CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Review of related literature is an essential and fruitful phase of a research project. The investigator must know what research work has been done earlier and must continuously strive to update herself with the new knowledge created. Initially, a careful perusal of related studies is a valuable guide for defining the problem, recognizing its significance, suggesting data gathering devices; appropriate study design and source of data. The present chapter involves systematic identification, location and analysis of documents containing information related about the variables used in the study. These documents include books, periodicals, abstracts, reviews, theses and research reports. This chapter proposes to present a synthesis of the literature that supports the theoretical framework of the study.

According to the variables used in the study the review of literature has been organised and presented as follows:

2.1 Studies Related to Professional Commitment
2.2 Studies Related to Self-Efficacy
2.3 Studies Related to Professional Commitment and Self-Efficacy
2.4 Studies Related to Motivation
2.5 Studies Related to Professional Commitment and Motivation
2.6 Studies Related to Self-Efficacy and Motivation

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT

Maultsby (1970) studied variation in normative commitment, defined as an extent to which the individual mobilizes energy in the maintenance and defence of a normative standard. His sample consisted of 794 male high school seniors; the respondents were relatively homogeneous with respect to age and race. The findings of the study produced interesting results: that high status respondents were higher in commitment than middle and low status respondents, though the association was weak but statistically significant; that the respondents with the lowest opportunity and with lowest aspirations tend to have low commitment; that when opportunities and aspirations were high, commitment was also high; and that the other combinations produced commitment between these extremes. He concluded that these three categories were better predictors of commitment.
Thorton (1970) studied the effect of professional and non-professional types of organizational involvements on the compatibility of organizational and professional commitment for 383 junior college teachers. Results showed that organizational and professional commitment could be compatible according to the perception of organizational professional experiences and an organizational situation as affirming and exemplifying certain principles of professional determinism.

Jones (1972) in a study of analysis of behaviourally measured commitment pattern among university teachers and students, observed that their ability to communicate with others, elitism of one’s group, desire to control others, satisfaction, desire for the institution to meet the needs of the individuals and a feeling that others within organizations show responsibility as the best predictors of commitment.

Marker (1975) conducted a survey of teacher education in the state of Maharashtra. Her findings indicated that teacher educators at all levels were lethargic, conservative, they did not read, they did not think, they did not apply themselves to bringing about improvement, they took to the line of least resistance. These findings indicated that teacher educators seemed to have little interest in their profession.

Grossman (1976) carried out a study on relationship of task orientation and self-actualization to role perception and commitment to teaching in pre-service teachers. He investigated 182 teacher trainees and observed that high role congruence group were significantly higher on commitment than low congruence group and that task oriented group were higher in commitment than person oriented group. Commitment to teaching was measured with teacher’s attitude towards self and others (TATSO).

Goyal (1980) studied relationship among attitudes, job satisfaction, adjustment and professional interests of teacher-educators. The main objectives of the study were: to measure attitudes, job satisfaction, adjustment and professional interests of teacher educators of different categories based on sex, age, qualification and experience; to find out the difference in attitudes, job satisfaction, adjustment and professional interests among groups of teacher educators based on sex, age, qualification and experience; to find out the relationships among attitudes, job satisfaction, adjustment and professional interests of teacher educators of different categories, and to predict job satisfaction of teacher educators by treating their attitudes, adjustment and professional interests as independent variables. The sample consisted of 314 teacher educators, from thirty-eight institutions, of different age
groups possessing different qualifications and teaching experience. The major findings were: a large majority of teacher-educators were favourably inclined towards their profession and were satisfied in the job and had low professional interest; the attitude and job satisfaction of different groups did not differ significantly and professional interests among teacher-educators increased with teaching experience in a school.

Vashistha (1980) conducted a study on responsibility feelings of teachers and studied its relationship with students’ adjustment and achievement. He concluded that a teacher who feels responsible towards his profession will definitely influence his students. If the teacher takes pains and discharges his duties honestly, then academic achievement of student is markedly influenced.

Wadhawan (1980) studied professionalization among 375 school teachers of Delhi. He found that there was meaningful relationship between urban family background and teaching profession. Social background of women teachers was better than men teachers. There was negative relationship between exposure to teacher training programmes and professional attitudes. Men were found to be more professional than women teachers. Overall, teachers were found to be less professional and less satisfied with teaching as their career. There was positive relationship between the general environment of the school and the degree of job satisfaction in teachers.

Farrel and Rusbult (1981) propounded the “investment model” to explain commitment. They defined investment as activities, events or persons uniquely associated with the job and as things put into “the current job such as length of service, specific and non-profitable training, vested ownership and commitment”. They found that job commitment depends on a combination of satisfaction, investments, alternatives and costs. Here costs include the amount of sacrifices one has to make on a change in the job, like staying away from family, loss of other benefits from the present job. They found that satisfaction, alternatives, costs and investment (four factors of investment model) were the best predictors of commitment. The individual who has more satisfaction, less alternatives and who largely invested tended to be committed.

Rana (1981) studied professional commitment of Home Science college teachers in India and its relationship to personal and professional characteristics and to organizational climate. It was found that a majority of Home Science college teachers had a moderate level of value commitment and continuance commitment to teaching and that value commitment
and continuance commitment to teaching was not significantly associated with the organizational climate.

