to test for the rate of reliability among the 5 construct groups, the researcher used Cronbach Alpha coefficients. Cronbach Alpha is the measure of the internal consistency of a group of items or how strongly a group of items correlate (Cronbach, 1951). According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) and Fraenkel & Wallen (2003), they suggested that .70 and above is an acceptable reliability coefficient to use when examining the correlational strength of a group of items. In most cases, depending on the discipline of study, .70 is considered reliable and anything lower is unacceptable.

35

TABLE I

**Identified Dimensions of Teachers' Self-Efficacy and their
Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficients**

Dimensions	# of Items	Reliability Alpha
C1: Motivational Beliefs	11	.78
C2: Perceived Level of Power	6	.81
C3: Administrative Support	10	.93
C4: Teacher Morale	15	.78
C5: Classroom Methods	3	.61

Findings of the Pilot Study

      The researcher found that 4 of the 5 constructs were acceptable with a Cronbach's Alpha scores of .70 or above in reliability (see Table I). The construct of classroom methods had 5 items and an Alpha of .25, which is much lower than the acceptable measurement. The researcher chose to delete 2 items from the construct to increase the reliability of the group of items to .61. Items 4 (*I believe that the lecture/whole class instruction is the best method to improve student motivation*) and 19 (*I believe frequent small group instruction is the best method that will improve student motivation*) under classroom methods, were removed to increase the reliability of this construct and the items in this construct decreased from 5 items to 3. Although this construct is not as strong as the other 4 coefficients, it will still be used in the study.

      The other 4 constructs were proven to be acceptable measures according to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) and Fraenkel & Wallen (2003) who state that acceptable reliability coefficients are at least .70. Teacher morale included 15 items and had a Cronbach's Alpha of .77. Administrative support included 10 items and had a Cronbach's Alpha of .92. Power was a 6 item construct and had a Cronbach's Alpha of .81. Motivation included 11 items and had a Cronbach's Alpha of .70 as noted in Table I.

<u>Final Study Instrumentation</u>

      Due to the changes made during the pre-pilot and pilot study, the survey was a 46 item instrument using a likert scale (Likert, 1932) format. The likert scale will range from 1 to 5, with 1 denoting strongly disagree and 5 denoting strongly agree. Participants will be asked to answer 11 demographic questions ranging from their number of years in

the teaching profession to their gender (see Appendix B). There were a total of 5

constructs measured using this instrument that became the basis of this research study. In

order to find if there were different efficacy levels in each of the 5 constructs, a number

of variables representing teacher's individual characteristics as control variables in

assessing efficacy differences were used. The teachers' age, gender, ethnicity, personal

educational background, level of education, number of years in the teaching profession,

grade level, previous experiences and the subject taught were used as control variables in

this study. Each of the 5 constructs of teacher efficacy was treated as dependent variables

of the study with student motivation being the primary independent variable. The 5

construct groups were: Motivation, Power, Administrative Support, Teacher Morale, and

Classroom Methods.

Data Collection

Subjects were selected within 2 predominately black school districts in Northeast,

Ohio. Upon completion and approval of prospectus hearing, the mandatory research

forms were submitted to the Cleveland State University Internal Review Board. The

superintendent of the primary district had already given permission to conduct the formal

study back in March of 2011 during the pre-pilot and pilot studies. Once approval was

granted from the IRB (see Appendix G), every teacher in the primary district and 2

schools from the secondary district were surveyed in order to reach the targeted return

rate of 250 surveys.

Subjects were informed via the cover letter attached that they can withdraw from

the study at anytime. In addition, the informed consent cover page included an

anonymity and confidentiality clause. There was a formal consent form requesting a signature permission page be sent prior to submitting the actual survey to assure permission to use response data. Both the informed consent and the survey were paper clipped to the survey and attached to a brown letter style envelope.

The surveys were labeled with a number on the top right hand corner of the demographics portion of the survey. Primary and secondary district numbers were different just in case a comparative analysis of the two districts would be observed. Surveys were placed in school mailboxes and returned via inner-office school mail. The second district distribution was handled the same way, however, their surveys were collected by a key coordinator and the researcher picked up the completed surveys separately from the informed consents. The time allotted for completion of the survey was 2 weeks. After determining the need for additional responses, another distribution was done with a 1 week time frame of return. As a follow up to assure that participants were reminded to complete the survey, a district-wide email was sent each week. At the secondary school, the key coordinator sent out emails as well.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics to determine the number of teachers who participated based on their age and gender. Frequencies and percentages were used to show the distribution of respondents by demographic characteristics. A Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the relationship between various factors and to determine the level of significance of differences in teachers' efficacy while

controlling for demographics. The 0.05 Alpha level was used as the minimum criteria for statistical significance.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study examined the relationship between teacher efficacy and student achievement by looking at a number of external factors that influenced a teacher's belief in their ability to motivate children to perform. The purpose of Chapter 4 is to discuss the research findings as it relates to each of the specific research questions. However, prior to discussing the findings with respect to the research question, the researcher will begin Chapter 4 with a brief discussion of the sample demographics, analysis of the mean scores among the dimensions of influence, and the rank order of item means among each of the five factor groups.

<u>Sample Demographics</u>

Table II, shows the demographics of the study sample by race. A total of 89 Caucasian teachers and 32 teachers of color participated in the study. Of those teachers, 77% surveyed had only taught in predominately black schools and 7% of the respondents had taught for the first time in predominately black schools. Forty-two percent of the

teachers use lecture/whole class instruction as their primary teaching form. Out of the 121 surveyed respondents, 81% of them were female. Over 66% of the teachers surveyed had less than 15 years of teaching experience and were above the age of 35. Close to half, 46%, of the respondents were over the age of 40. Approximately 79% of the respondents had a Masters Degree. Over 53% of the teachers taught at the elementary level, 30% taught at the middle school level and 17% at the high school level. Over 30% of the teachers miss at least 5 days of school in a given school year. Forty-eight percent of the 121 respondents had taught in 2 or more districts (see Appendix D, general frequencies).

TABLE II   RESPONDENTS DEMOGRAPHIC (Race)

Characteristics	Level	WHITE #	WHITE %	PERSONS OF COLOR #	PERSONS OF COLOR %
Subject Taught	Language Arts/English	10	14%	10	21%
	Math	14	19%	1	2%
	Social Studies/History	6	8%	1	2%
	Science	8	11%	1	2%
	Specials (arts/PE)	7	10%	1	2%
	MH/LD/SBH/SED	8	11%	4	8%
	Vocational	5	7%	0	0%
	All Subjects	14	19%	31	63%
Experience	0-15 years	58	65%	22	69%
	16-20+ years	31	35%	10	31%
Grade Level	Elementary	43	48%	21	66%
	Middle	27	30%	9	28%
	High	19	21%	2	6%
Age	21-35	32	36%	9	28%
	36-40+	57	64%	23	72%
Gender	Male	18	20%	5	16%
	Female	71	80%	27	84%

Characteristics	Level	WHITE		PERSONS OF COLOR	
		#	%	#	%
Degree	Bachelors	14	16%	10	31%
	Masters	74	83%	22	69%
	Ph.D	1	1%	0	0%
Previous Experience	All Predominately Black	64	72%	29	91%
	Other	25	28%	3	9%
Missed Days	0-2 days	19	21%	9	28%
	3-5 days	51	57%	18	56%
	6-8 days	9	10%	5	16%
	9+ days	10	11%	0	0%
Teaching Strategy	Lecture/Whole Class	41	46%	10	31%
	Group Work	23	26%	14	44%
	Inquiry/Project Based	12	13%	3	9%
	Thematic Based	13	15%	5	16%
Districts Taught	0-1	43	48%	20	63%
	2-3	39	44%	12	38%
	4-5	6	7%	0	0%
	6+	1	1%	0	0%

Sixty-three percent of the black teachers taught all subjects, whereas 38% of the Caucasian teachers taught math or all subjects. Of the African American teachers surveyed, 91% of them had only taught in a predominately black school compared to 72% of the surveyed Caucasian teachers. African American teachers in the study used group work as their primary method of teaching their students. On the other hand, 46% of the Caucasian teachers surveyed used lecture/whole class instruction.

Table III, shows the demographic breakdown of respondents by gender. The majority of male and female respondents taught all subjects as opposed to just one subject area. Fifty-two percent of the male respondents had less than ten years of teaching experience compared to 36% of the female respondents. The majority of male respondents were between the ages of 31-40 years of age whereas the majority of female respondents were 40 plus years. Both male and female respondents had primarily advanced degrees, masters and Ph.D's. Eighty-seven percent of the male teachers had only taught in predominately black schools compared to 74% of the female teachers. Fifty-seven percent of the male teachers primarily used lecture/whole class instruction; on the other hand, 61% of the female teachers used other methods such as group work, inquiry, project or thematic based instruction. Forty-eight percent of the male respondents only missed 0-2 days of school in a given year compared to 17% of female respondents. Over 60% of the female teachers had missed between 3 and 5 days of school in a given year.

TABLE III   **RESPONDENTS DEMOGRAPHICS (Gender)**

Characteristics	Level	MALE		FEMALE	
		#	%	#	%
Subject	Language Arts/English	1	4%	19	19%
	Math	6	26%	9	9%
	Social Studies/History	5	22%	2	2%
	Science	2	9%	7	7%
	Specials (arts/PE)	1	4%	7	7%
	MH/LD/SBH/SED	1	4%	11	11%
	Vocational	0	0%	5	5%
	All Subjects	7	30%	38	39%
Experience	0-15 years	18	78%	62	63%
	16-20+ years	5	22%	36	37%
Grade Level	Elementary	9	39%	55	56%
	Middle	8	35%	28	29%
	High	6	26%	15	15%
Age	21-30	4	17%	17	17%
	31-40	10	43%	34	35%
	40+	9	39%	47	48%
Race	Caucasian	18	78%	71	72%
	Persons of color	5	22%	27	28%

		MALE		FEMALE	
Characteristics	Level	#	%	#	%
Degree	Bachelors	8	35%	16	16%
	Masters	15	65%	81	83%
	Ph.D	0	0%	1	1%
Previous Experience	All Predominately Black	20	87%	73	74%
	Other	3	13%	25	26%
Missed Days	0-2 days	11	48%	17	17%
	3-5 days	9	39%	60	61%
	6-8 days	0	0%	14	14%
	9+ days	3	13%	7	7%
Teaching Strategy	Lecture/Whole Class	13	57%	38	39%
	Other	10	43%	60	61%
Districts Taught	0-1	15	65%	48	49%
	2-3	7	30%	44	45%
	4-5	1	4%	5	5%
	6+	0	0%	1	1%

This study attempted to examine the relationships between teacher efficacy and

student achievement by looking at a number of external factors that influence a teacher's

belief in their ability to motivate children to perform. In this section, findings related to

the major research question are presented. Each question under the primary question is

restated followed by findings related to the research question. However, the researcher

will first discuss the mean scores for the five dimensions of influence and also the rank

order of the items means within each of the five dimensions of influence.

Analysis of the Mean Scores

There are two tables related to the mean scores noted in this section. The mean

scores show the average response given by the respondents who took the survey. Table

IV shows the mean scores and standard deviations by each of the five dimensions of

influence.   With a sample of 120 teachers, all five dimensions of influence warranted a

positive rating. The positive rating is validated by the fact that each of the five

dimensions of influence were shown to have mean scores that were greater than 3.50.

The Perceived Level of Power dimension was shown to be the highest rated dimension of

influence with a mean score of 4.61. In contrast, the Motivation dimension was the

lowest rated dimension of influence with a mean score of 3.97. The researcher believes

that it is an important finding that the teachers Perceived Level of Power was the highest

rated dimension of influence because it suggest that the teachers believed that they had

power to make the necessary teaching decisions in their own classroom. The researcher

believes this will become significant when analyzing the other four dimensions of

influence. Finally, the remaining dimensions of influence: Classroom Methods, Teacher

Morale, and Administrative Support warranted mean scores that ranged between 4.07 and

4.48.

<u>TABLE IV</u>

Mean Scores by Dimensions of Influence

Dimension	N	SD	MEAN
Motivation	120	.62	3.97
Perceived Level of Power	120	.83	4.61
Administrative Support	120	1.05	4.07
Teacher Morale	120	.65	4.10
Classroom Methods	120	.85	4.48

Tables V- IX show the rank order mean scores, by item, under each dimension.   In

Table V, item 23 weighed the heaviest on beliefs about motivation.   The range of the

means was between 2.82 and 5.02 and carried a difference of 2.2. The researcher

believes it is important to note that while any mean score above 3.50 is considered a

positive rating by the participants, in contrast any mean score below 3.50 is considered a

negative rating. The majority of the respondents agreed that they could develop activities

that would increase a student's motivation to learn which carried a mean score of 5.02.

However, the respondents disagreed that they were not capable of motivating an

unmotivated student which carried a mean of 2.82. Which makes sense because if a

teacher believes that s/he is capable of developing motivating activities, they would most

likely feel that they could motivate an unmotivated child. The researcher believes it is

important to note that all of the items within the motivation dimension were positively

rated by the participants, except for items 2, 19, and 42. These three items were

originally written as negative items in order to test for a false positive result. Therefore,

the scores for these three items were not reversed prior to means testing. As a result, the

researcher believes that the negative rate on the part of the participants among these three

items is expected with respect to the remaining items measuring the motivation

dimension of influence. Finally, the scores for items 2, 19, and 42 were later reversed in

order to test for the Pearson's Correlation Coefficients with respect to the sample

demographic data.

TABLE V

Dimension I: Motivation Rank Order Mean Scores By Item

ITEM #	ITEM	MEAN SCORE
23	I can develop activities to increase the students' motivation to learn.	5.02
17	I try many new strategies in my classroom to better motivate my students.	4.97
28	Student praise is more prevalent in my classroom than student correction and discipline.	4.24
15	I can motivate my students regardless of the resources I have available to use in the classroom.	4.17
27	I believe that it is the parents' responsibility to motivate their child to learn	4.30
1	My students are motivated to learn.	4.08
4	I can get through to even the most unmotivated student	3.83
9	I believe that it is the students' responsibility to be motivated to learn	3.67
19	I find it difficult to motivate students to learn when they enter my class academically below grade-level.	3.33
2	I find it difficult to motivate students without the appropriate resources.	3.02
42	It is very difficult to motivate an unmotivated student.	2.82

Table VI shows the mean scores, by item, based on a teacher's belief in their ability to make decisions in the classroom. The range of the data in this dimension was 3.80 to 4.90 with a difference of 1.10. The data chart shows that, on average, teachers slightly agreed that they were able to decide what learning assignments that the students could do in the classrooms. However, they slightly disagreed that others were making the decisions for them in their classroom.

TABLE VI

Dimension II: Power Rank Order Mean Scores by Item

ITEM #	ITEM	MEAN SCORE
40	I decide what learning assignments the students will do in my classroom.	4.90
12	I have the opportunity to be creative in my classroom.	4.89
33	I decide the teaching methods to use in my classroom.	4.72
29	I decide how I teach the subject in my classroom.	4.62
22	I feel I can do what I want to do in my classroom.	4.13
16	I feel like other people are really making the important decisions in my classroom.	3.80

Table VII shows that on average many of the respondents slightly disagreed that administrator's support and recognize their professional needs, that they empower them to motivate students in the classroom, and that the administrative staff allows them to participate in the decision-making in the school which carried the lowest

mean of 3.60. However, the majority of the respondents slightly agreed that administrative support does contribute to high staff morale which carried a mean of 4.72. All the items within the Administrative Support dimension of influence had a mean score range of 3.60 to 4.72, with a mean difference of 1.12.

<u>TABLE VII</u>

Dimension III: Administrative Support Rank Order Mean Scores By Item

ITEM #	ITEM	MEAN SCORE
20	I believe the level of administrative support contributes to high staff morale.	4.72
21	School administrators have provided me the opportunity to hold leadership positions.	4.29
25	I believe the school administrators respect my decisions.	4.22
5	I am professionally valued by the administrative staff.	4.18
36	The school administrators support my academic freedom to teach my students.	4.11
10	I believe we have ongoing administrative/teacher collaboration at our school.	4.03
14	I believe the school administrators support my professional needs.	3.94
11	I believe the school administrators recognize my professional accomplishments.	3.86
3	I feel empowered to motivate my students in the classroom because of the school administrative support	3.82
31	The administrators allow me to participate in the decision-making process for school policy.	3.60

In regards to teacher morale, on average most respondents felt that their lessons were well prepared which carried a mean score of 5.18. This item was shown to be the highest score under this dimension. A good point noted in this table is that most of the respondents did not feel overwhelmed by their job duties on average which was the lowest mean of 2.56. The range of this data was between 2.56 and 5.18, with a mean difference of 2.62. All of the items measuring the Teacher Morale dimension of influence were positively rated among the participants, except for items 18, 38, and 41 which had mean scores that fell below the 3.50 threshold.