**Welsh and La Van (1981)** attempted to identify variables that can lead to increased commitment. For this purpose they studied *interrelationship between organizational climate, demographic characteristic, job satisfaction and job characteristics like role conflict, role ambiguity, power and teamwork and professional behaviour*. Results indicated that age, length of professional employment, satisfaction with work and promotion, teamwork, power and participation climate had positive correlation, whereas role ambiguity, role conflict had negative correlations.

**Kang (1982)** in his study on *professional commitment to teaching in Korean special education* investigated a sample of 501 teachers of South Korea of various special education programmes. It was concluded that personal factors such as educational setting, teaching level, age, employment of spouse, academic level, administrator attitudes and practices and support of administrator were highly correlated with teachers’ professional commitment.

**Wera (1982)** conducted a study of *attitude of secondary school teachers towards their teaching profession*. He carried out a survey in Thailand and found that professional attitude of urban teachers was more favourable than that of rural teachers, female teachers had more favourable attitude towards teaching profession than male teachers, more experienced teachers had more favourable attitude than less experienced teachers.

**Garg (1983)** focussed on teachers’ professional responsibilities in relation to administrative styles and organizational climate at secondary level. The results showed that level of sense of professional responsibility of teachers of urban schools was found to be significantly higher than that of teachers of rural schools. A positive correlation was observed between the type of management of the institution and teachers’ sense of professional responsibility.

**Al-Amri (1985)** surveyed the *professional commitment and outlook of 155 secondary school teachers and 74 principals in Irbid, Jordan*. The survey attempted to find out the respondents’ degree of commitment to their work and to examine the relationship between job advancement and sex and among job advancement, success and degree of commitment to work. Results showed that 24% of male teachers, 37.5% of female teachers, 60% of male principals and 53% of female principals were classified as job-oriented. The rest were non
job-oriented or had no preference between teaching and other jobs. There was a strong relationship between job advancement and respondents’ commitment to work, as well as a relationship between commitment to work and success. Principals were found to be more committed than teachers. No relationship was found between sex and commitment to the teaching profession.

Ahmed (1986) studied the determinants of job involvement among teachers. The sample consisted of 200 male undergraduate college teachers derived from three constituent and four affiliated colleges of Magadh University. The major findings were that both individual and organizational factors determined job involvement of college teachers; job involvement was positively correlated with job satisfaction and college satisfaction; constituent colleges induced more job involvement, identification with institution and job satisfaction among its teachers as compared to affiliated colleges.

Pandey (1986) studied organizational commitment, professional commitment and job involvement in relation to organizational climate, micro-job climate and personality variables on 424 scientists working in R&D of a big research organization. Results indicated weak predictive nature of organizational and job climate variables on professional commitment but personality variables (growth and work involvement variable) were found to be strong predictors. Pandey’s study also found professional commitment having a weak relation with organizational commitment and moderate relationship with job involvement.

Ciriello (1987) administered 163-item questionnaire on 655 full time teachers employed in Catholic Parochial elementary schools to understand relationship between organizational commitment, professional commitment (teaching) and job commitment (particular school). Results revealed that professionally committed teachers were less organizationally committed. Professionally committed teachers were much influenced by personal significance of instructional goals and they ranked first in importance to the goal of personal growth. Finance scale was also found to be salient among work factors for professional commitment. Importance of religion in one’s own life was identified as a predictor of organizational commitment.

Gupta and Rani (1988) investigated the level of professional commitment of school teachers and also studied whether there was any difference in their commitment according to their sex, age, education, rural/urban background and length of service. A total of 183 secondary school teachers were sampled for the study. The teachers selected belonged to
three higher secondary schools of Samana in Punjab and six high schools from nearby villages. The study revealed that teachers who were more than forty years in age were more committed than the younger teachers; teachers teaching in rural areas were less committed as compared to urban teachers and the male teachers from rural and urban areas were more committed than female teachers. Among females urban teachers were more committed.

Rosenholtz (1989) studied workplace conditions that affect teacher’s quality and commitment. He suggested two workplace factors that shape teacher commitment to the organization—psychic rewards and task autonomy. He found that positive feedback one received from doing one’s work and one’s knowledge of his/her performance were directly related to commitment. Increased task autonomy also enhanced teacher commitment.

Seifert and Atkinson (1989) in their study on whether home hinders professional commitment or not investigated the ways in which gender affects the balance of home and school life among teachers of young children and the balance of home and school life affects teachers’ notion of professional commitment. Data were gathered through the observation of 3 experienced kindergarten teachers, 1 male and 2 female. Observations were subsequently related to ideas about professionalism. Findings indicated that home affected work and vice-versa. Effects were both day-to-day and long term effects were more significant to the teachers.

Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) studied workplace conditions and the rise and fall of teacher commitment. A sample of 1213 teachers from 78 elementary schools of Tennessee was studied. The authors divided organizational qualities into those that impinged on the tasks of defining boundaries and implementing the professional teaching task and those that directly affected the core instructional role of the teacher. They found that novice teacher’s commitment was influenced more by organizational supports for the management of boundary issues, while experienced teachers were influenced more by organizational qualities that affected the core instructional tasks. They also found that midcareer teachers had a lower commitment to their jobs and placed greater emphasis on task autonomy than novices or veterans.

Sengupta (1990) studied professionalization among teachers of Calcutta University. In the study, 20 colleges under Calcutta University divided into single-sex colleges and co-education colleges, and 150 full time teachers constituted the sample. The findings were that the majority of women teachers belonged to higher socio-economic background than the men
and they perceived that they were not very successful in their teaching job although it was chosen voluntarily by them; most of the women teachers mainly restricted their activities to within their departments and a large proportion of male teachers had higher professional involvement in comparison to women teachers.

**Bisaria (1991)** studied *mobility patterns and professional commitments of higher secondary teachers*. Fifty teachers of Delhi were identified for conducting the study. It was found that frequent transfers and a majority of mobility patterns were negatively correlated to professional commitment; upward mobility was conducive to professional commitment but downward and horizontal mobility were negatively correlated to professional commitment; under normal circumstances women teachers detested going to school more so when the distance between their home and the school was too large.

**Tapodhan (1991)** studied *professional attitudes of secondary school teachers of Gujarat state* in relation to sex, area, caste, qualification, type of school, marital status, various faculties of education, age and experience. A sample of 480 secondary school teachers from 19 districts of Gujarat was taken up for study. The findings were that female teachers had more favourable professional attitudes than male teachers; urban teachers had more favourable professional attitudes than rural teachers; B.C. teachers had more favourable professional attitudes than non B.C. teachers. Qualification had no effect on professional attitudes; non-government secondary school teachers had more favourable professional attitude than government secondary school teachers; marital status had no effect on professional attitude; secondary school Arts teachers had more favourable professional attitudes than secondary school Science teachers; there was no differential influence on faculty of Science and Commerce as an independent variable; secondary school Arts teachers had more favourable professional attitudes than secondary school Commerce teachers; age and experience had no effect on professional attitudes.

**Kimmelman (1992)** conducted a study on *teacher professionalism in South Eastern school district of North Carolina*. The purpose of this study was to determine whether teachers in 22 Scout Schools who served (comprehensive school planning team) were more professionally oriented than teachers in Scout Schools who had not given this service. The study analyzed these teachers’ perceptions of ideal teaching situation with respect to subject categories of professionalism which was: autonomy, commitment to client, expertise and self-governance. The findings revealed that CSPT teachers were modest and generally more
professional in orientation than non CSPT teachers. It also showed that CSPT membership interacted with service as career development helper being associated with a significantly more professional expertise orientation. It was also found that teaching assignment, membership on system-level decision making committees and career goals were independently associated with a more professional orientation generally.

**Narang (1992)** studied the *role conflict, perceptions of accountability and professional culture of school teachers in Delhi*. The teachers were frustrated as they possessed post graduate qualification but were serving only as primary school teachers. The findings highlighted that the overall professional culture of these schools was poor, depressing and sterile despite the fact that most of the teachers were highly qualified, well-paid and came from better status families. Most of the teachers were disappointed and role tensioned beyond respite. The MC of Delhi authorities and the clerical staff were held responsible for the rot that had set in the schools. Nepotism, misunderstandings, rivalries, constant conflicts and faulty socialization existed in these schools.

**Firestone and Pennel (1993)** studied how *differential incentive policies affect teacher commitment*. The study identified seven key workplace conditions that contribute to teacher commitment: job design characteristics, feedback, autonomy, participation, collaboration, learning opportunities and resources. The effects of differential incentive policies such as merit pay and career ladders were assessed. The selection mechanisms in these two programmes were found to reduce autonomy and collaboration, but the job enrichment aspects of career ladders were found to increase participation, collaboration and resources. Combining policies that increase participation, collaboration and feedback were recommended rather than continuing to experiment with differential incentives.

**Wellis (1993)** studied *factors affecting teachers’ commitment to stay in teaching* and analyzed the causal relationships among commitment related variables. The results indicated that commitment to continue in teaching was a complex variable and much further research was needed to understand its relationship to work experiences of teachers. The findings suggested that teachers needed and wanted professionalism in their field and empowerment within their organizations. The meeting of these needs by the organization could affect commitment, therefore, affecting the retention and attrition behaviour of teachers.

**Gesilva (1994)** conducted research on the *professionalism among elementary and secondary school teachers at Saint Paul De Chartres schools in Bangkok, Thailand*. The
selected determinants of professionalism were competence, attitudes and commitment. Competence included knowledge, classroom instruction and human relationships, attitudes included professional growth and responsibilities and commitment included creativity, autonomy, rationality, ambition, service and culture. Both elementary and secondary school teachers perceived knowledge, conducting oneself in an ethical manner, teaching and practising their customs and traditions, rationality and professional growth to be the most important determinants of professionalism. Correlation, multiple regression and stepwise regression were used to determine whether there were statistical relationship between the independent variables and the selected determinants of professionalism and what the significant predictors of professionalism were. Grade, level, age, educational qualifications, number of years in present position and number of years in a teaching position appeared to be functions of professionalism.