TABLE VIII

Dimension IV: Teacher Morale Rank Order Mean Scores By Item

ITEM #	ITEM	MEAN SCORE
46	My lessons are well prepared.	5.18
45	I believe that organization is the key to successful teaching.	5.11
43	I am always prepared for class.	5.05
30	I believe that the teachers in my building work hard to help the students succeed.	4.91
39	I feel comfortable making an equal number of positive and negative parent phone calls to balance out discipline issues.	4.77
37	I leave work feeling positive about what my students have learned.	4.36
8	I am very satisfied with my job.	4.29
35	I leave work feeling positive about what my students have learned.	4.19
24	The conditions of my workplace are conducive to executing high levels of quality instruction.	4.18
13	Parents are very receptive to my concerns about how their child is doing in my class.	4.02
7	Our staff works as a cohesive unit to improve our school environment.	3.93
44	I seldom have disciplinary problems in my classroom.	3.79
38	I believe that some teachers receive more favorable treatment than others.	3.12
41	I feel that the level of job stress present in my school is normal compared to other districts.	3.02

18	My workload is sometimes overwhelming for this position.	2.56

Table IX shows that, on average, most of the respondents feel that project-based teaching improved student motivation more than inquiry-based and thematic-based instruction. Project-based instruction was the highest mean out of the three carrying a mean score of 4.63. Most of the respondents slightly agreed that thematic-based instruction improved student motivation which carried a mean score of 4.28, but not as much as project-based or inquiry-based instruction. The range of the means was 4.28 to 4.63, which had a small mean difference of .35. Therefore, all of the items measuring the Classroom Methods dimensions of influence warranted a positive rating among the participants.

TABLE IX

Dimension V: Classroom Methods Rank Order Mean Scores By Item

ITEM #	ITEM	MEAN SCORE
26	I believe project-based teaching improves student motivation.	4.63
32	I believe that inquiry-based instruction improves student motivation.	4.54
6	I believe thematic-based instruction improves student motivation.	4.28

Analysis of the Research Questions

In the following sections of the research results, the researcher will discuss the findings with respect to the research questions that directed this study. The researcher will discuss the findings independently with respect to each of the research questions.

Research Question: How do the 5 dimensions of influence impact teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation?

Pearson correlations were used as the primary model to determine significant differences within the 5 dimensions and their influence on teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation. Once the differences were identified, a Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to detail where the significant factors were between the groups in each dimension. The results of the significant dimensions of influence are presented in Table X.

TABLE X

Pearson Correlation Results for the Identification

Of Significant Factors by Dimension

Dimension	N	Pearson Correlation	P-value	r-sqr
Motivation				
Experience	121	.254	.003**	.06
Grade Level	121	-.355	.000***	.13
Gender	121	.210	.011*	.04
Perceived Level Of Power				
Age	121	-.211	.010**	.04
Days Missed	121	-.167	.003**	.03
Gender	121	.187	.020*	.03
Administrative Support				
Grade Level	121	-.267	.002**	.07
Days Missed	121	-.253	.003**	.06
Teacher Morale				
Age	121	.197	.016*	.04
Experience	121	.237	.005**	.06
Grade Level	121	-.414	.000***	.17
Gender	121	.252	.003**	.06

Pearson Correlation Results for the Identification

Of Significant Factors by Dimension

Dimension	N	Pearson Correlation	P-value	r-sqr
Teaching Method				
Experience	121	.237	.005**	.06
Grade Level	121	-.243	.004**	.06
Gender	121	.243	.004**	.06
# of Districts	121	.167	.034*	.03

*P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001

A. *Does a teachers belief in their ability to motivate urban students impact teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation?*

There were significant differences found in a teacher's belief in their ability to motivate urban students based on the number of years the teacher has taught (p=.003), the grade level the teacher was teaching (p=.000), and their gender (p=.011). However, there were no differences found based on the teachers age (p=.065), their degree (p=.135), their previous teaching experience (p=.291), their number of missed days in a given school year (p=.307), their teaching strategy used in the classroom (p=.076) and the number of districts they taught in (p=.165).

In Figure 4-1, teachers who had taught for over 20 years had a higher belief in their ability to motivate students in urban setting as opposed to newly degreed teachers who had taught between 0 to 5 years. Years of experience accounted for only 6% of the

predicted value influencing a teacher's beliefs about motivating urban students, hence there are stronger factors that impact a teachers' beliefs.
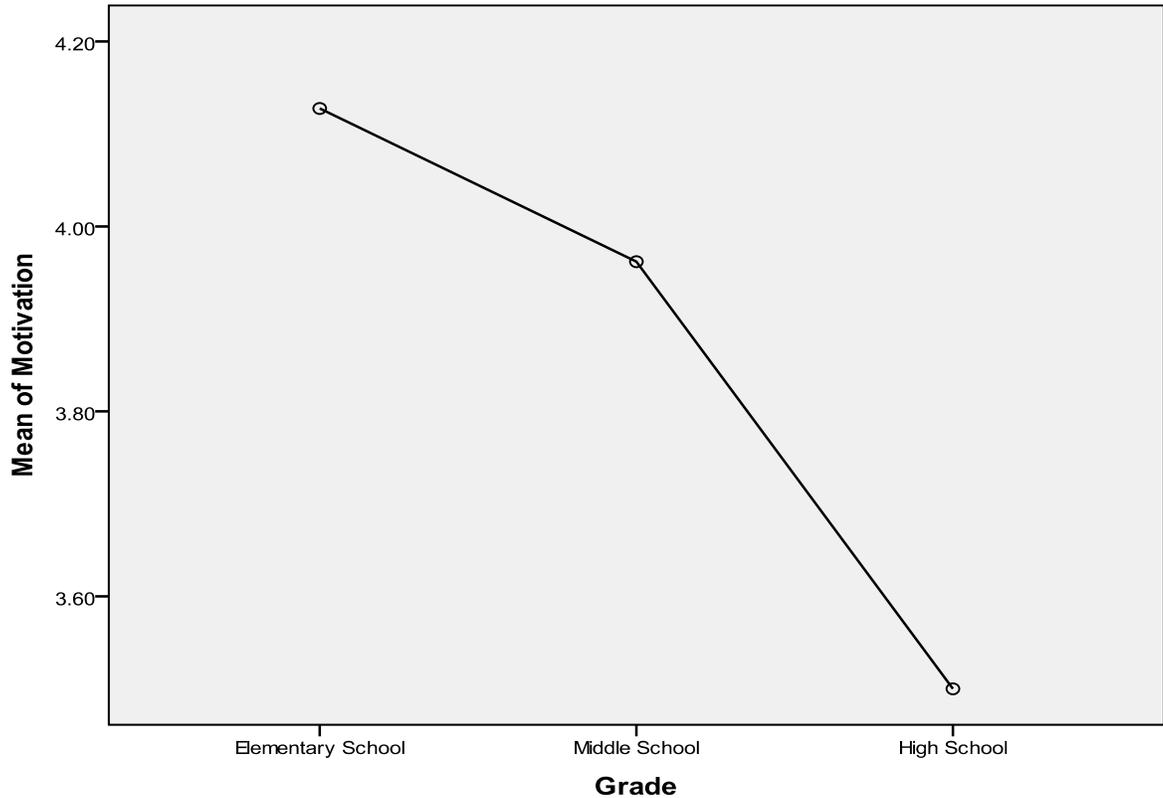
Figure 4-1: Teachers belief in their ability to motivate urban students based on their years of experience.
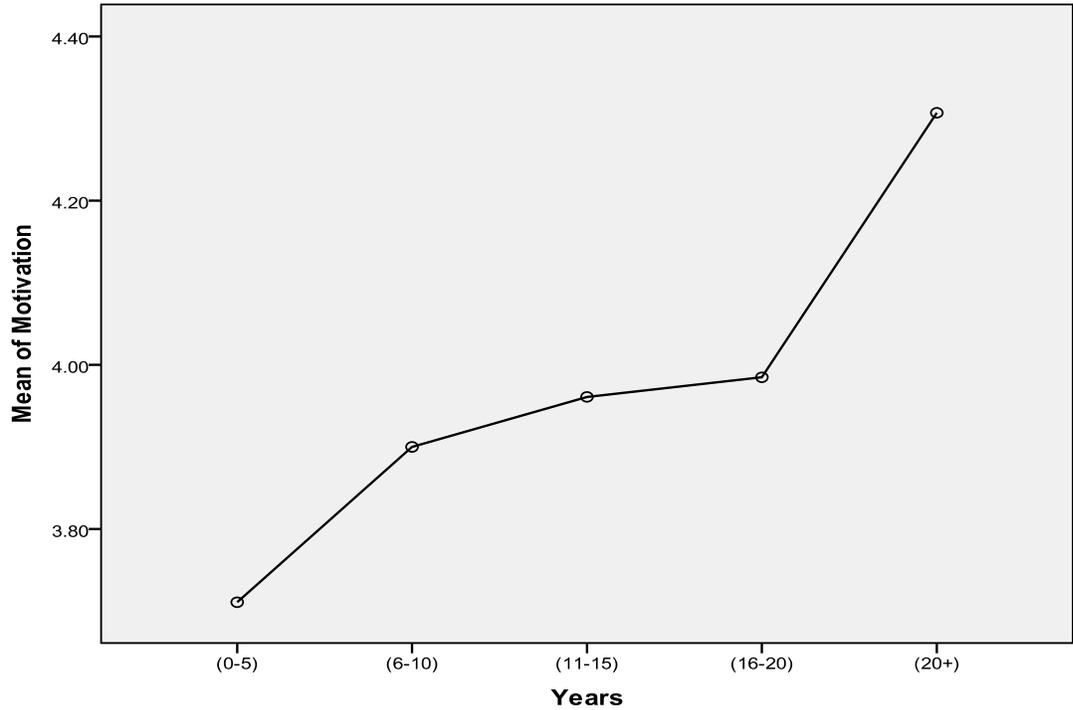
There was a negative correlation between a teacher's belief in their ability to motivate urban students and the grade level they taught. In Figure 4-2, it shows there were significant differences found between the teacher's belief in their ability to motivate urban students and the grade level. Elementary and middle school teachers, on average, had a higher belief in their ability to motivate urban students as opposed to high school teachers. High school teachers had the lowest efficacy ratings in regards to motivating urban students. According to the r-square, a teacher's grade level accounts for 13% of the predicted value influencing a teachers' beliefs about their abilities to motivate urban

students which means that the grade level that is being taught by a teacher's has a big impact on their efficacy beliefs.

Figure 4-2: Teachers beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students based on grade level taught

In Figure 4-3, it shows that female teachers had significantly higher beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students than male teachers. The r-square indicated that this factor only accounted for 4% of the predicted value influencing a teachers beliefs about their ability to motivate urban students, hence gender is important, however, it may not be the most important factor that changes motivational beliefs of teachers. The experience (6%), grade level (13%) and gender (4%) of the teacher accounted for 23% of the predicted value that impacts the motivational beliefs of teachers, with grade level making up 13% of that calculation.

Figure 4-3: Teacher's beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students based on gender
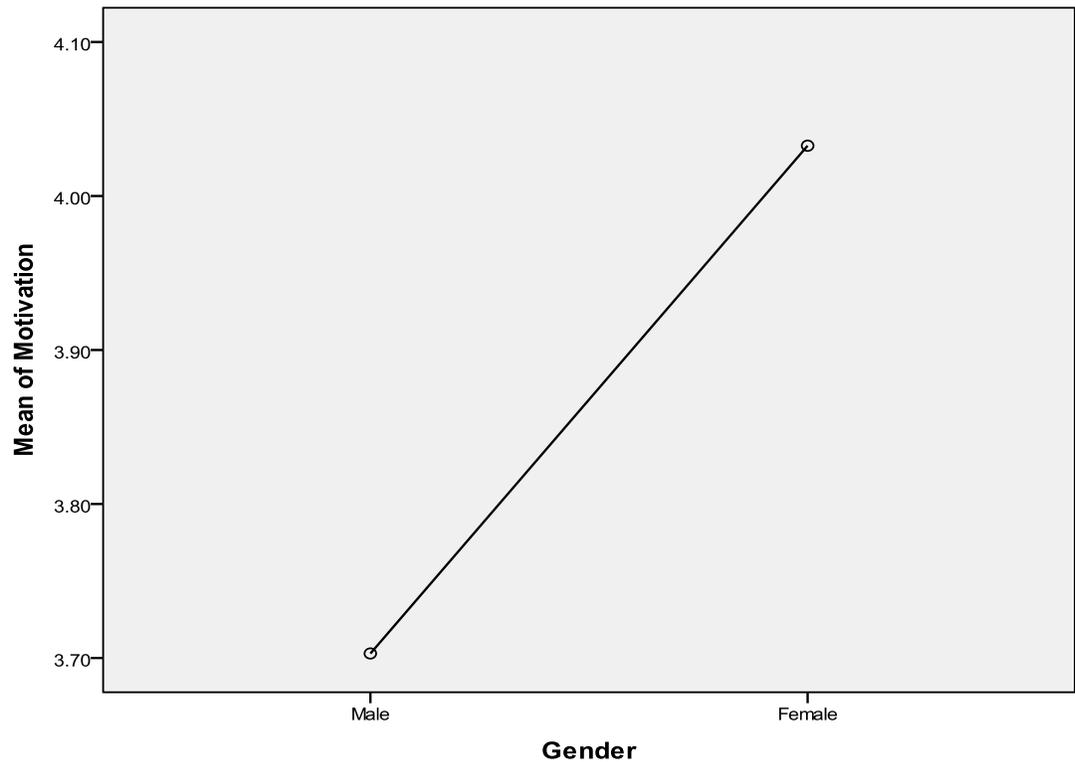
B. Does a teachers' perceived level of power influence teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation?

Pearson correlations were used in order to determine significance between the two factors being analyzed. Once significance was noted, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) model was used to determine the significance of the differences in the influence of a teacher's perceived levels of power on teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation. There were statistically significant differences in the teacher's perceived level of power based on their age (p=.010), the number of days of school they missed in a given year (p=.034) and their gender (p=.020). However, there were no significant differences found between the teachers perceived level of power based on the number of years they had taught (p=.457), their highest degree obtained (p=.383), the

grade level in which they taught (p=.240), their previous years experience (p=.307), their chosen teaching strategy (p=.499) and the number of districts that they had previously taught in (p=.076).

A teachers' perceived level of power was negatively correlated with a teacher's age and the number of days they missed in a given school year. Figure 4-4 shows that, in general, younger teachers exhibit higher beliefs that they possess power in their school dynamic than older teachers. Teachers who were over 40 years of age had a significantly lower belief in the power they possessed in making changes and decisions in their classroom.

Figure 4-4: Teachers perceived level of power based on age
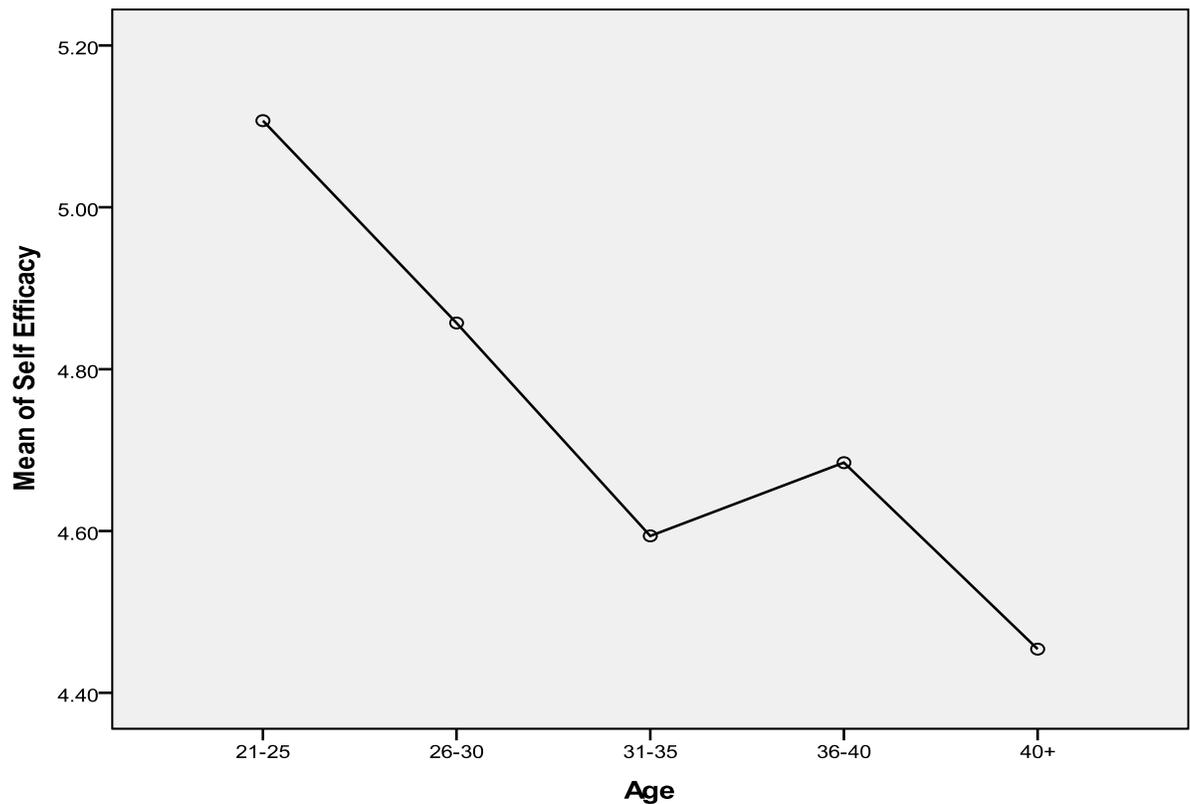
Figure 4-5 shows that, in general, teachers who miss fewer days have higher beliefs in their ability to make decisions in their classroom as opposed to those who missed many days of school. The more days a teacher has missed, the more likely the teacher will have lower belief in their ability to execute power or make decision regarding their classrooms.