John (1994) studied teachers’ professional values and professional growth in relation to principals’ decision making styles. The professional values and professional growth were studied in relation to sex, type of management, experience and location of the college. 27 colleges affiliated to Gorakhpur University and 390 teachers were selected for the sample. The findings were that male and female teachers did not differ significantly on professional values; professional values differed significantly in the teachers of minority and non-minority managed colleges; experience in teaching had no significant relation with teachers’ professional values; the location of the college was not linked with the professional values of teachers; teachers’ professional growth did not differ significantly among male and female, rural and urban and more and less experienced teachers; teachers of minority managed colleges had higher level of professional growth as compared to teachers of non-minority managed colleges; teachers’ professional values and professional growth were significantly related to principals’ decision making styles.

Chauhan (1995) studied professional responsibility, teaching attitude and organizational climate of teachers teaching in government and privately managed schools. 700 teachers working in 52 government and privately managed schools of Haryana were selected for the study. The findings were that there was no significant difference in professional responsibility of male and female teachers working in government and privately managed schools; there was no significant difference in the teaching attitude of male and female teachers; there was a significant difference in the teaching attitude of teachers working in government and privately managed high schools; there was no significant difference in
organizational climate of schools as perceived by government and privately managed high school teachers; teachers’ professional responsibility was significantly related with teaching attitude of teachers working in government and privately managed schools; teaching attitude and organizational climate jointly contributed for the variance of teachers’ professional responsibility.

Lamastro (1995) investigated the factors affecting professional commitment, organizational commitment and perceived organizational support. The research examined the relationship between professional commitment, organizational commitment and perceived organizational support with a total of 428 college and elementary/secondary school faculty. Results revealed that professional commitment and organizational commitment were positively related and found compatible. The factor structure of both organizational and professional commitment varied substantially for different professional samples. Unexpectedly, perceived organizational support did not moderate the relationship between affective professional commitment and affective organizational commitment, although the relationship between satisfaction with motivator resources and perceived organizational support was moderated by affective professional commitment in the college faculty sample. Higher levels of perceived organizational support were associated with lower levels of negative effect, with a marginally significant moderating effect of affective commitment noted for elementary/secondary faculty.

Burrows (1996) studied influence of leadership substitutes on secondary teachers’ organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The purpose of the study was to determine whether there were statistically significant predictive effects of substitute for leadership on teacher organizational commitment and general job satisfaction in a high school setting. The substitute for leadership professional orientation was found to be statistically significant as a predictor of organizational commitment for secondary teachers. This substitute was inversely related to organizational commitment. Three additional substitutes for leadership, organizational inflexibility, intrinsic satisfaction and spatial distance were found to be statistically significant as predictors of secondary teacher general job satisfaction. Organizational inflexibility and intrinsic satisfaction were positively related to satisfaction while spatial distance was inversely related.

Pressley et al. (1996) conducted a survey of instructional practices of primary teachers nominated as effective in promoting literacy. He reported that teacher commitment
had a positive effect on reading achievement. In a sample of 128 primary teachers and supervisors, teachers who reported a commitment to teaching specific literacy strategies were able to increase student reading achievement. Committed teachers reported many instructional activities designed to engage students in reading and writing.

Riehl and Sipple (1996) examined the relationships among teachers’ task environments, more general characteristic of school organizational climates, and teachers’ professional and organizational commitments. The study was based on a sample of 18,844 secondary school teachers. Task environment was operationalized in term of structural features of teacher’s class schedules, and school climate was measured in terms of administrative support, teacher influence and autonomy and collegiality. Results suggested that while teacher’s professional commitment and organizational commitment were unrelated to teachers’ class schedules, commitment was associated with school climate.

Kadyschuk (1997) in his study on teacher commitment undertaken in the schools of Saskatchewan addressed the multiple dimensions of teacher commitment and the presence of varying levels of simultaneous commitments to these dimensions, the effects which a number of personal and organizational variables may have on the dimensions of teacher commitment. Three dimensions of commitment namely organizational commitment, professional commitment and union commitment were identified. The researcher found evidence which supported both the presence of the three dimensions of teacher commitment as well as the presence of simultaneous commitments to more than one dimension. In addition, there was support for the presence of school-level and division-level effects in the relationships amongst the dependent and independent variables. Some of the more prominent variables of effect upon dimensions of commitment included: years of teaching experience (which were also examined by means of three career stages of ten year intervals), job task characteristics, and leadership factors.

National Centre for Education Statistics (1997) reported the effects of teacher professionalization on elementary and secondary teachers in the U.S.A. The analysis assessed the effects of teacher professionalization by examining the relationships between a selected set of characteristics, and one of the most important aspect - their commitment to their teaching careers. The results showed that some characteristics of professionalization were related to teacher commitment and some not. Four aspects of professionalization, in particular, stood out for their association with commitment: the reported amounts of teacher
Sulistyo (1997) investigated the relationships between high school teachers’ role perception and their degree of professional commitment to the implementation of population education in Yogyakarta province of Indonesia. The study had four objectives: to measure the relationship between teachers’ professional commitment and their personal characteristics; to explore the differences between the self-reported ideal situation and the actual practice related to teachers’ roles in teaching population education; to study the relationship of professional commitment to role perception; and to examine the direct effect of professional commitment on implementation of population education as moderated by perceptions of the ideal situation and actual practice. A sample of 312 Geography, Civics and Biology/Science population education teachers in 70 public, private and subsidized high schools in Yogyakarta province were selected through purposive random sampling. The results revealed that professional commitment had significant relationships with income, exposure to population education as student teachers, and teaching experience. The study also reported significant differences between the self-reported ideal situation and actual practice related to teachers’ roles in teaching population education. The study, therefore, concluded that professional commitment has a direct effect on implementation of population education and an indirect effect on the implementation through teachers’ role perception.