Figure 4-5: Teachers perceived level of power based on the number of days missed in a given school year
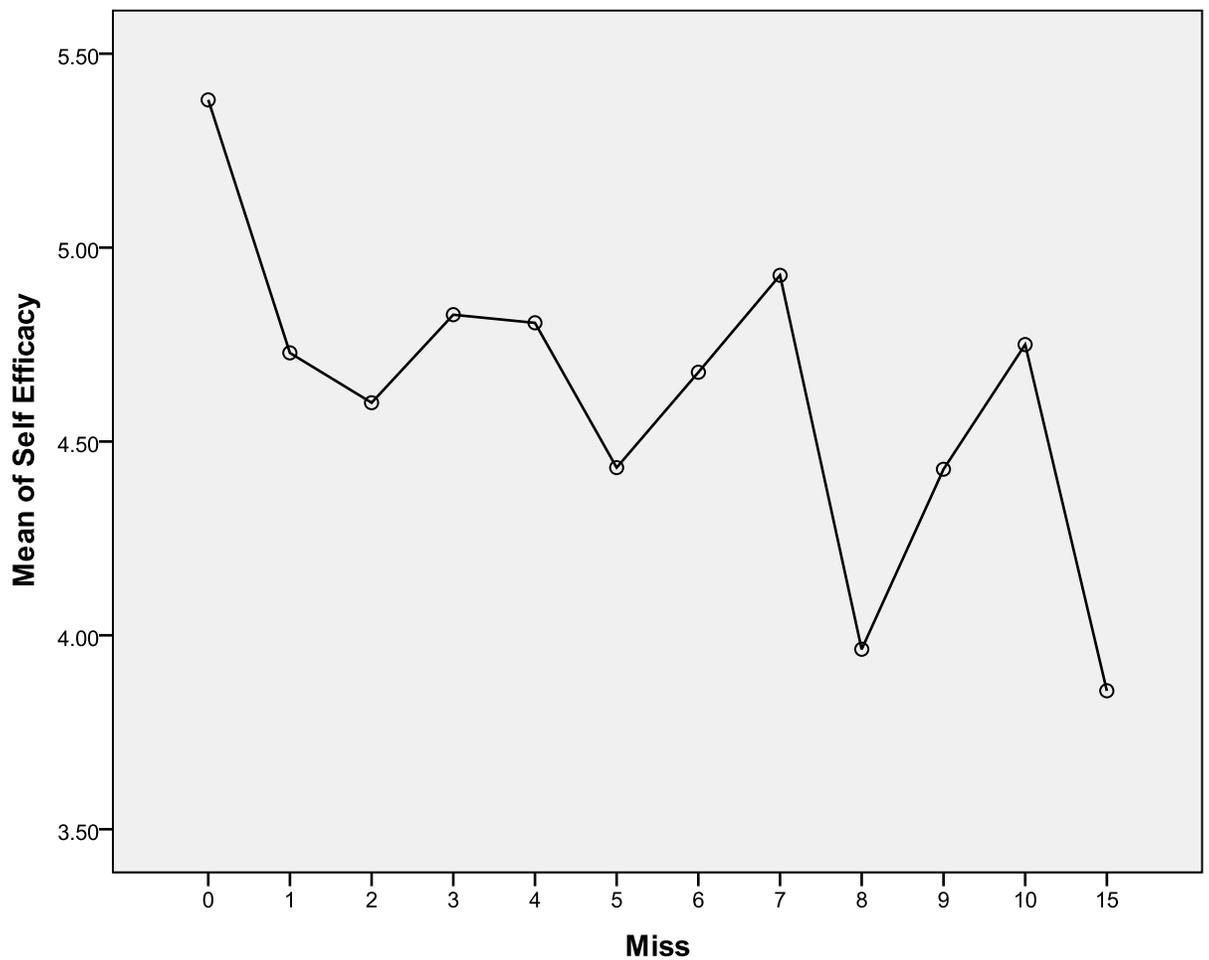
Gender was the only positive correlation in this dimension in that male responses were much lower than that of female responses in their beliefs about their level of power in the classroom. Figure 4-6 shows that, in general, females believed that they had more power in making decisions in their classroom than their male counterparts.

Figure 4-6: Teachers perceived level of power based on gender
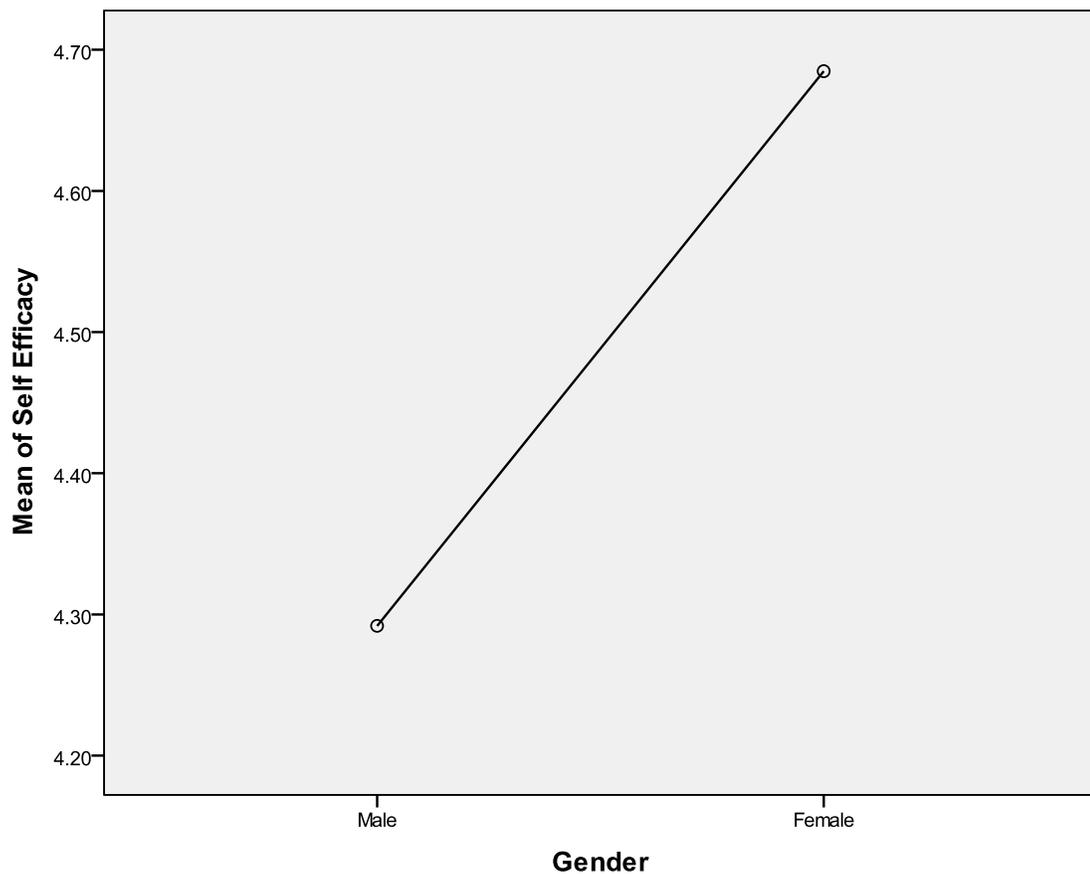
A teacher's age (4%), the number of days missed (3%) and their gender (3%) accounted for only 10% of the predicted value that actually impacted their beliefs about the amount of power they possessed in the classroom.

C. Does the level of administrative support influence teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation?

There were significant differences found in a teacher's belief in their level of administrative support offered based on the grade level they taught (p=.002) and the number of days that the teacher missed in a given school year (p=.003). Both grade level that a teacher taught and the number of days they had missed in a given school year were negatively correlated with their beliefs about the amount of administrative support received from their superiors. There were no statistically significant differences found in a teacher's belief in their level of administrative support based on a teacher's age (p=.278), years of experience (p=.122), the degree that they held (p=.269), their previous experiences as an educator (p=.237), their gender (p=.351), their teaching strategy of choice (p=.096) and the number of districts they had previously taught in (p=.457).

Figure 4-7 shows the teachers belief in the level of administrative support offered based on grade level. There were statistically significant differences found between the various grade levels taught. Elementary and middle school teachers had a higher belief in their administrators supporting their efforts than high school teachers. High school teachers had the lowest beliefs in administrative support.

Figure 4-7: Influence of administrative support based on grade level taught
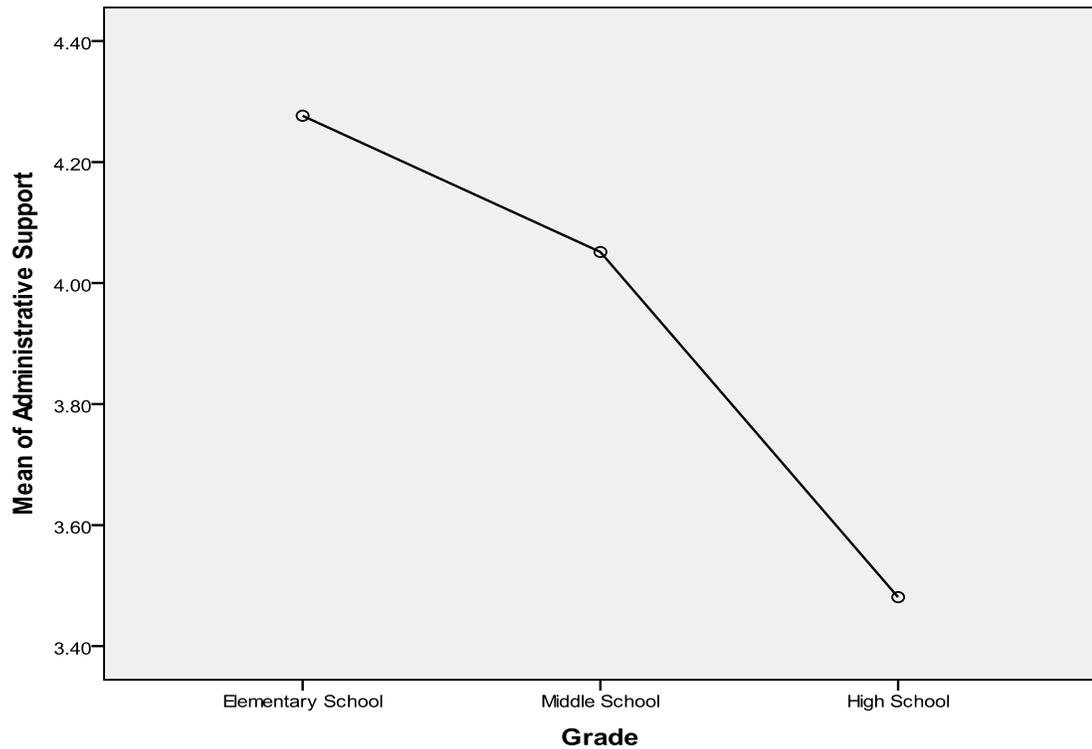
Figure 4-8 shows the teacher's belief in their administrative support based on the number of days the teacher missed in a given year. There were statistically significant differences found between the number of days missed and the teacher beliefs about how much administrative support they were receiving. Teachers who missed fewer days of school reported higher beliefs in administrative support. Conversely, teachers who had missed numerous days reported lower beliefs in administrative support.

Figure 4-8: Influence of administrative support based on number of days missed in a given school year
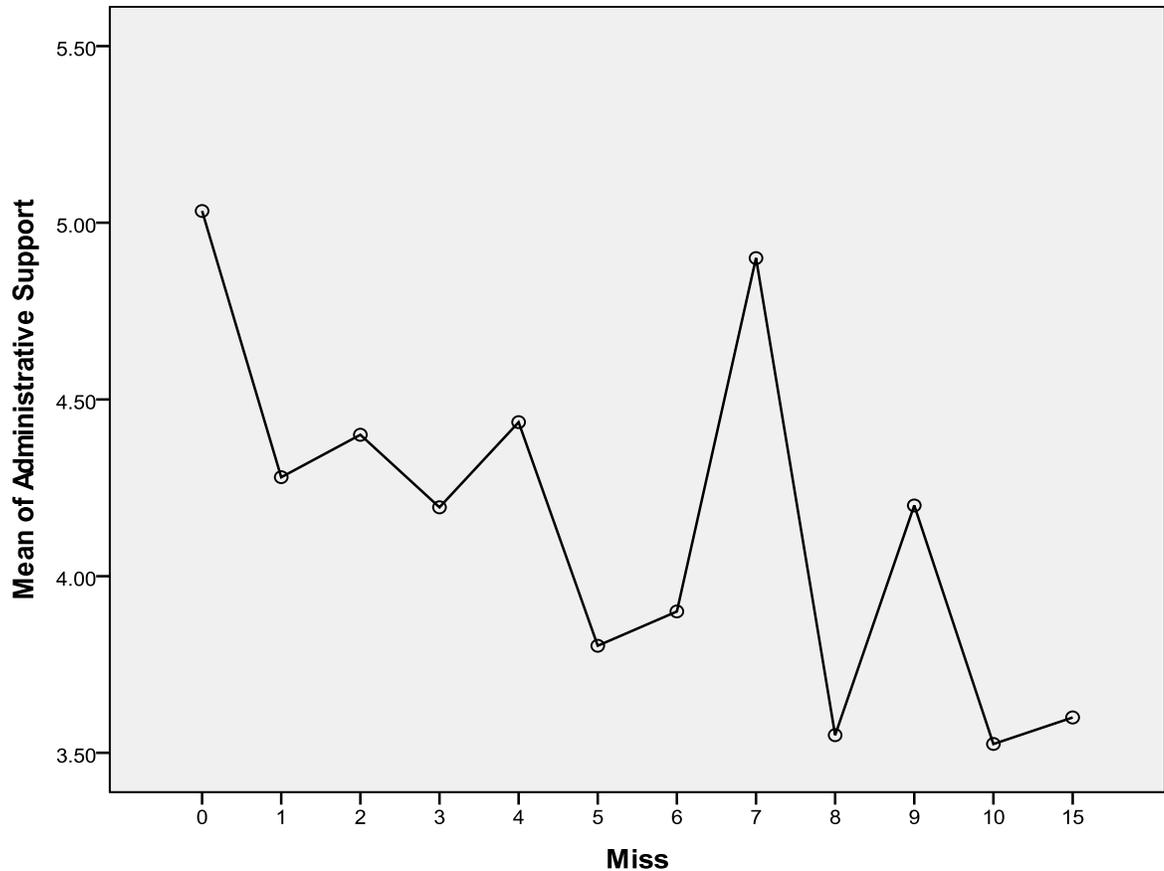
The grade level of the teacher (7%) and the number of days they missed (6%) accounted for 13% of the predicted value that influenced a teacher's beliefs about the amount of administrative support they perceive to have in a district.

D. *Does a teachers morale influence teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation?*

There were significant differences found in a teacher's morale based on age (p=.016),

the number of years the teacher has taught (p=.000), the grade level the teacher has taught (p=.000) and their gender (p=.003). However, there were no significant differences between their level of a teachers morale based on their degree (p=.316), previous years

experience (p=.444), the number of missed days (p=.160), their teaching strategy

(p=.431), and the number of districts taught in (p=.158).   The grade level taught by the

teacher was negatively correlated with a teacher's morale.

Figure 4-9 shows the level of teacher's morale based on the teacher's age.

Teachers who were 40+ years old had higher morale than younger teachers in the

profession. Teachers between the ages of 21 and 25 had higher morale than those

between the ages of 26 and 40 years old.

Figure 4-9: Level of teacher's morale based on age
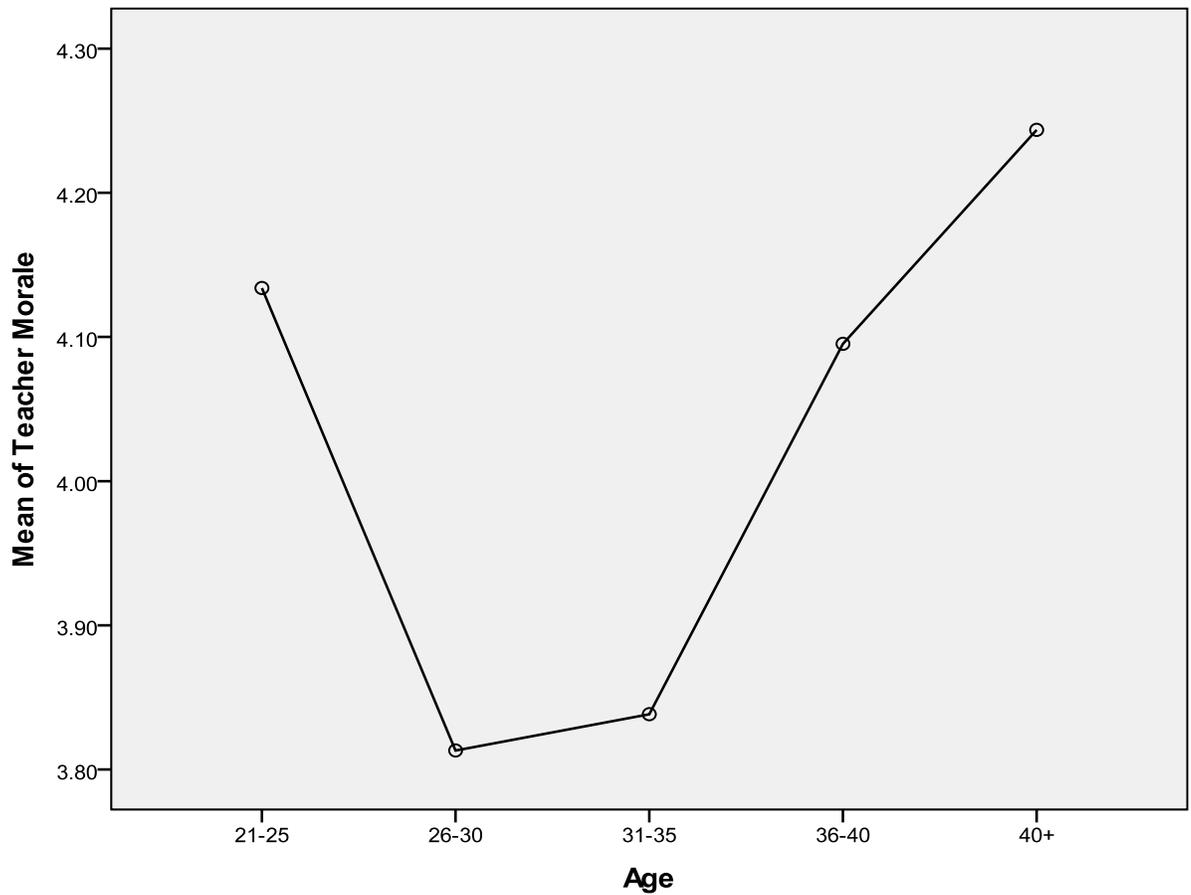
Figure 4-10 shows the level of teacher's morale based on the number of years of experience. Teachers who were 20+ years of experience had significantly higher levels of teacher morale than those who had only 0-5 years of experience.

Figure 4-10: Level of teacher's morale based on years of experience
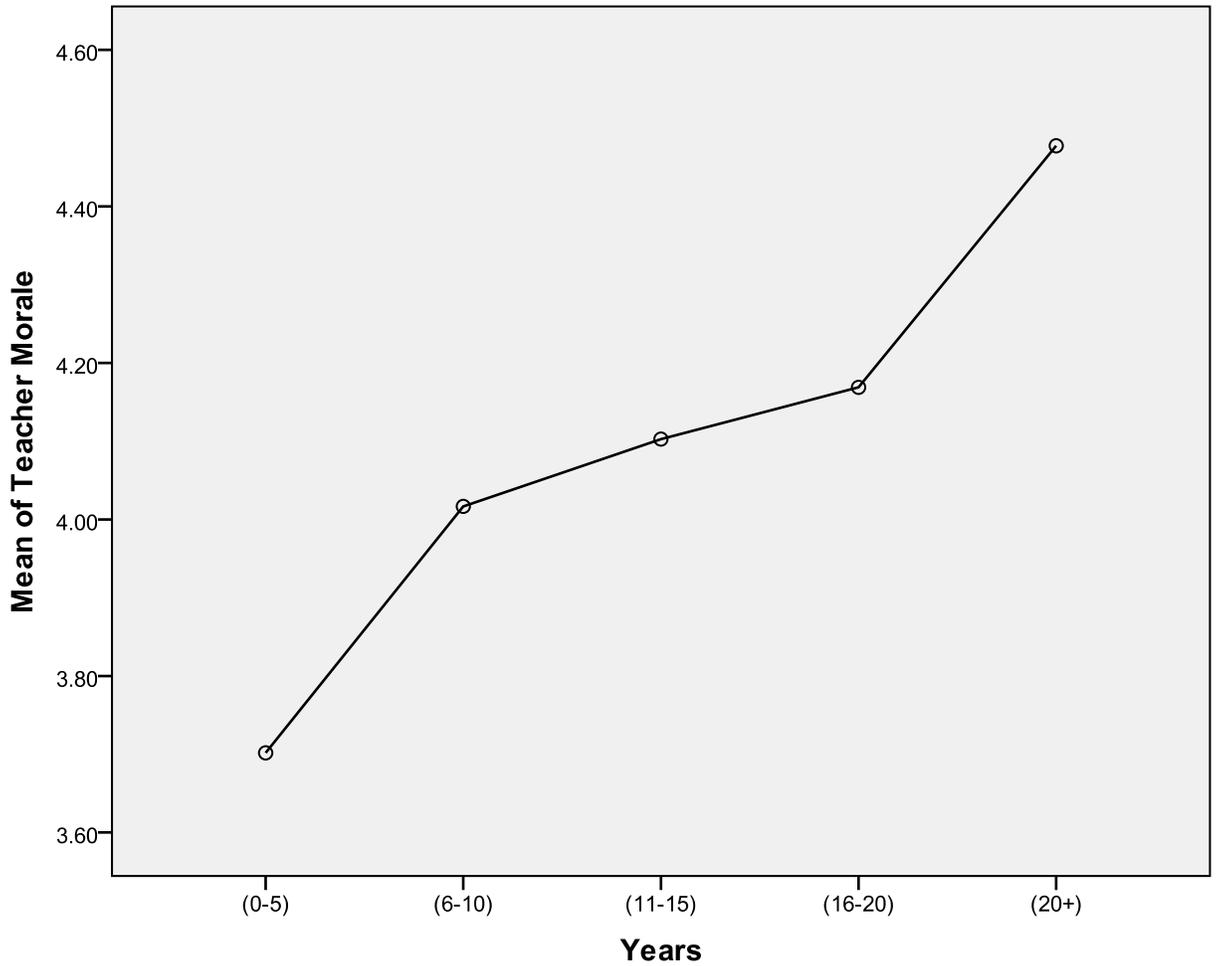
There was a negative correlation between the teacher's morale and the grade level in which they taught. Figure 4-11 shows the level of teacher's morale based on the teacher's grade level taught. There were significant differences in teacher morale based on grade level taught. Elementary teachers had higher teacher morale than middle and

high school teachers. In addition, elementary and middle school teachers had

significantly higher teacher morale than high school teachers.

Figure 4-11: Level of teacher's morale based on grade level taught
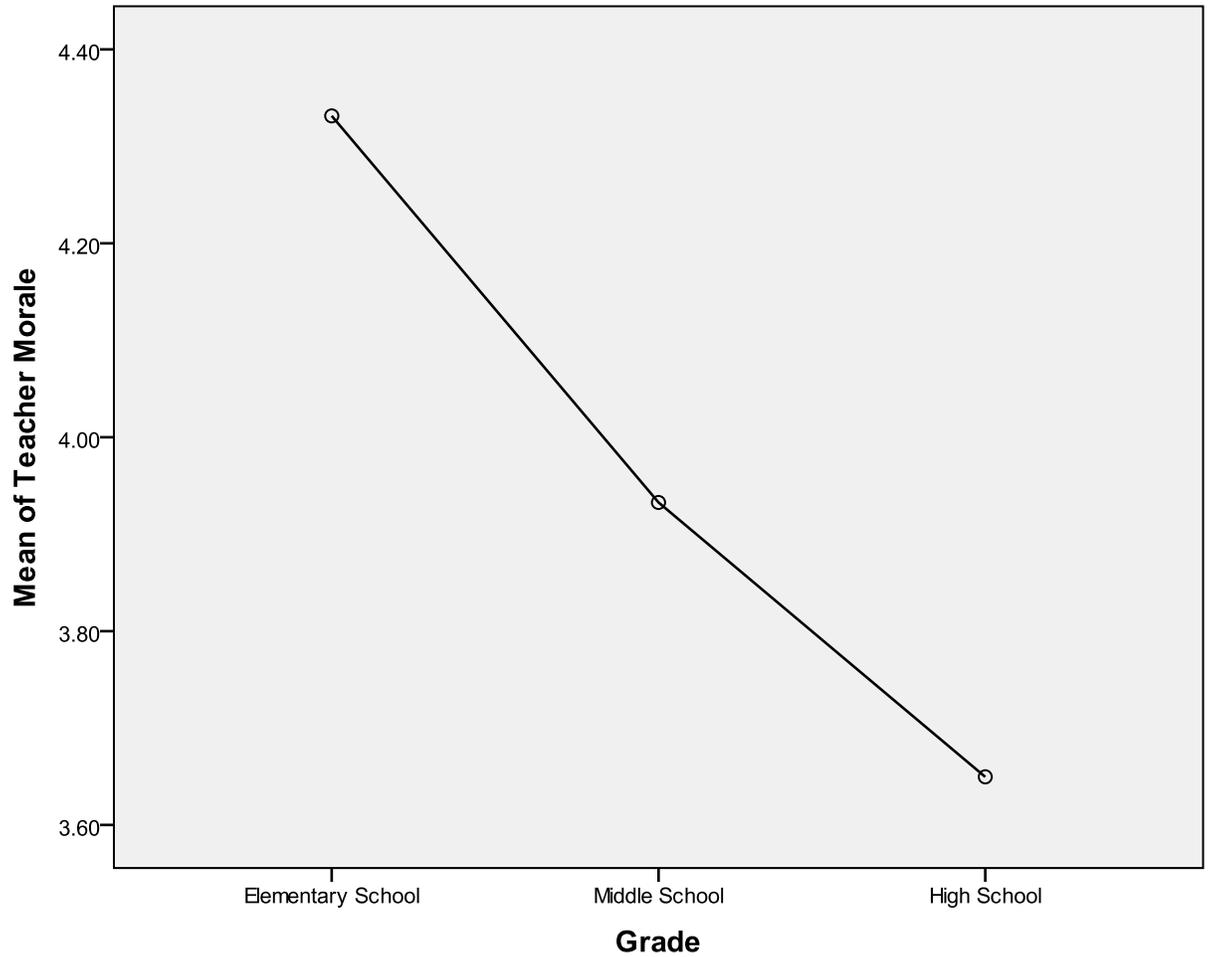
Figure 4-12 shows the level of teacher's morale based on the teacher's gender.

Females had significantly higher levels of teacher's morale than their male counterparts.

Figure 4-12: Level of teacher's morale based on gender
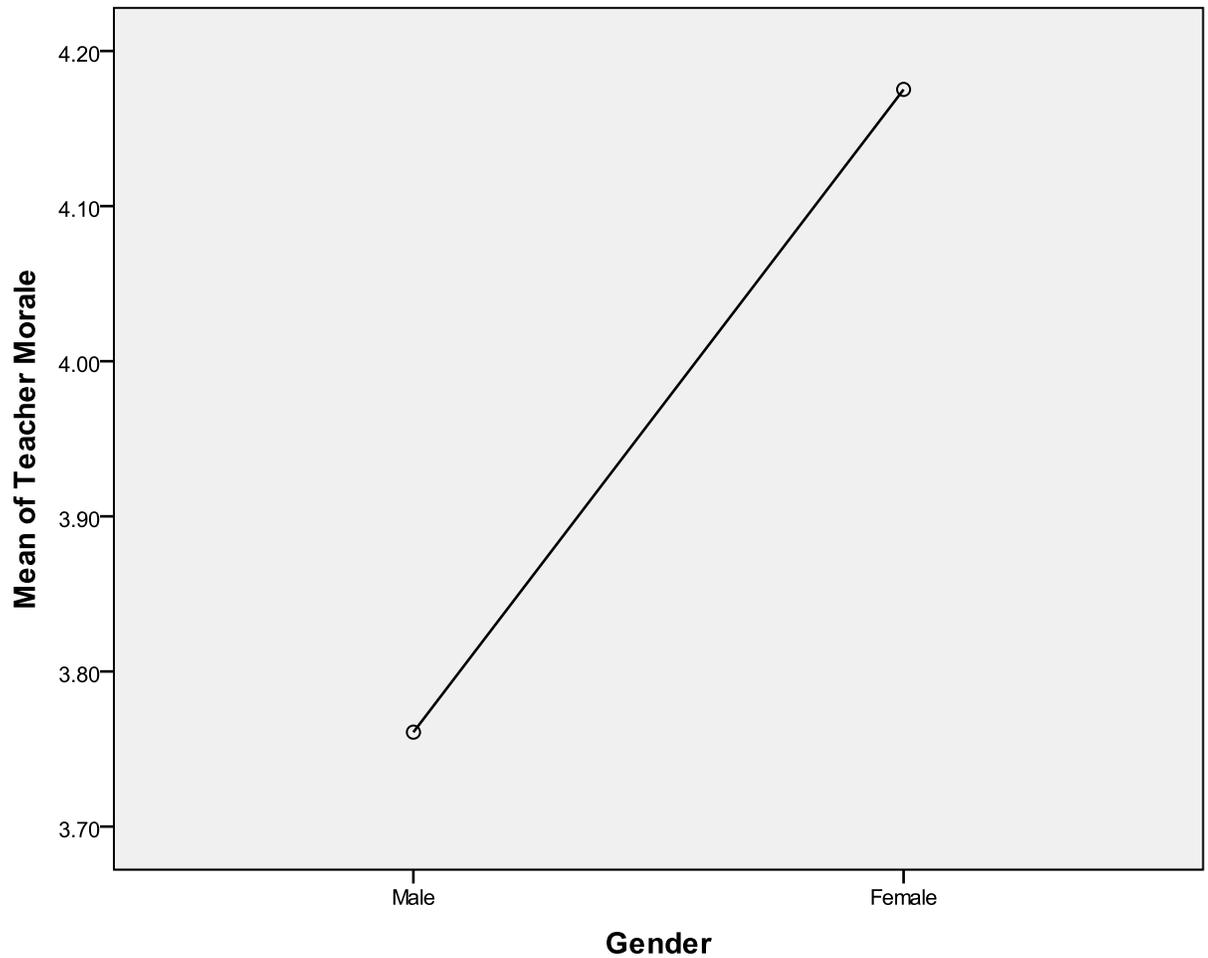
A teacher's age (4%), experience (6%), grade level taught (16%) and gender (6%) accounted for 33% of the predicted value that influenced teacher morale in the classroom.

E. Does a teachers teaching methods influence teacher efficacy as it relates to student motivation?

There were significant differences found in a teacher's chosen teaching methods based

on the number of years the teacher has taught (p=.005), their grade level (p=.004) , their gender (p=.004), and the number of districts the teacher has taught in (p=.034). However, there were no significant differences between a teachers teaching method and their level of morale based on age (p=.135), their degree (p=.410), a teachers previous experiences (p=.313), the type of teaching strategy used in the classroom (p=.050) and the number of days missed (p=.346).

Figure 4-13 shows the teacher's beliefs in their ability to motivate students based on three teaching methods, thematic, project and inquiry based instruction. Classroom methods usually vary according to a teacher's preference, yet there are methods that teachers feel are much more effective than others. Teachers who've had up to five years of teaching experience were less likely to utilize those three methods of instruction to motivate their students in the classroom; however, teachers who have taught for more than 16 years felt that those methods of instruction were most effective for students in the urban setting. Teachers who've taught between 6 and 15 years felt equally the same in regards to the three teaching methods. The method was not as favored as the veteran teachers in the districts.