Fresko et al. (1998) investigated a model of predicting commitment to teaching as measured by the extent to which teachers expressed an unwillingness to change careers. Predictor variables included personal variables as well as job related factors. Data was taken from a sample of 175 teachers who had completed their pre-service training at an Israeli college over a ten year period. Results indicated that only job satisfaction could directly predict commitment. Other factors such as professional self-image, abilities, gender, job advancement and pupil grade level were indirectly related generally through their relationships with satisfaction. Teaching experience was unrelated to other variables in the model.

Shann (1998) studied professional commitment and satisfaction among teachers in urban middle schools. Teachers in higher achieving schools reported greater levels of satisfaction than those in lower achieving schools. Teachers also highly rated relationships with students and their parents. Interviews and questionnaires from 92 teachers in 4 urban
middle schools were used to assess the importance and satisfaction the teachers assigned to various aspects of their jobs. It was found that job satisfaction was positively related to teacher retention, teacher commitment and school effectiveness.

Singh and Billingsley (1998) examined the effects of professional support on teachers’ commitment to the teaching profession. They found that leadership of the principal had a direct effect on professional commitment. The impact of principal leadership was noted as being small, but significant nonetheless, across gender, levels of education and years of experience.

Hung and Liu (1999) studied the effects of stay-back on Hong Kong aided secondary school teachers’ professional commitment. Apart from voluntary stay back for educational and non educational purposes, the effects of other independent variables like gender, tenure, marital status, age, position and educational level on commitment were also studied. It was found that teachers who stay back more for educational purposes were more committed than those who stay back more for non-educational purposes; graduate teachers were more committed than non-graduate teachers; women teachers were more committed than men teachers; married teachers were more committed than single teachers; senior teachers in terms of age were more committed as compared to teachers less in age and teachers occupying higher positions in schools were more committed as compared to others.

Mc Aulay (1999) studied the effects of job-insecurity on commitment to organization and profession of human resource professionals, corporate attorneys and computer programmers. Professional commitment, organizational commitment and job involvement were considered as three important factors for professionals. The results indicated that job insecurity had no relationship with normative and continuance professional commitment.

Kudva (2000) studied impact of selected professional aspects on teacher burnout. Professional factors included professional qualifications, teaching level, professional growth, professional commitment and role efficacy. The target population included teachers ranging from pre-school to college level. The results indicated that there was considerable teacher burnout among respondents and professional commitment had a significant negative relationship with negative attitude towards self and students.

Punia (2000) studied commitment among university teachers on two dimensions: organizational commitment and job commitment. The first objective was to examine the
status of commitment among university teachers. The second objective was to study as to how organizational commitment affects or is affected by job commitment. The factors conducive to commitment were also studied. A sample of 130 respondents from three universities of Haryana was selected through convenience sampling technique. It was found that university teachers were more committed towards their job as compared to their organizations.

**Cardella-Lein (2001)** investigated the *effects of principal delivered verbal and written positive feedback on five teacher affective variables* (Commitment to Teaching, Commitment to School, Trust in Administration, Trust in Teacher, and Desire for Collaboration) *and two personal decision variables* (Efficacy Expectations and Outcome Expectations). The study also explored the difference, if any, in effectiveness between verbal and written positive feedback interventions. Eight schools participated from the Cartwright Elementary School District in Phoenix, Arizona over an eight week period of time. ANOVAs and effect sizes were calculated based on two concurrent studies, one using principals to deliver written positive feedback to four teachers at their school and the other using the same principals to deliver verbal positive feedback to four different teachers at their school. Four teachers on each campus also served as a control. The study also explored the difference in effectiveness, if any, between the written and verbal feedback. The written feedback produced no statistically significant results with any of the seven variables. The verbal feedback also produced no statistically significant results with any of the seven variables. However, a relatively small level of significance was detected for the variable Efficacy Expectations.

**Sharma (2001)** studied *commitment among teachers engaged in inter colleges, degree colleges and the teachers of C.C.S. university campus*. Her sample size consisted of 100 teachers. She found that age, sex, faculty had no bearing on commitment, whereas the level of education i.e. primary, secondary and higher had contributed to the development of commitment. Teachers engaged in higher education were found to be more committed in comparison to the teachers engaged in secondary education. Similarly, higher academic career, achievement and higher commitment went together.

**Shishupal (2001)** studied *student-teachers of B.Ed. classes with an intention to gauge their commitment to the teaching profession*. He found that the teacher-trainees exhibited a fair degree of commitment to teaching profession. He also found sex, age, father’s occupation; community background and income groups were not predictors of commitment.
His study also revealed that caste categories had some influence in determining levels of commitments.

Dannetta (2002) investigated the factors which influence a teacher’s commitment to student learning. The study aimed to answer four specific questions about this type of commitment: what factors most influence teacher commitment to student learning? Why are these factors important? Do organizational variables have an influence on teacher commitment to student learning? Does the student’s academic background make a difference to teacher commitment? The result obtained was a comprehensive list of 22 factors that influence a teacher’s commitment to student learning that could be categorized into personal and organizational factors.

Nir (2002) studied school-based management (SBM) and its effect on teacher commitment. In a 3 year longitudinal study of 28 elementary schools in Jerusalem, he found that SBM positively affects teachers’ commitment to the teaching profession and to students’ academic achievements and negatively affects their commitment to the school and to students’ social well-being. At the same time the findings showed that teachers’ autonomy on the job remained unchanged after SBM was introduced in schools. The findings showed that teachers increase their commitment towards issues that potentially may benefit them the most. It was suggested that teacher effectiveness has to be followed by sufficient benefits and professional autonomy if SBM is to promote commitment rather than teacher burnout.

Somech and Bogler (2002) examined the distinctive relationships of teacher professional and organizational commitment with participation in decision making and with organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The data was collected through questionnaires from a sample of 983 teachers at 25 middle schools and 27 high schools in Israel. The results of the structural equation model confirmed the main hypotheses and depicted distinctive patterns of relationships regarding professional commitment and organizational commitment in schools. First, whereas participation in the managerial domain was positively associated with both the professional and organizational commitment, participation in the technical domain was positively related with only teachers’ professional commitment. Second, professional commitment was positively associated with OCB toward the student, whereas organizational commitment was positively associated with all the three dimensions of OCB (toward the student, the team and the organization).
Joseph (2003) studied professional commitment of primary school teachers in relation to working conditions and selected personal factors. The major findings were: 1) A significant positive relationship was found between professional commitment and working conditions. 2) Significant positive relationship was found between professional commitment and gender, professional commitment and salary. 3) Significant relationship was found between professional commitment and qualification. 4) The four regression models showed working conditions to be the strongest predictor of professional commitment followed by gender, salary and qualification. 5) Marital status, teaching experience, type of teacher training and type of schools did not contribute significantly in the prediction of professional commitment.

Chuan (2004) studied the influence of selected factors on professional commitment of technical school teachers in Sarawak. The study also examined the extent to which professional commitment can be predicted by perceived principal support, collegial support, role status and job characteristics. Data were collected from 120 randomly selected technical school teachers in Sarawak. Overall, the study concluded that technical school teachers were highly committed to the teaching profession. They reported relatively high levels of affective, continuance and normative commitment. Furthermore, it was found that teachers who perceived high levels of principal support, collegial support and job characteristics were more committed to the teaching profession.

Priyadarshani (2004) studied occupational stress and job satisfaction in relation to professional commitment and background factors in primary school teachers of tribal areas. A sample of 400 primary school teachers was drawn through random sampling. It was found that highly professionally committed teachers had high degree of job satisfaction and also high occupational stress. The study also reported correlation between professional commitment and dimensions of occupational stress, professional commitment and dimensions of job satisfaction and correlation among occupational stress, job satisfaction and professional commitment.

Webb et al. (2004) conducted an analysis of primary teachers’ professionalism in England and Finland. They stated that policy makers’ conceptions of teacher professionalism currently differed markedly in England and Finland. In England, they were shaped by agendas associated with the drive to raise standards and ‘commercialised professionalism’, whilst in Finland they were influenced by notions of ‘teacher empowerment’. Issues of
professionalism were addressed through three broad themes: the impact of curriculum and pedagogical reforms, working together to implement these reforms and accountability and control. It was argued that in each country teachers’ conceptions of their professionalism were undergoing reconstruction. These conceptions were shaped by past and present ideology, policy and practice and displayed multiple and situational dimensions.

**Bunton (2005)** from her study on the *impact of changing nature of faculty compositions on the extent and nature of time commitment to students* concluded that some effects of the increasing number of part-time and off track faculty were positive; the overall impact of these hires was negatively affecting time spent with students, especially among part-time hires who were spending significantly less time with students out of the classroom; faculty from research institutions showed less time commitment to students.

**Day et al. (2005)** conducted a qualitative study *reform, standards and teaching identity: Challenges of sustaining commitment.* It was carried out on a group of Australian and English teachers and it was concluded from their responses that there were some identifiable factors that sustained teacher commitment and some factors that diminished teacher commitment. Personal and school context factors were found to be most significant in diminishing teacher commitment. The role of the principal was found to be critical in sustaining teacher commitment by being attentive to personal and school context factors. Moreover, the principal’s role was equally critical in addressing the context factors that diminish teacher commitment.

**Kaur (2005)** studied the *relationship between professional commitment and job satisfaction of teachers.* It was found that there existed a positive relationship between professional commitment and job satisfaction which means as the level of professional commitment increases, the level of job satisfaction will also increase and vice versa; there was no significant difference in the level of professional commitment of male and female teachers; there was no significant difference in the level of professional commitment of Science and Arts teachers and there was no significant difference in the level of professional commitment of school and college teachers.