Grade level taught was the only area in this dimension that was negatively correlated with the beliefs that the three teaching methods were the most effective in motivating urban students. In Figure 4-14, the graph shows the teacher's beliefs in the best teaching methods to motivate students to learn based on three teaching methods, thematic, project and inquiry based instruction. There was a significant difference in the belief teachers had in the teaching method that best motivates students to learn based on the grade they taught. High school teachers did not believe that the three teaching

methods were as effective as other options in motivating students to learn, whereas

elementary teachers found the three teaching methods very effective and utilized them

more. There was also a significant difference between middle and high school teacher's

belief in the usage of the three teaching methods. Middle school teachers utilized the

three methods more than the high school teachers in their belief that they improve student

motivation in urban settings.

Figure 4-13: Teacher's beliefs that the three chosen teaching methods improve student motivation based on the teacher's years of experience in the profession

Figure 4-14: Teacher's beliefs that the three chosen teaching methods improve student motivation

based on the grade level the teacher taught

In Figure 4-15, the graph shows the teacher's beliefs in the best teaching methods to motivate students to learn based on three teaching methods, thematic, project and inquiry based instruction. There was a significant difference in the belief teachers had in the teaching method that best motivates students to learn based on the gender of the teacher.   Female teachers felt that the three teaching methods were effective ways to motivate students to learn; however, male teachers did not feel that the three teaching methods were the best to use when motivating students in urban settings.

Figure 4-15: Teacher's beliefs that the three chosen teaching methods improve student motivation based on gender
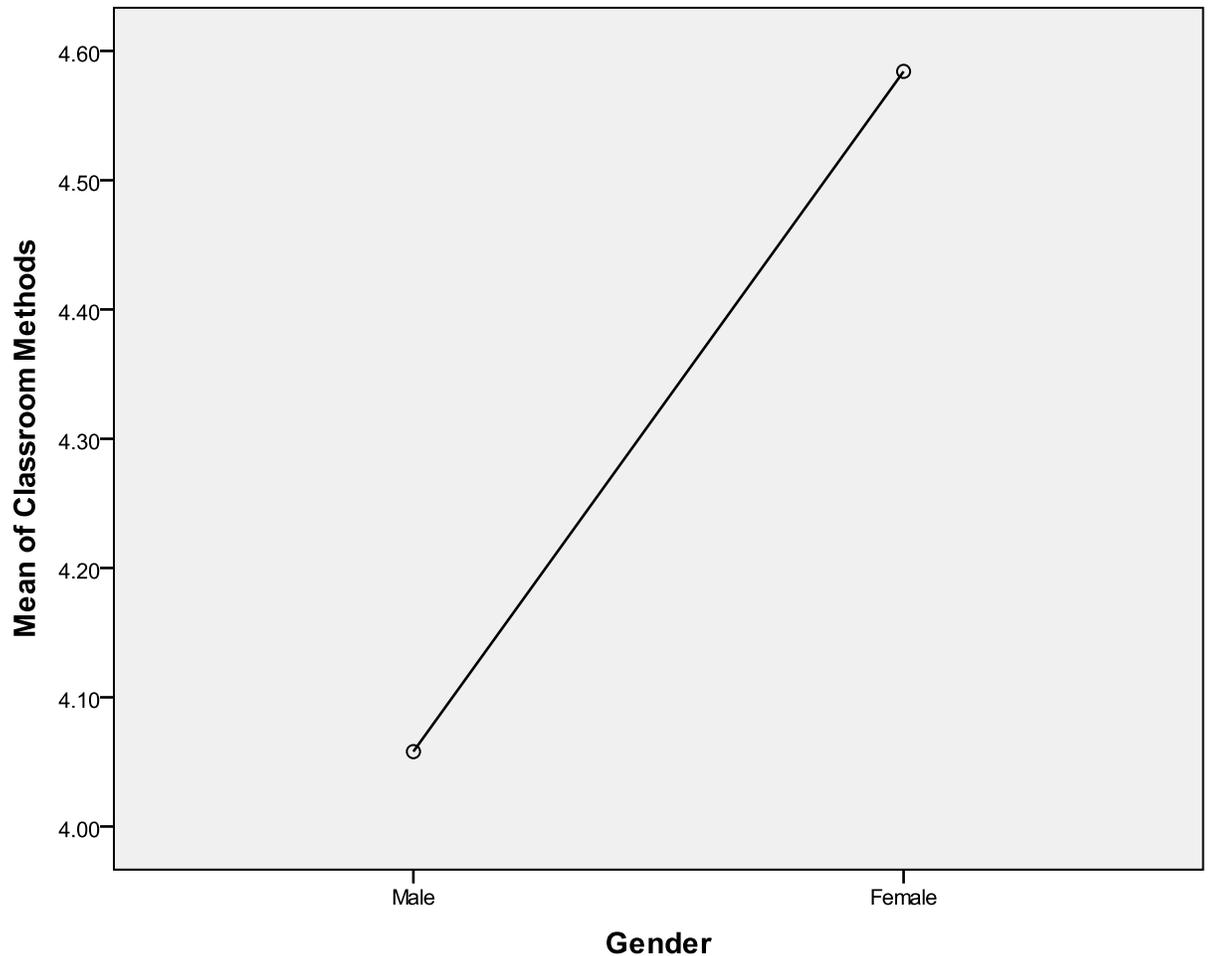
In Figure 4-16, the graph shows the teacher's beliefs in the best teaching methods to motivate students to learn based on three teaching methods, thematic, project and inquiry based instruction. There was a significant difference in the belief teachers had in the teaching method that best motivates students to learn based on the number of districts the teacher had taught in. For the most part, the more districts a teacher had taught in, the more likely they believed that the three chosen teaching methods were the best when motivating students in urban settings. Teachers who had only been in one district for

their entire teaching career rated the three methods the lowest in motivating students, however teachers who had been in 5-7 districts believed that the three chosen classroom methods were the best in motivating urban students to perform.
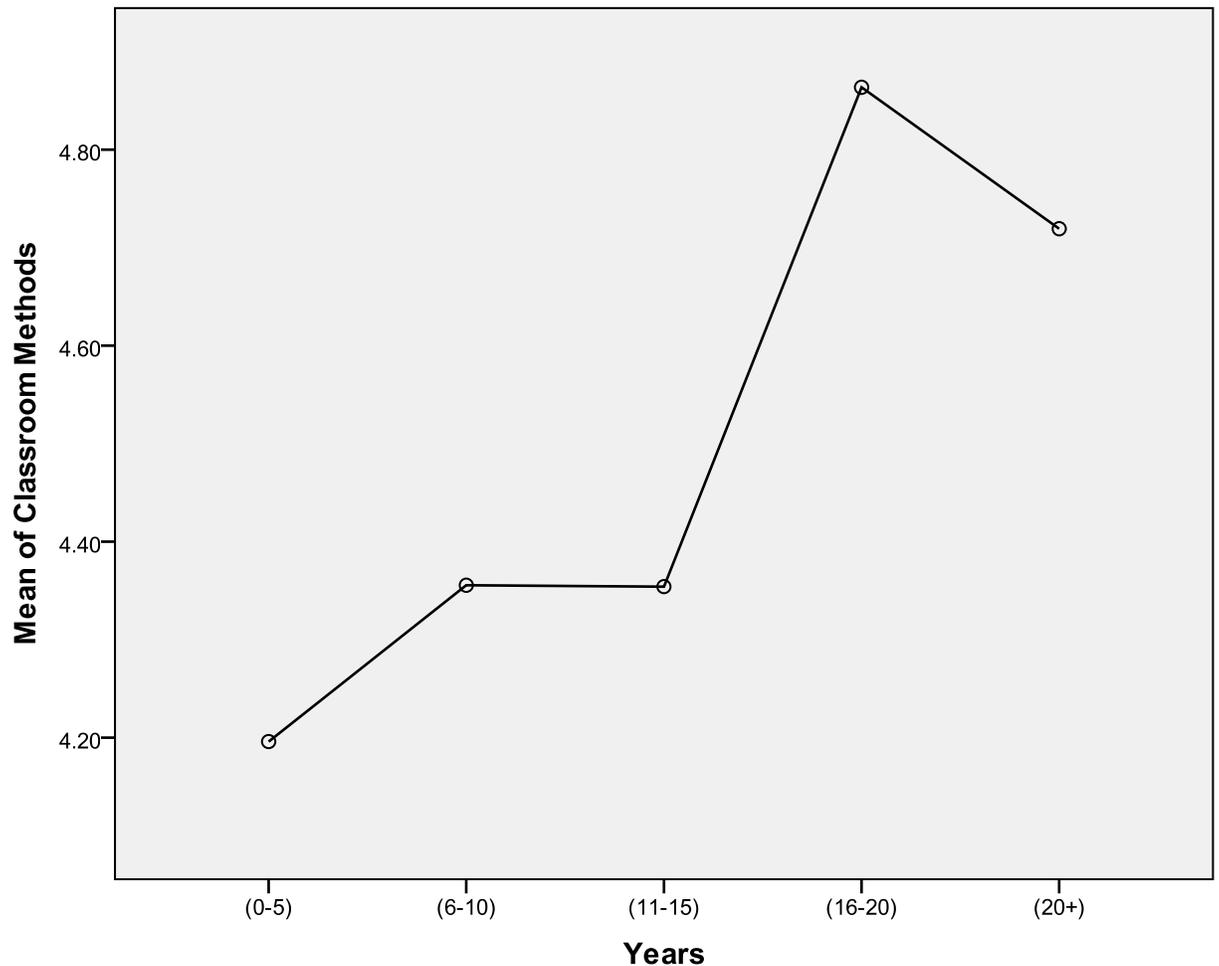
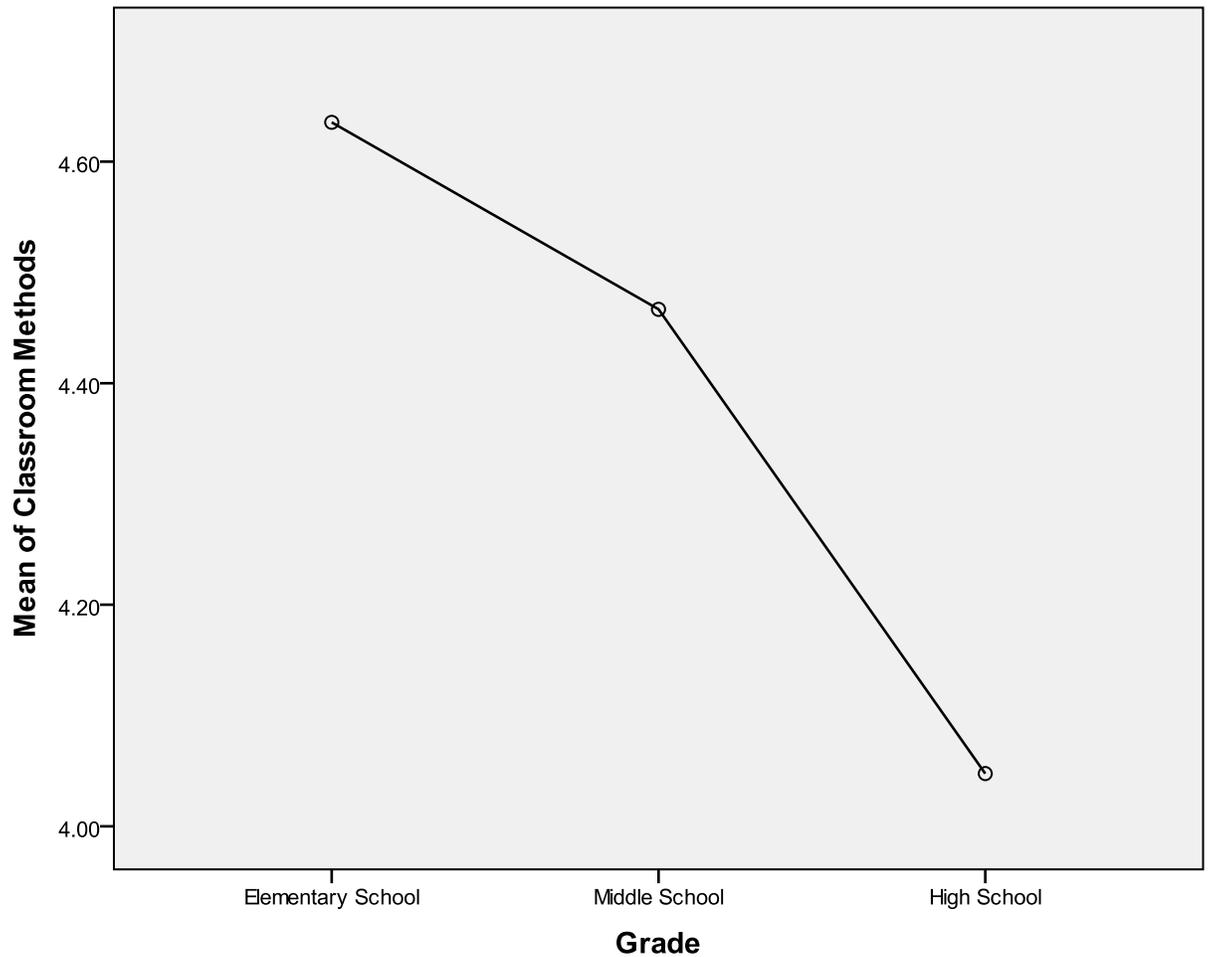Figure 4-16: Teacher's beliefs that the three chosen teaching methods improve student motivation based on the number of districts the teacher taught in
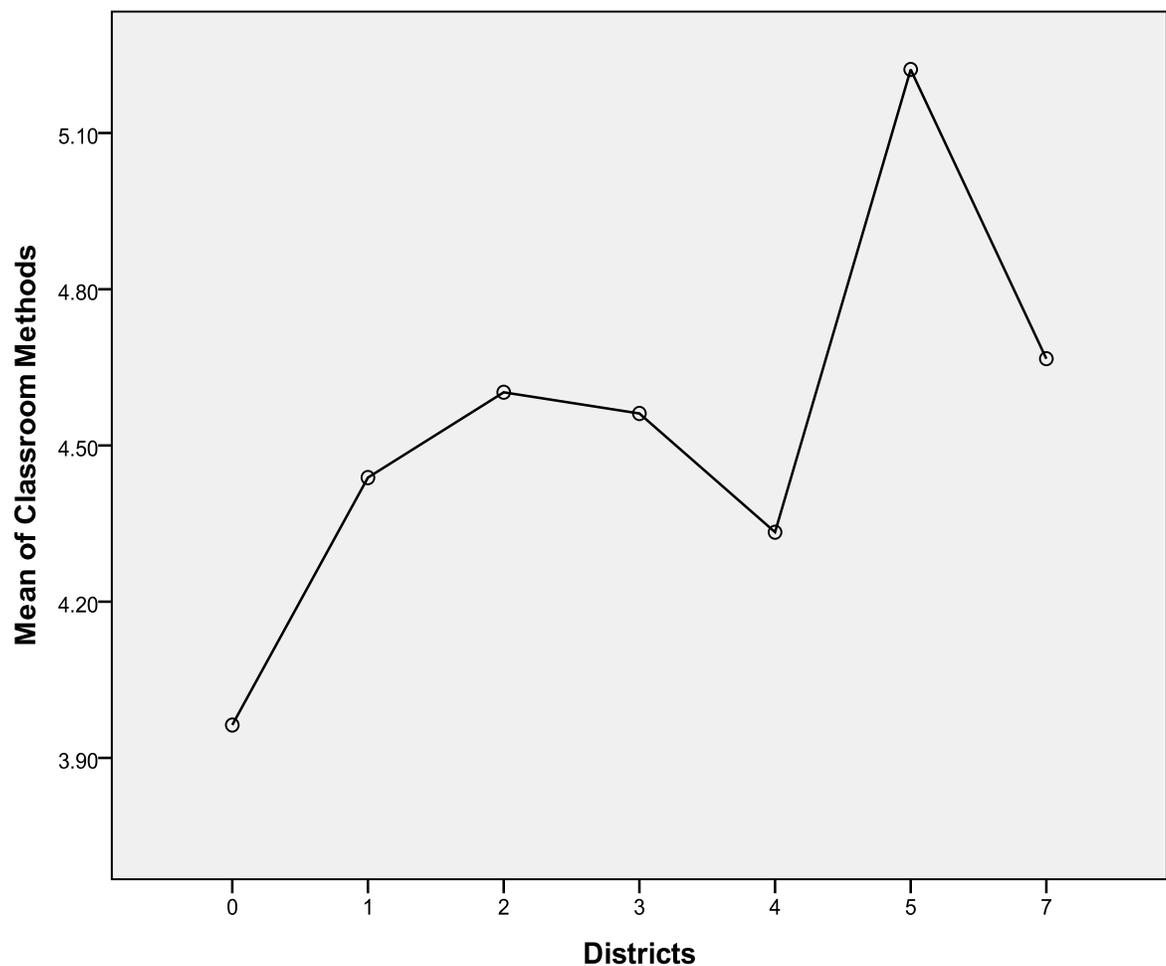
A teacher's experience (6%), the grade level (6%), gender (6%) and the number of districts they taught in (3%) accounted for 21% of the predicted value that influenced their beliefs in the three chosen teaching methods that best motivate urban students.

<u>Item Analysis</u>

Tables IV-VIII show the strengths of the relationships between the individual surveyed items within the created dimensions. This will reveal the specific survey items that weighed more significantly causing a positive or negative influence on the efficacy beliefs of the teachers who responded.

DIMENSION I: MOTIVATION--Correlation between the teacher's beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students based on experience, grade level and gender

. In Table XI, the relationship strengths regarding motivation based on experience, grade level taught and gender are listed by item number taken from the survey instrument. Items 1, 4, 19rev and 34 were significant predictors of influence when observing a teacher's beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students based on their experience in the classroom. Although all 4 items were significant predictors of influence on the motivation dimension, item 34, which was highly significant (p=.000), had a negative influence on teacher beliefs in motivating urban students based on their years of experience. Teachers with less years of experience felt that their students were motivated in their classrooms whereas older teachers felt they were not motivated. Item number 1 was also highly significant (p=.001), yet it was a positive correlation in that teachers with more years of experience felt that their students were motivated to learn, but teachers with less years of experience did not agree. Although the two questions were very similar, item 1 focused primarily on learning and item 34 focused on general motivation.

Based on the teacher's grade level, 7 of the 11 items under the dimension were found to be significant predictors of influence on teacher's beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students. Out of the 7 items, 1, 4, 15, 19rev and 23 were negatively correlated. Again, item 1 was highly significant (p=.000) showing that elementary teachers felt their students were motivated to learn, whereas the high school teachers disagreed that their students had a high level of motivation. This item accounted for 13% of the predicted influence on a teacher's motivational beliefs under this dimension.

Item 4 was also highly significant (p=.000) in that elementary teacher's felt that they were able to get through to even the most unmotivated students, but high school teachers did not feel that they were able to assist unmotivated students. This item accounted for 15% of the predicted influence on a teacher's motivational beliefs under this dimension. Elementary teachers also felt that they were able to motivate students regardless of the resources offered (item 15, p=.002, r^2=.066) and that they were capable of developing activities to increase student motivation (item 23, p=.002, r^2=.067) whereas high school teachers did not feel as though this was possible.

Gender only had two items that positively influenced the teacher's beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students. Item 1 (p=.035, r^2=.027) showed that females had higher beliefs that their students were motivated to learn as opposed to their male counterparts. In addition, item 2rev (p=.035, r^2=.027) showed that males significantly felt that it was more difficult to motivate students if resources were limited.

TABLE XI

Strength of relationship between teacher's beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students based on experience, grade level and gender by survey item (n=121)

Item #		Experience	Grade Level	Gender
1	Pearson	.341	-.366	.165
	Significance	.000**	.000***	.035*
	r-squared	.116	.134	.027
2rev	Pearson	.112	-.114	.165
	Significance	.111	.106	.035*
	r-squared	.013	.013	.027
4	Pearson	.203	-.382	.066
	Significance	.013*	.000**	.237
	r-squared	.041	.146	.004
9	Pearson	-.032	.196	-.121
	Significance	.365	.015*	.094
	r-squared	.001	.038	.015
15	Pearson	.110	-.256	.150
	Significance	.116	.002*	.051
	r-squared	.012	.066	.023
17	Pearson	-.044	.007	.237
	Significance	.317	.471	.005
	r-squared	.002	.000	.056

	Item #	Experience	Grade Level	Gender
	Pearson	.153	-.276	.133
19rev	Significance	.048*	.001**	.074
	r-squared	.023	.076	.018
	Pearson	.102	-.258	.150
23	Significance	.135	.002*	.051
	r-squared	.010	.067	.022
	Pearson	-.076	.059	-.062
27	Significance	.203	.259	.248
	r-squared	.003	.003	.004
	Pearson	-.097	.232	.149
28	Significance	.146	.005	.052
	r-squared	.009	.053	.022
	Pearson	-.332	.254	.149
34	Significance	.000**	.002*	.052
	r-squared	.110	.065	.022

**p< 0.01, 1-tailed   *p<0.05, 1 tailed

DIMENSION II: POWER--Correlation between teacher's beliefs in the perceived level

of power they possess in the classroom based on age, number of missed days and

gender

In Table XII, the relationship strengths regarding a teacher's perceived level of power they possess in their classroom based on experience, grade level taught and gender are listed by item number taken from the survey instrument. Based on age, 4 of the 6 surveyed items were significant predictors of influence on a teacher's beliefs in the power they possessed in the classroom; however, they were all negatively correlated. Item number 29 (p=.008, r^2=.048) was highly significant in that older teachers did not feel that they had the power to decide how they teach the subject matter in their classroom. Similarly, item number 40 (p=.010, r^2=.045) showed that older teachers did not feel that they had the power to decide what learning assignments the students did in their classrooms as well. Item numbers 12 (p=.027, r^2=.030) and 22 (p=.029, r^2=.030) showed that older teachers did not feel that they had the power to be creative in the classroom nor were they able to do what they wanted in order to assure students were motivated.

Based on the number of days a teacher misses, there were only two items that were significant predictors of influence when observing a teacher's beliefs in their perceived level of power. Item numbers 12 (p=.018, r^2=.036) and 33 (p=.036, r^2=.027) both showed that the more days a teacher missed, the more likely they did not feel that they had the power to be creative in the classroom nor did they have the power to decide what teaching methods to use to better motivate urban students.

Gender had three items that were significant predictors of influence on a teacher's perceived level of power in the classroom. Items 29 (p=.037, r^2=.027), 33 (p=.018,

r^2=.036), and 40 (p=.004, r^2=.058) showed that females felt that they had more power to

decide how they taught the subject matter, what teaching methods they could use in the

classroom and they felt that they had more power to decide what learning assignments the

students would complete as well. Male teachers responded significantly lower on these

items.

TABLE XII

Strength of relationship between teacher's beliefs in their perceived level of power and their ability to motivate urban students based on age, number of missed days and gender by survey item (n=121)

Item #		Age	# of Missed Days	Gender
	Pearson	-.175	-.191	.150
12	Significance	.027*	.018*	.050
	r-squared	.030	.036	.023
	Pearson	-.118	-.147	.051
16rev	Significance	.100	.055	.290
	r-squared	.014	.022	.003
	Pearson	-.174	-.114	-.016
22	Significance	.029*	.107	.430
	r-squared	.030	.013	.000
	Pearson	-.218	-.037	.163
29	Significance	.008*	.342	.037*
	r-squared	.048	.001	.027
	Pearson	-.149	-.164	.190
33	Significance	.051	.036*	.018*
	r-squared	.022	.027	.036

Item #		Age	# of Missed Days	Gender
	Pearson	-.211	-.144	.241
40	Significance	.010*	.058	.004*
	r-squared	.045	.021	.058

**p< 0.01, 1-tailed   *p<0.05, 1 tailed

DIMENSION III: ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT--Correlation between the teacher's

beliefs in the amount of administrative support received based on grade level and

number of missed days

In Table XIII, the relationship strengths regarding administrative support based on

grade level taught and number of days missed in a given school year are listed by item

number taken from the survey instrument. Although all items listed under a teacher's

grade level were not significant influences, all items were negatively correlated, meaning

that high school teacher's responses were lower than elementary teachers in their answers

regarding administrative support. Item 20 (p=.000, r^2=.123) was highly significant in that

high school teachers did not truly believe that administrative support contributed to high

staff morale. An important note in this finding is that this question accounted for 12% of

the influence on the grade level teacher's beliefs about how much administrative support

they receive. In addition, items 3 (p=.009, r^2=.047), 21 (p=.010, r^2=.045) and 31 (p=.005,

r^2=.053) were also highly significant predictors of influence in that high school teachers

did not feel empowered to motivate their students due to administrative support, they did

not feel that the school administrators provided them with the opportunity for leadership

positions and they did not feel that the administrators allowed them to participate in the decision-making process for school policy making. These three items account for 15% of the beliefs teachers have regarding administrative support based on the grade level of the educator.

Even more telling regarding grade level perceptions about their administrative support were items 5 (p=.029, r^2=.030), 11 (p=.021, r^2=.034) and 25 (p=.016, r^2=.039) which showed that high school teachers did not feel as professionally valued by the administrative staff as elementary and middle school teachers, they did not feel that their professional accomplishments were recognized by administration and they did not feel that administrators respected their decisions as educators.

In regards to the number of days a teacher missed in a given school year, item number 21 (p=.000, r^2=.114) was highly significant and accounted for 11% of the predicted value of influence on a teacher's decision to miss days of school. Item 21 showed that teachers who missed numerous days of school did not feel that administrators provided them with the opportunity to hold leadership positions. Similarly, items 25 (p=.001, r^2=.073), 31 (p=.004, r^2=.056), 5 (p=.002, r^2=.067) and 11 (p=.006, r^2=.052) were also highly significant and showed that teachers who missed many days of school believed that school administrators did not respect their decisions, did not allow them to participate in the decision-making process of school policy, did not feel professionally valued by their administrative staff and did not feel that administrators recognized their professional accomplishments. These 5 items accounted for 24.8% of the predicted value of influence on a teacher's decision to miss days of school.

<u>TABLE XIII</u>

Strength of relationship between teacher's beliefs in the amount of administrative support received and their ability to motivate urban students based on grade level and number of missed days by survey item (n=121)

Item #		Grade Level	# of Missed Days
3	Pearson	-.216	-.145
	Significance	.009*	.057
	r-squared	.047	.021
5	Pearson	-.173	-.258
	Significance	.029*	.002*
	r-squared	.030	.067
10	Pearson	-.147	-.071
	Significance	.053	.219
	r-squared	.022	.005
11	Pearson	-.185	-.228
	Significance	.021*	.006*
	r-squared	.034	.052
14	Pearson	-.149	-.197
	Significance	.052	.016*
	r-squared	.022	.039
20	Pearson	-.350	-.049
	Significance	.000**	.297
	r-squared	.123	.002

Item #		Grade Level	# of Missed Days
	Pearson	-.213	-.338
21	Significance	.010*	.000**
	r-squared	.045	.114
	Pearson	-.197	-.271
25	Significance	.016*	.001**
	r-squared	.039	.073
	Pearson	-.231	-.237
31	Significance	.005*	.004*
	r-squared	.053	.056
	Pearson	-.113	-.091
36	Significance	.109	.159
	r-squared	.013	.008

**p< 0.01, 1-tailed   *p<0.05, 1 tailed

DIMENSION IV: TEACHER MORALE--Correlation between the teacher's beliefs in their teacher morale based on grade level, age, experience and gender

In Table XIV, the relationship strengths regarding teacher morale based on the grade level taught, age, experience and gender are listed by item number taken from the survey instrument. Based on a teacher's grade level, 8 of the 15 items were significant predictors of influence on a teacher's morale. Items 7 (p=.000, r^2=.234), 24 (p=.000, r^2=.231), 35 (p=.000, r^2=.108) and 37 (p=.000, r^2=.102) were highly significant in showing differences between grade level beliefs. Each were negatively correlated

meaning that high school teachers did not believe that the staff worked as a cohesive unit to improve the school environment, they did not believe that their workplace was conducive to executing high levels of quality instruction, they did not leave work feeling positive about what their students had learned and they did not feel that the teachers and administrators were competent contributors to the school environment. These 4 items accounted for 67.5% of a teacher's beliefs regarding their morale measurements.

Moreover, items 8 ($p=.004$, $r^2=.060$), 38 ($p=.003$, $r^2=.063$), 30 ($p=.002$, $r^2=.067$) and 41 ($p=.009$, $r^2=.046$) were also highly significant and showed that high school teachers were not very satisfied with their jobs, were more likely to believe that some teachers received more favorable treatment than others, did not believe that the teachers worked hard to help the students succeed and did not feel that the level of job stress at the school was normal compared to other districts.

In regards to a teacher's age, there were 6 items that had a significant influence on a teacher's morale. Items 7 ($p=.001$, $r^2=.075$), 41 ($p=.010$, $r^2=.045$) and 30 ($p=.004$, $r^2=.045$) were highly significant and showed that the older a teacher was the more likely they felt that the staff worked as a cohesive unit to improve the school environment, older teachers also felt that the level of job stress present in the school was normal compared to other districts and they also felt the teachers in the building worked hard to help the students succeed. Younger teachers responded lower on these three items. Items 37 ($p=.038$, $r^2=.026$), 39 ($p=.036$, $r^2=.027$) and 44 ($p=.029$, $r^2=.030$) were also significant and showed that older teachers believed that the teachers and administrators were competent contributors to the school environment, they felt more comfortable than younger teachers in making positive and negative phone calls home to parents to balance

91

out discipline issues, and older teachers felt that they seldom had disciplinary issues in their classroom compared to younger teachers.

Based on a teacher's experience, there were 6 of the 11 items that were significant predictors of influence on a teacher's morale. Both items 7 (p=.000, r^2=.099) and 30 (p=.000, r^2=.149) were highly significant and showed that the more experienced teachers believed that the staff worked as a cohesive unit to improve the school environment and believed that the teachers worked hard to help the students succeed compared to less experienced teachers. These two items accounted for 24.8% of the predicted value that influenced a teacher's morale. Items 35 (p=.005, r^2=.056), 37 (p=.005, r^2=.055), 24 (p=.042, r^2=.025) and 39 (p=.026, r^2=.032) were also significant and showed that the more experienced teachers left work feeling positive about what their students had learned, felt that the teachers and administrators were competent contributors to the school environment; more experienced teachers felt that the conditions of their workplace was conducive to executing high levels of quality instruction, and felt more comfortable making positive and negative parent phone calls to balance out discipline issues.

Based on gender, there were only 3 items that were significant predictors of influence on teacher morale. Items 13 (p=.004, r^2=.060), 35 (p=.021, r2=.035) and 46 (p=.004, r2=.056) were significant and showed that females felt that parents were more receptive to the concerns about how their child is doing in class, they also leave work feeling more positive than male teachers and they feel that their lessons are always well prepared.

<u>TABLE XIV</u>

Strength of relationship between teacher's beliefs in their teacher morale and their ability to motivate urban students based on grade level, age, experience and gender by survey item (n=121)

Item #		Grade Level	Age	Experience	Gender
	Pearson	-.484	.274	.315	.100
7	Significance	.000**	.001**	.000**	.137
	r-squared	.234	.075	.099	.010
	Pearson	-.244	.000	.135	.010
8	Significance	.004*	.499	.070	.455
	r-squared	.060	.000	.018	.000
	Pearson	.041	.074	.147	.245
13	Significance	.326	.210	.054	.004*
	r-squared	.001	.005	.022	.060
	Pearson	-.037	.036	.130	.055
18rev	Significance	.344	.346	.079	.274
	r-squared	.001	.001	.017	.003
	Pearson	-.481	.002	.158	.110
24	Significance	.000**	.492	.042*	.116
	r-squared	.231	.000	.025	.012
	Pearson	-.328	.068	.236	.186
35	Significance	.000**	.228	.005*	.021*
	r-squared	.108	.005	.056	.035

Item #		Grade Level	Age	Experience	Gender
	Pearson	-.319	.162	.234	.125
37	Significance	.000**	.038*	.005*	.086
	r-squared	.102	.026	.055	.016
	Pearson	-.251	.019	.077	.036
38rev	Significance	.003*	.418	.200	.348
	r-squared	.063	.000	.006	.001
	Pearson	-.019	.165	.178	.303
39	Significance	.416	.036*	.026*	.000**
	r-squared	.000	.027	.032	.092
	Pearson	-.214	.211	.118	-.021
41	Significance	.009*	.010*	.098	.408
	r-squared	.046	.045	.014	.000
	Pearson	-.258	.243	.386	.147
30	Significance	.002*	.004*	.000**	.054
	r-squared	.067	.059	.149	.022
	Pearson	.038	-.097	-.086	.216
43	Significance	.338	.146	.175	.009*
	r-squared	.001	.009	.007	.047
	Pearson	-.060	.173	.118	.137
44	Significance	.256	.029*	.099	.068
	r-squared	.004	.030	.014	.019
	Pearson	-.104	-.030	.057	.247
45	Significance	.127	.373	.269	.003*
	r-squared	.011	.001	.003	.061

Item #		Grade Level	Age	Experience	Gender
	Pearson	-.078	.120	.106	.237
46	Significance	.199	.095	.123	.004*
	r-squared	.006	.014	.011	.056

**p< 0.01, 1-tailed   *p<0.05, 1 tailed

DIMENSION V: TEACHING METHOD--Correlation between a teacher's beliefs in the three chosen teaching methods based on experience, grade level, gender and the number of districts the teacher has taught in

In Table XV, the relationship strengths regarding the three chosen teaching methods based on experience, grade level taught, gender and the number of districts the teacher has taught in are listed by item number taken from the survey instrument. Based on experience, there were two items that were significant predicators of influence on what the teacher believed was the most effective method to motivate urban students. Items 6 (p=.010, r^2=.044) and 32 (p=.008, r^2=.048) showed that the more experience a teacher had the more likely they believed that thematic-based instruction and inquiry-based instruction were the most effective methods of motivating urban students. However, based on grade level, those same items, 6 (p=.011, r^2=.043) and 32 (p=.004, r^2=.056) were negatively correlated in that high school teachers did not believe that these two teaching methods were the most effective ways of motivating urban students whereas elementary and middle school teachers felt they were effective.