**Kohli (2005)** studied *professional commitment of teacher educators in relation to their teaching experience, job satisfaction and optimistic pessimistic orientation.* The sample of the study consisted of 250 teacher educators with varying lengths of teaching experience from the colleges of education of Punjab and Chandigarh. It was found that majority of
teacher educators were moderately committed; no significant difference was found between male and female teacher educators with respect to professional commitment as a whole; different dimensions of professional commitment of teacher educators were positively and significantly correlated; no consistent significant relationship was found between professional commitment and length of teaching experience of teacher educators; professional commitment and job satisfaction of teacher educators were positively and significantly correlated and professional commitment and optimistic-pessimistic orientation of teacher educators were positively related but the correlation between the two was not significant.

**Maheshwari (2005)** in her study on *professional commitment of teachers* explored the extent, variation and distribution of professional commitment among teachers in secondary education and compared the degree of commitment among teachers with their social and academic characteristics. She also suggested ways and means of increasing commitment among teachers. A representative sample of 40 schools was taken on the basis of stratified cluster sampling technique. The major findings were that secondary school teachers were found to be concentrated on medium level of professional commitment and professional commitment was normally distributed; female teachers were found to be more professionally committed as compared to male teachers; the age of teachers had no significant bearing on the degree of professional commitment; teacher’s rural and urban background failed to show any bearing on their professional commitment; length of teaching experience exhibited no significant bearing on the overall professional commitment of secondary teachers. However, the findings suggested that a new entrant to the teaching profession i.e. having teaching experience upto 5 years exhibited more commitment on the dimension of human values. Also the teachers with more than 16 years of experience showed high “commitment to human values.”

**Crosswell (2006)** through a *multi-method study examined the phenomenon of teacher commitment as perceived by teachers themselves*. The study employed two rarely connected qualitative methods of phenomenography and case study. It combined the two methods in an effort to extrapolate and enhance the results from one method (phenomenography) with the results from another method (case study). The combined method was considered to be appropriate to investigate the multi-dimensional nature of teacher commitment. In the phenomenographic study, 30 experienced classroom teachers were interviewed. The participants worked in schools that represented the diverse education settings and contexts of Queensland. Geographically, the range included teachers from suburban (Brisbane), regional
(Rockhampton) and remote (Longreach) settings. Schools that participated included special schools, primary schools, high schools and schools of distance educations. The school site of Willowbark State School, a small inner city school was then investigated as a case study. One outcome of the study was an informed conceptualised Model of Contemporary Teacher Commitment that illustrated the relationship between the key categories of description. The study identified six categories of description of teacher commitment. These were teacher commitment as a passion, investment of extra time, a focus on the students, maintaining professional knowledge, engagement with the school community and transmitting knowledge and values. These categories were integrated into the model under the dimensions, “personal dimension” and a professional “enactment dimension”.

Day et al. (2006) studied the variations in teachers’ work, lives and effectiveness (VITAE project). The aim was to investigate factors contributing to variations in teachers’ effectiveness at different phases of their careers, working in a range of schools in different contexts. The project involved both primary and secondary teachers of different age and experience working in a range of schools, over a three year period. It examined influences upon and between their professional and personal lives and relations between these and their effectiveness in terms of pupil attainment. The research took place between 2001-5, a time of continuing educational policy changes in England which affected teachers’ work. The key findings from the analysis of variations in the commitment and resilience of teachers across all professional life phases were i) Teacher commitment and its effects on pupil attainment vary within and across professional life phases. ii) The majority (74%) of teachers were maintaining their sense of commitment. However, a sizeable minority (26%) were not. iii) Primary school teachers were more committed than secondary school teachers in each professional life phase and overall phases (81% and 65%). Twice as many secondary school teachers as primary teachers were less committed over all phases (35% and 19%). iv) Teachers in downward trajectories, regardless of professional life phase, were less committed and resilient and their pupils were more likely to perform below expectations than pupils of teachers in upward trajectories. v) Overall, there was a statistically significant association between teachers in different professional life phases who had high levels of commitment and their pupils’ attainment.

Elitharp (2006) studied the relationship of occupational stress, psychological strain, satisfaction with job, commitment to profession and resilience to turnover intentions of special education teachers. The findings of the study emphasized for the first time, the role of
psychological resilience in the study of special education teacher retention. The results indicated that as the perception to psychological resilience increased commitment to profession increased and intent to leave the field of special education decreased.

Kurz (2006) studied the relationship between teachers’ sense of academic optimism and commitment to the profession. Random sampling techniques were used to select 350 schools with third and fourth grades. Descriptive data were collected from a sample of 351 full time, third and fourth grade teachers within the state of Ohio. Findings supported the existence of the general construct of individual teacher academic optimism that was related to teacher professional commitment. Classroom context variables predicted academic optimism but not teacher professional commitment. Teacher expertise variables were related to neither optimism nor commitment.

Day and Gu (2007) studied variations in the conditions for teachers’ professional learning and development sustaining commitment and effectiveness over career. They found that commitment and resilience are fundamental to teachers’ effectiveness, and that variations in professional, personal and workplace conditions in professional, personal and workplace conditions in different professional life phases affect these. They also found that teachers did not necessarily learn through experience and that teachers were at a greater risk of being less effective in later phases of their professional lives.