Based on gender, item 6 (p=.007, r^2=.049) and item 26 (p=.011, r^2=.044) were significant in that females felt that thematic-based instruction and project-based

instruction were the best teaching methods to motivate urban students. Males, on the

other hand, did not feel that either of the teaching methods were the most effective in

motivating students in an urban setting.

TABLE XV

Strength of relationship between teacher's beliefs in the three chosen teaching methods and their ability to motivate urban students based on experience, grade level, gender and the number of districts the teacher has taught in by survey item (n=121)

Item # Districts		Experience	Grade Level	Gender	# of
	Pearson	.210	-.208	.221	.138
6	Significance	.010*	.011*	.007*	.065
	r-squared	.044	.043	.049	.019
	Pearson	.114	-.111	.210	.140
26	Significance	.108	.114	.011*	.064
	r-squared	.013	.012	.044	.020
	Pearson	.219	-.237	.136	.110
32	Significance	.008*	.004*	.069	.115
	r-squared	.048	.056	.018	.012

**p< 0.01, 1-tailed   *p<0.05, 1 tailed

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between teacher efficacy and student achievement by looking at a number of external factors that influence a teacher's belief in their ability to motivate children to perform. The five dimensions of influence that could change the motivation levels of students in the educational setting were created to compare it to the 10 demographic variables answered by the respondents. The five dimensions were motivation, perceived level of power, administrative support, teacher morale and a teacher's chosen teaching method. Each was correlated with the demographic variables, subject taught by the teacher, number of years of experience, the grade level taught, age, race, degree or level of education, their previous experience, the number of days the teachers missed, their chosen teaching strategy and the number of districts they had taught in.

Prior to starting the final study, two pilot studies were completed in order to determine the validity and reliability of the developed items for the survey instrument.

The pre-pilot study, tested for validity of the items where 5 participants reorganized the survey items by placing them into the 5 labeled dimensions developed above. Most of the items were categorized correctly and measured what we had expected. Four items were eliminated at this time because they were not good measures of the categories. A final pilot study was performed to see if the items were in fact reliable or consistently tested what was intended. A reliability analysis using Cronbach Alpha coefficients (see Table I) to measure the internal consistency of the items grouped, was used and all, but 1, was found to be above a .70 acceptable reliability coefficient. A total of 56 participants took the pilot survey and it was found to be very reliable based on the responses.

The final study, using the tested instrument, had a target audience of 250 participants. Five hundred surveys were distributed to male and female educators in two urban Northeast Ohio school districts to assure that at least a minimum of 120 surveys would be returned for analysis, but there still was the hope that 250 answered surveys would be returned. The hand-delivered surveys were placed in the mailboxes of participants and returned to India Ford via mail, inner-office mail or hand delivered by key building coordinators. Mass emails were sent to participants to constantly remind them to complete and submit the survey before the conclusion of the two week allotted time frame. The responses were entered into SPSS software and once entered, the data was analyzed using reliability charts, frequency tables, Pearson correlates and ANOVA tables and plots. Each dimension represented a different aspect of a teacher's belief and based on the participants responses, their efficacy measurements could increase or decrease the motivation levels of his/her students. P-values were used to help find

significance with the interaction of any two variables where p<.05 was considered significant.

<center>Discussions</center>

There were different variables that became significant factors under each dimension and none were alike across all five. However, the teacher's gender and their grade level were found to be significantly different in 4 of the 5 dimensions outlined. The number of districts that the teacher's had taught in was only significantly different in one of the dimensions. Another important point that came from the study was the r-squared values. The r-squared determined how much influence the significant factors actually had on the created dimensions. When looking at the teacher's belief in their ability to motivate urban students, experience, grade level and gender represented 23% of the predicted value that influenced that dimension. This means that almost a quarter of a teacher's efficacy beliefs about motivating urban students were based on those three factors.

Even more interesting is the fourth dimension, teacher morale. Age, experience, grade level and gender made up 33% of the predicted value that influenced the efficacy beliefs in that dimension. Those 4 factors made up over a quarter of the teacher's efficacy beliefs about motivating urban students; hence, those 4 factors should be observed to determine what could be done to better improve efficacy.

<u>I. Dimension I--Motivation</u>

In dimension I, there were significant differences in a teacher's belief in his or her ability to motivate students based on the teacher's level of experience, the grade level they taught and their gender. Teachers who had more experience had significantly higher beliefs in their ability to motivate urban students than teachers with less experience. It can be assumed that due to the number of years teachers have been in the profession, there is a better understanding of the demographic population with which they educate. Older teachers are more aware of what works and what does not work in the classroom for urban students, hence, there is a higher sense of efficacy for older teachers when motivating urban students. On the other hand, teachers with less experience working with the urban population may not be informed of the additional problems that students may bring that could possibly hinder their ability to accept the knowledge being offered from his/her teacher. Moreover, less experienced teachers may not yet be fully equipped to deal with some of the disciplinary issues that urban districts tend to have, thus causing lower efficacy in believing they are capable of motivating the urban child.

Significance was also found in a teacher's belief in their ability to motivate the urban child based on if they taught at the elementary, middle or high school level. Elementary teachers felt that they were able to motivate the unmotivated child and high school teachers did not feel that way. Elementary teachers also felt that they could motivate their students regardless of the resources offered to them and that they were able to develop activities in the classroom that would motivate their students.

High school teachers exhibited significantly lower beliefs in their ability to motivate the urban child as opposed to the middle and elementary levels. This difference

could be attributed to a student's age once the teacher receives them. Younger students tend to be more eager and ready to learn compared to older students. Interests change as students begin to age, also in urban households responsibilities change as well, minimizing the amount of time a student is able to focus on school. In addition, parental involvement as students begin to age tends to decline allowing students to become more exposed to non-school affiliated activities. These external factors make it very difficult for urban teachers to motivate the urban child as they age causing their beliefs in their ability to overcome these factors to decline, hence a decline in efficacy ensues. Middle school teachers also showed a significantly higher efficacy measurement than high school teachers; however, they showed a lower efficacy measurement than elementary teachers. Although the efficacy measurement was different between the elementary and middle school teachers, the difference was not significant.

There were statistically significant differences also found in a teachers' belief in his/her ability to motivate urban students based on their gender. Female teachers exhibited significantly higher beliefs in their ability to motivate the urban child as opposed to their male counterparts. On average, males responded that they slightly disagreed that they were able to motivate urban students and females responded that they slightly agreed in their abilities.

II. Dimension II—Perceived Level of Power

In dimension II, a teacher's perception of how much power they possess in their classroom as far as making decisions and developing lessons was found to be significantly different for respondents based on their age, the number of days they had

missed in a given school year and their gender. It was found that older teachers did not

feel that they had the power to decide how they taught the subjects in their classroom,

they also did not have the power to decide the type of learning assignments given and

they also did not feel that they were able to be creative in their classrooms.

Teachers who were older had significantly lower beliefs in their ability to make

decisions that impact student motivation in their classroom than younger teachers. This

difference could also be attributed to changing trends in educating students. Younger

teachers have already been trained in the more progressive best practice strategies that are

currently being used by the majority of the school districts, hence their ability to make

decisions in the classroom would be more accepted by administrative staff because they

are based on what districts are currently using. Older teachers are being trained on the

current practices, so must change the teaching methods they once used to motivate urban

students to better mirror the current practices accepted by educational leaders. This

would cause a decline in their beliefs in the ability to make decisions in their classroom

because they must do what administrators ask of them instead of what they feel actually

works in the classroom.

Significant differences were found in a teacher's belief in their ability to make

decisions in their classroom based on the average number of days the teacher had missed

in a given school year. It was found that the more days a teacher had missed, they felt

that they didn't have the power to be creative in the classroom nor did they have the

power to decide what teaching methods they were able to use.

According to the data, on average, the more absences a teacher incurred in a given

school year, the more likely that the teacher had lower beliefs in his/her power to make

decisions in the classroom and hence did not feel they could motivate urban students. Teachers who had missed 15 or more days had significantly lower beliefs in their power than teachers who had missed less than 7 days. This could be attributed to a teacher's inability to feel empowered by his/her peers and administrative staff and the result is that the teacher chooses to disengage by not showing up to work because success is not being experienced. Another factor that may contribute to the decline in a teacher's ability to make decisions in the classroom and a subsequent increase in absences from work is the inability to maintain student discipline in the classroom. When a teacher loses the power to control his/her students enough to make the classroom conducive to proper instruction and they are unable to implement peer or administrative suggestions, their efficacy declines and causes an emotional and physical withdrawal from their perceived failure.

There were also significant differences in a teacher's belief in their ability to make decisions in their classroom based on gender. Although both genders agreed that they have the power to make decisions in their classrooms, male beliefs were significantly lower than females. The gender findings were consistent with the findings of previous studies that observed male and female educators in schools or universities. Males tend to desire more of an autonomous and controlled setting, yet in teaching there are many variables that may change the dynamic of the environment of the classroom because of the individual students involved.

III. Dimension III—Administrative Support

In dimension III, a teacher's belief in the amount of given administrative support was found to be significantly different based on the teacher's grade level taught and the number of days the teacher had missed in a given school year.

Based on the grade level taught, high school teachers had the lowest belief in their administrative support helping them effectively motivate urban students compared to middle school and elementary teachers. High school teachers did not truly believe that administrative support contributed to high staff morale, they did not feel empowered to motivate the students, they did not feel the administrators provided them with the opportunity for leadership positions and they did not feel that the administrators allowed them to participate in decision making practices. Moreover, high school teachers did not feel as professionally valued, they did not feel that their professional accomplishments were recognized nor did they feel that administrators respected their decisions.

Elementary teachers had the highest beliefs that they received high levels of administrative support compared to the middle and high school teachers. Although the difference was insignificant between the elementary and middle school teachers, elementary teachers had slightly higher beliefs that their level of administrative support was effective and helped them motivate urban students. This could be attributed to the amount of autonomy offered at each grade level. The elementary and middle schools usually have more of a teaming approach which encourages parents and administrators to become more involved in the instructional direction of its teachers. Also, parental involvement at the elementary and middle schools is usually very high causing administrators to be more actively involved in the needs of the staff to assist in educating

the students. Usually, by the high school level, parents are not as active in their students'
education as they were when the student was younger, adding to high school teachers
feelings of no support.

Even more interesting was that teachers who believed that they were supported by
their administrative staff, missed less days of school. On average, teachers who had
missed less than 4 days of school had higher beliefs that they were supported by their
administrative staff.   On the other hand, teachers who missed many days of school
believed that school administrators did not respect their decisions, did not allow them to
participate in the decision making process, they did not feel professionally valued and
they did not feel the administrators recognized their professional accomplishments.

Teachers who are consistently present will build stronger relationships with the
administrative staff. In addition, the administrative staff may begin to rely more heavily
on those teachers who were more reliable by giving them additional duties within the
building which empowers the teachers to miss less days because they are valued within
the school environment. When teachers miss too many days of work, the administrative
staff does not rely on the individual to do much because they are unsure if the teacher
will be at work or not. This causes those teachers to continue to miss days because they
do not feel empowered by their administrators, hence believing that the administrators are
not very supportive.

IV. Dimension IV—Teacher Morale

In dimension IV, the urban teacher's morale or the feeling a worker has about his job based on how the worker perceives him/herself in the organization and the extent to which the organization meets his/her needs and expectations (Washington and Watson, 1976) was found to be significantly different based on the teacher's age, the teacher's experience, grade level taught and their gender.

Teachers who were 40+ years old had significantly higher teacher morale than the younger teachers who had taken the survey. Older teachers felt that the staff worked as a cohesive unit to improve the school environment, they also felt that the level of job stress present in the school was normal compared to other districts and finally, they felt that the teachers in the building worked hard to help the students succeed. Moreover, older teachers believed that the teachers and administrators were competent contributors to the school environment, they felt more comfortable than younger teachers in making phone calls to parents and they seldom had disciplinary issues.

Teachers between the ages of 26 and 35 had the lowest teacher morale. Although teachers between the ages of 21-25 years of age had higher morale than those between the ages of 26 and 40, they were still significantly lower than teachers who were over the age of 40 years. The assumption is that teachers just entering the profession have the attitude of educational euphoria and feel that the more committees that they become involved in, the more likely they will make an impact on the students they teach. They are the ones who are asked to present their innovative ideas tried in the classroom and to travel to various conferences to bring back new teaching strategies to the staff.   In addition, the younger teachers are more open to implementing change. After a few years

of teaching, there is a realization that in the urban setting, external factors may be a stronger contributor to the attitudes of the students taught than the actual teacher's lesson in the classroom. This causes a decline in a new teachers' morale because they begin to note that their ability to effectively make educational changes to help students in the urban setting is only as good as the impact of the student's individual external experiences. Unfortunately, those experiences are, inherently, beyond a teacher's control. Between the ages of 26 and 35, teachers are beginning to better understand their limitations and as time progresses they begin to adapt by modifying their teacher methods to better suit the needs of their students based on their students' backgrounds. Teachers who are over 40 years old have gained a better understanding of their own teaching limitations as well as strengths and have adjusted to better educate students. Their understanding makes them feel stronger about their teaching environment; hence, they would exhibit higher morale.

There were significant differences found in a teacher's morale based on their years of experience. The study showed that more experienced teachers believed that the staff worked as a cohesive unit to improve the school environment and believed that the teachers worked hard to help the students succeed. In addition, more experienced teachers left work feeling positive about what their students had learned, felt that the teachers and administrators were competent contributors to the school environment. Moreover, more experienced teachers felt more comfortable making parent phone calls and felt that the workplace was conducive to executing high levels of quality instruction.

Teachers who had more teaching experience had significantly higher teacher morale than those who had fewer years of teaching. This could, again, be attributed to a

better understanding of urban student educational needs. Teachers who have more experience also have gone through a trial and error period to figure out what methods and strategies work best, thus as time progresses, they become better at effective methods for motivating urban students to be successful.

High school teachers were found to have significantly lower teacher morale than elementary and middle school teachers. High school teachers showed that they did not believe that the staff worked as a cohesive unit to improve the school environment. They did not believe that their workplace was conducive to executing high levels of quality instruction. They also did not feel that the teachers and administrators were competent contributors to the school environment and did not leave work feeling positive about what their students had learned.

As mentioned previously, high school teachers receive less support from parents due to the age of the students they serve. This can decrease a teacher's morale because if s/he is not able to count on the parent for assistance with disciplinary issues or academic follow-up at home, it is difficult to help improve the weaknesses the students may have in the classroom. In addition, at this age level, many of the students are taking on more responsibilities at home and education becomes less of priority making it more difficult to effectively motivate students in the classroom as well.

Teacher morale for males was found to be significantly lower than female teachers. These findings were consistent with the data already in existence. In a 1995 study conducted by Michael Brennan and Cheri Robison entitled, *Gender Comparison of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy,* they found that most male university teachers believed their ability to effect student change was limited by external factors such as family background

and student characteristics which decreased their efficacy overall. In addition, in 2000, Cevat Celep conducted a study entitled, *The Correlation of the Factors: The prospective Teachers' Sense of Efficacy and Beliefs, and Attitudes about Student Control,* and found that female teachers perceived their students as more eager to learn, more respectful to each other and more responsible for their tasks. Moreover, he found that female teachers had more control over their classrooms than male teachers which could be a reason for lower morale.

V. Dimension V--Teaching Method

In dimension V, a teacher's belief that the three chosen teaching methods, thematic, inquiry and project based teaching methods, are best to effectively improve the motivation level of their students was significantly different based on the experience of the teacher, the grade level taught, their gender and the number of districts that they taught in.

There was a significant difference between the beliefs of older teachers and younger teachers. Although both older and younger teachers felt that thematic, inquiry and project based instruction was effective in improving motivation levels of urban students, older teachers felt that the three methods of teaching were the best in motivating their students to learn in an urban setting whereas younger teachers were not as supportive of the methods.

High school teachers did not believe that the three chosen teaching methods improved student motivation as much as the elementary and middle school teachers. It can be assumed that due to the age level, high school teachers would use more of a

lecture based approach to inform and educate students whereas at the elementary and middle school levels, teachers would be more prone to use hands-on activities to better engage the students in class.

Another significant factor regarding the teacher's beliefs in the three chosen methods improving student motivation was the number of districts the teacher had taught in. If a teacher had taught in 5 or more districts, they had a significantly higher belief in the three teaching methods being effective tools in motivating urban students. Teachers who taught in less than 5 districts did not believe that the three methods were effective educational ways to motivate urban students. This could be attributed to the number of teaching methods and strategies the individual teacher has been exposed to as well as the method that has proven to work best for them. If a teacher has been in various districts, they are better able to assess the effectiveness of a given teaching method because they can compare it to other methods. Teaching in fewer districts does not allow educators a great deal of exposure to other methods developed and utilized in various schools. This limits their exposure to more current methods being used in their school; in addition it minimizes their conference and professional development opportunities to what their district offers.

VI. Comparative Analysis

Interestingly, older teachers had a higher belief in their ability to motivate urban students, however had a lower belief in the level of power they possessed in making decisions to motivate urban students in their classrooms. On the other hand, younger teacher's had lower beliefs in their actual ability to motivate urban students, yet exhibited

the highest beliefs in their ability to make decisions in their classroom to motivate urban students. Younger teachers had the highest beliefs in their ability to make decisions that impact student motivation in their classrooms than all other age groups.

Another interesting finding was that the teachers who felt they had less power to make decisions in the classroom, were also the individuals who missed more days of school. In addition, teachers who had missed more days of school in a given year felt that they were not supported by their administrative staff.

The grade level taught by the teacher was proven to be significantly lower for high school teachers throughout this study. High school teacher's believed that they had less administrative support, their teacher morale was the lowest out of the three grade levels surveyed; and they did not believe that the three chosen teaching methods were the most effective in motivating urban students.

<u>Implications</u>

The implications of this study have practical significance for administrators to begin taking strides to better understand the needs of their staff. High school staff members need special attention paid to their belief in their ability to motivate the urban child. Discussions should be opened and programs implemented to assist high school staff members in developing methods to increase their abilities to successfully motivate urban students in school as well as design teaching methods that may be more effective for them. In addition, high school staff members should be allowed to have open discourse regarding what is effective administrative support to them because it will be vastly different from the elementary and middle school staff. This discourse will give

insight to help administrators have a better understanding about their role in assisting

teachers to effectively motivate high school students as well as assisting in methods to

increase teacher morale as well.

Moreover, administrators who are more alert and proactive in their efforts to

monitor teachers who are missing numerous days of work can actually take steps to

immediately offer suggestions and support. Having an ongoing dialogue early in the

school year with educators who have begun to take days off, may increase the likelihood

of improving teacher efficacy. Early intervention with students is the key to assuring

successful educational experiences over time. Similarly, interventions with educators are

also very important in not only increasing the number of successful experiences in their

educational career, but also it can help in improving efficacy beliefs in motivating urban

students.

Administrators could also focus more on effective veteran educator classroom

practices by utilizing the methods that they have found to be helpful in their classroom.

This acknowledgement would make them feel as though they do not have to change as

much in order to fit into the new expectations. Some of their old methods can be meshed

into the new so as not to remove all of their power from making decisions in their

classroom instruction. As noted by the data, older teachers are very confident in their

abilities to motivate urban students; however, they don't feel empowered to make

decisions in their classrooms. If that changes and administrators are able to include

practices that have worked for them in teacher workshops, conferences and other open

forums that highlight their successful practices, veteran teachers will feel more

empowered to participate and learn. These administrative practices could help increase the older teacher's efficacy beliefs overall.

Recommendations

The results of this study showed that teachers are in desperate need of various resources to better educate and motivate urban students effectively. The following recommendations could possibly aid in the attempt to promote an education that will be conducive to increasing the sustainability of the urban student's educational endeavors:

    a. Teachers at the high school level need to have more resources put in place in order to support their abilities to properly educate and motivate urban students to sustain their education.

    b. Administrators should have a monitoring system and a pool of developed strategies in place to assist in the empowerment of those teachers who consistently miss more than 5 days of school in a given school year. This would not be a negative strike against the teacher, it would be a way to build relationships with the teacher and encourage the teacher to become more involved in the school dynamic.

    c. Programs that help educators develop strategies to work with urban students over time should be developed and implemented to assure teacher sustainability. Based on the research study, teachers with more experience have higher morale, thus sustainability methods could help teacher retention because they will be happier with their jobs.

d. Create Buddy Schools where teachers can be exposed to numerous teaching methods to assist them in helping urban students. The Buddy School would be with another school that has similar demographics, but their scores are high according to the Ohio Department of Education.

e. More research should be done on the type of methods that are more effective in educating the urban child. Other resources should be included in urban schools that help children better focus on their education. Counseling and tutorial services should be offered on a daily bases.

f. Consideration should be taken in account for the methods of older teachers who have been effectively educating urban students. Suggestions should be shared and considered to increase the veteran teacher's belief in their ability to make decisions in their classroom.

g. Multicultural education has fallen by the wayside and should be mandatory for all educators to better understand the needs of the urban child.

h. Teaching to the test should not be the primary focus in educating the urban child, this method supports the urban child's failure due to lack of preparation for college. Preparing for a test does not help a child prepare for college.

Recommendations For Future Research

The following recommendations for future research and interventions are made following this study:

a. The current study should be enlarged to include more male teachers using a quantitative approach when analyzing the research data. A larger sample size of males will give a better picture of what male educators teacher efficacy tends to be on average.

b. A comparative study of urban and suburban teacher efficacy to determine the differences would be beneficial in understanding ways to increase efficacy.

c. A study to closely link teacher efficacy and student achievement that attaches teacher scores and their responses on efficacy measurement instruments should be conducted to assist in identifying teacher's who need additional assistance in the classroom motivating and increasing student achievement.

d. Future studies should be conducted to ascertain specific causative factors for the significant findings found in the grade level of teachers and their self-efficacy. High school teachers are at a serious disadvantage when it comes to motivating urban students and programs should be put in place to better assist high school educators in their efforts to help the students they service.

e. A qualitative study should be coupled with a quantitative study to look at teacher efficacy at various grade levels to determine causes for changes in efficacy at higher grade levels.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Auwarter, Amy. Aruguete, Mara. (2008). Effects of Student Gender and
Socioeconomic Status on Teacher Perceptions. Journal of Educational Research.

Bandura, Albert. (1986). Self-Efficacy. Encyclopedia of Human Behavior. V4.
71-81.

Bandura, Albert.; Pastorelli, C.; Barbaranelli, C.; Cprara, G.V. (1999). Self-
Efficacy pathways to childhood depression. Journal of Personality and Social
Psychology. 76, 258-269.

Berry, Barnett.; Daughtrey, Alesha.; Wieder, Alan. (2010). Teacher Leadership:
Leading the Way to Effective Teaching and Learning. Center for Teaching Quality.

Biehler, R.; Snowman, J. (1997). Psychology Applied to Teaching. Houghton-
Mifflin.

Blasé, J.; Kirby, P. (1992). Bringing out the Best in Teachers: What effective
principals do. Newberry Park, California: Corwin Press. 156.

Brennan, Michael D.; Robison, Cheri. (1995). Gender Comparison of Teachers'
Sense of Efficacy. Educational Resource Information Center.

Brinson, Dana.; Steiner, Lucy. (2007). Building collective Efficacy: How
Leaders Inspire Teachers to Achieve. Learning Point. www.centerforcsri.org.

Brok, Perry.; Levy, Jack.; Brekelmans, Mieke.; Wubbels, Theo. (2005). The
Effect of Teacher Interpersonal Behaviour on Students' Subject-Specific Motivation.
Journal of Classroom Interaction. V40, N5.

Collier, Marta. (2005). An Ethic of Caring: The Fuel for High Teacher Efficacy.
The Urban Review. 37 no4 N.

Davis, Joan.; Wilson, Sandra. (2000). Principals' Efforts to Empower Teachers: Effects on Teacher Motivation and Job Satisfaction and Stress. The Clearing House. 73 no6. 349-53.

Diamantes, Thomas. (2004). What Principals Think Motivates Teachers. Journal of Instruction Psychology. 31 no1 Mr.

Ebmeier, Howard. (2003). How Supervision Influences Teacher Efficacy and commitment: An Investigation of a Path Model. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision. 18 no2. 110-114. Education. V118. p150-156.

Edwards, Jennifer L.; and others. (1996). Teacher Efficacy and School and Teacher Characteristics. U.S. Department of Education: Office of Education Research and Improvement.

Ellenberg, F.C. (1972). Factors Affecting Teacher Morale. NASSP Bulletin. 56. n12.

Enderlin-Lampe, Scherie. (2002). Empowerment: Teacher Perceptions, Aspirations and Efficacy. Journal of Instructional Psychology. 29. no2. 139-46 S.

Enderlin-Lampe, Scherie. (1997). Shared Decision Making in Schools: Effect on Teacher Efficacy. Journal of Instructional Psychology.

Farrell, J.; Weitman, C. (2007). Action Research Fosters Empowerment and Learning Communities. Mendeley Papers. 73. no3. 36—40.

Fraenkel, J.; Wallen, N. (2003). How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education. McGraw Hill.

Gibson, S.; Dembo, M. (1984). Teacher Efficacy: A Construct Validation. Journal of Educational Psychology. 76. 569-582.

Goddard, Roger D.; Hoy, Wayne K.; Anita Woolfolk. (2000). Collective Teacher Efficacy: Its Meaning, Measure, and Impact on Student Achievement. <u>American Educational Research Journal.</u> Volume 37 n2 p479-507.

Goddard, Roger.; Goddard, Yvonne. (2001). A multilevel analysis of the relationship between teacher and collective efficacy in urban schools. <u>Teaching and Teacher Education.</u> Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan.

Haberman, Martin. (2010). Teacher Burnout in Black and White. <u>Education News.</u>

Hale-Benson, J.E. (1982). Black Children: Their roots, Culture and Learning Styles. <u>Johns Hopkins University Press.</u>

Hensley, Pat. (2008). What does Administrative Support Mean? <u>Successful Teaching.</u> <u>http://successfulteaching.blogspot.com/2008/01</u>.

Hoover, Randy L. (1997). <u>Forces and Factors affecting Ohio Proficiency Test Performance: A Study of 593 Ohio School Districts.</u> Youngstown, Ohio: Youngstown State University—Beeghly College of Education.

Huitt, W. (2000). Teacher Efficacy. <u>Educational Psychology Interactive: Teacher Efficacy.</u> <u>http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/COL/teacher/tcheff.html</u>.

Ingersoll, Richard. (2007). Short on Power, Long on Responsibility. <u>Educational Leadership.</u> 65. n1. S.

Irvine, J.J. (1985). Teacher Communication Patterns as Related to the Race and Sex of the Student. <u>Journal of Educational Research.</u>78. 338-45.

Jacob, Brian. (2007). The Challenges of Staffing Urban Schools with Effective Teachers. <u>Project MUSE Scholarly Journals Online.</u> V17. n1.

Jerald, Craig. (2007). Believing and Achieving. <u>Learning Point.</u>

www.centerforcsri.org.

Jones, K. (2011). What affects Teacher Morale? <u>Educational Leadership.</u>

Ketelle, Diane. (2006). The Role of Dialogue in Principal Support. <u>Leadership.</u>
35. no5. My/Je.

Leithwood, K.A.; Montgomery, D.J. (1986). Patterns of Growth in Principal
Effectiveness. Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Educational Research
Association, New Orleans.

Logan, Candice. Et. El. (1995). The Relationship between Teacher Perceptions
and Observations of Motivational Practices in the Classroom. <u>Northeastern Educational
Research Association.</u> Ellenville, NY.

Martin, Barbara N.; Crossland, Barbara J. (2000). The Relationship Between
Teacher Empowerment, Teachers' Sense of Responsibility for Student Outcomes, and
Student Achievement. <u>Educational Research Association.</u> Chicago, Illinois: Mid-
Western Educational Research Association.

Maslow, Abraham. (1962). Humanistic Theory. <u>Theories of Learning in
Educational Psychology.</u>

Meacham-Wilson, Sandra.; Coolican, Jean. (1996). How High and Low Self-
Empowered Teachers Work with Colleagues and School Principals. <u>Journal of
Educational Thought.</u> V30. 99-117.

Mertler, Craig. (2002). Job Satisfaction and Perception of Motivation Among
Middle and High School Teachers. <u>American Secondary Education.</u> 31 no1 43-53.

Messemer, J. E. (2006). *Influences on Teacher Decision-Making in Correctional Education Classrooms*. Unpublished Dissertation. The University of Georgia, Athens.

Miller, William. (1981). Staff Morale, School Climate, Education Productivity. Educational Leadership. 38. n6. 483-486.

Oettingen, G. (1995). Self-Efficacy in Changing Societies (A. Bandura, Ed). Camb. Univ. Press.

Pajares, Frank. (1997). Current Directions in Self-Efficacy Research. M.Maeher & P.R. Pintrich (Eds.). Advances in Motivation and Achievement. Volume 10, (pp. 1-49). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Pajares, Frank. (1996). Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Academic Settings. Review of Educational Research. 66(4). P543-578.

Pena, Robert A. (1997). Cultural Differences and the Construction of Meaning: Implications for the Leadership and Organizational Context of Schools. Education Policy Analysis Archives. Volume 5 n10.

Proctor, C. (1984). Teacher Expectations: A model for school improvement. The Elementary School Journal. P469-481.

Protheroe, Nancy. (2008). Teacher Efficacy: What is it and does it matter? Principal. 87. no5. My/Je.

Quinn, Robert; Andrews, D'Amato. (2004). The Struggles of First-Year Teachers: Investigating Support Mechanisms. Clearing House.

Raywid, Mary. (2001). What to do with students who are not succeeding. Phi Delta Kappan. 82 no8 Ap.

Riggs, Iris M. (1991). Gender Differences in Elementary Science Teacher Self-Efficacy. U.S. Department of Education: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Roman, Daniel. (2007). Teaching Strategies Used to Maintain Classroom Order. Marygrove College.

Ross, John; Bruce, Catherine. (2007). Professional Development Effects on Teacher Efficacy: Results of Randomized Field Trial. Journal of Educational Research.

Scharlack, Tabatha D. (2008). These Kids Just Aren't Motivated to Read: The Influence of Preservice Teachers' Beliefs on their Expectations, Instruction, and Evaluation of Struggling Readers. Literacy Research and Instruction. Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Schlecty, P. (1994). Increasing Student Engagement. Missouri Leadership Academy.

Schwarzer, Ralf.; Hallum, Suhair. (2008). Perceived Teacher Self-Efficacy as a Predictor of Job Stress and Burnout: Mediation Analyses. Applied Psychology. 57. 152-171.

Shen, Jianping. (2001). Teacher and Principal Empowerment: national, Longitudinal, and Comparative Perspectives. Educational Horizons. 79. no3. 124-129.

Smey-Richman, B. (1989). Teacher Expectations and Low Achieving Students. Research for Better Schools. Philadelphia, P.A.

Smith, Debra.; Wilson, Bruce.; Corbett, Dick. (2009). Moving Beyond Talk. Educational Leadership. 66. no5 F.

Spector, Paul. (1992). Summated Rating Scale Construction: An Introduction. <u>Sage Publications.</u> The International Professional Publishers.

Stiller, Jerome.; Ryan, Richard. (1992). Teachers, Parents, and Student Motivation: The Effects of Involvement and Autonomy Support. <u>American Educational Research Association.</u> San Francisco, California.

Strong, Wallace. (1993). Low Expectations by Teachers Within an Academic Context. <u>The American Educational Research Association.</u> San Diego, CA.

Talbert, Tony. (2003). Come to the Edge: Embracing Teacher Empowerment for the 21st Century. <u>Action Teach Education.</u> 25. no2.

Walls, Richard.; Nardi, Anne.; Minden, Avril.; Hoffman, Nancy. (2002). The Characteristics of Effective and Ineffective Teachers. <u>Teacher Education Quarterly.</u> 29 no1.

Washington, R.; Watson, H. (1976). Positive Teacher Morale: The Principals Responsibility. <u>NASSP Bulletin.</u> 60. n399. 4-6.

Welch, D.C.; West, R. L. (1995). Self-Efficacy and Mastery. <u>Developmental Review.</u> 15. 150-170.

Wilson.; Coolican. (1996). How High and Low Self Empowered Teachers work with Colleagues and School Principals. **

Wlodkowski, Raymond. (1978). Motivation and Teaching: A Practical Guide. <u>National Education Association.</u> Washington, D.C.