Iordanoglou (2007) conducted a study on the teacher as leader: The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness, commitment and satisfaction. 332 primary education teachers participated in the study conducted in Greece. The results showed that emotional intelligence especially the intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions, had a positive effect on leadership role, explaining 51% of variance. A strong positive effect was also apparent on teachers’ commitment and effectiveness, as measured by teachers’ perception. Leadership roles such as performance evaluation, motivation support, and development improvement had a strong influence on effectiveness.

Jhujj (2008) carried out a study of professed and practised disciplinary orientations of teachers in relation to teaching experience, emotional maturity and professional commitment. A sample of 1000 secondary school teachers was taken from 13 districts of Punjab through stratified random sampling technique. The investigator found that professional commitment of secondary school teachers and their professed disciplinary orientation were positively and highly correlated; the professional commitment and practised
disciplined orientation were positively highly correlated; no significant difference existed between professed and practised disciplinary orientation of relatively highly committed teachers; significant difference existed in professed and practised disciplinary orientation of teachers with relatively low professional commitment. It was also found that emotional maturity and professional commitment of secondary school teachers were good predictors of professed and practised disciplinary orientation whereas teaching experience was a negligible predictor of disciplinary orientations.

Liu and Lin (2008) investigated the relation between perceived job stress, job satisfaction and professional commitment of 598 senior high and vocational school counsellors. The findings were: (i) Through cluster analysis of the eight resulting variables (professional identification, professional engagement, working pleasure, educational continuation, retaining trend, professional ethics, job stress and job satisfaction) the senior high and vocational school counsellors were divided into four sub-groups: “the simply getting by” the “positively involved”, the “absent minded and incapable”, and the “step by step”. (ii) Through discriminant analysis of the eight variables mentioned two new variables can be regrouped as the “enthusiastically pleased” and the “selfmoral uplift”. These two new variables can validly differentiate four clusters of school counsellors.

Troman (2008) reported changes in primary teachers’ identity, commitment and perspectives and subjective experiences of occupational career in the context of performative primary school cultures. The data revealed changed commitments and professional identities. The teachers who had an initial vocational commitment and strong service ethics were the older teachers. While some of the younger teachers expressed vocationalism in the form of wanting ‘to make a difference’ they also stressed the importance of time compatibility for family-friendly work and child care. In the ‘highs’ and ‘lows’ of school life a number of factors supported some of the teachers’ initial commitments, thus, providing ‘satisfiers’ in their work. However, some factors impacted negatively on teacher commitment. The psychic rewards of teaching provided the main basis of commitment and professional work satisfaction.

Cheung (2009) in her study nurturing commitment: an examination of the factors that sustain and erode teacher commitment to struggling students in urban high schools conducted a case study on 14 teachers who had a reputation for being committed to and successful with struggling urban high school students. The study focussed on how teachers
characterize the nature of their work as well as the factors that sustain and erode teacher commitment. The findings of the study indicated that what is unique to working with struggling students is a pervasive tension between teacher and students in the classroom caused by academic demand (on the part of the teacher) and anxiety related to meeting the demand (on the part of students). In any cases, the anxiety leads to resistance to learn.

Gaziel (2009) explored associations between teachers’ empowerment, teachers’ commitment and teachers’ attitudes towards the implementation of school based management (SBM) policy. It reported on strong positive relationship between SBM and teachers’ commitment. Teachers involved in SBM educational structures reported more commitment to school as an organization. Findings indicated that commitment to student learning was more a personal attribute than an organizational attribute.

Henkin and Holliman (2009) studied urban teacher commitment and explored relationships between teachers’ organizational commitment and interpersonal conflict, participation activities beyond the classroom and innovation in schools. Increasing experience in the profession was negatively associated with organizational commitment. Participation in activities beyond the classroom was marginally related to commitment, whereas support for innovation had a strong positive effect on teachers commitment.

Huang and Waxman (2009) assessed student teachers’ perceptions of secondary school environment and then related the perceptions to their satisfaction with school experiences and teaching commitment. The results showed considerable disparities between student teachers’ perceptions of actual and preferred school environments and suggested certain directions for improvement. Student teachers’ perceptions about their school environments, especially in the areas of professional interest and staff freedom, were positively associated with their satisfaction. Several school environmental aspects influenced the total years they planned to teach and their intention to teach at placement schools.

Karakus and Battal (2009) studied teachers’ commitment focuses: A three dimensional view. They conducted research to determine high school teachers organizational commitment levels, their commitment focuses and variables to which their commitment were related. The study was carried out on 1017 teachers working in public and private high schools of Elazig city. The results showed that teacher’s commitment focuses, their types and levels of commitment to these focuses varied according to their personal characteristics such as gender, marital status and tenure. Although female teachers were more affectively and
normatively committed to the teaching profession than their male counterparts, they had low levels of continuance commitment to the school in which they worked. Married teachers were less affectively committed than unmarried ones. However, married teacher’s continuance commitment levels to the teaching profession and to the school in which they worked were higher. As tenure increased, teacher’s continuance commitment levels increased. Although one to one five year tenured teachers had the highest levels of normative commitment to the teaching profession, they were the least affectively and normatively committed to the focus of work group.

Kaur (2009) studied *professionalism in teachers in relation to emotional intelligence, locus of control and organizational climate*. A sample of 400 college teachers of Chandigarh was taken through stratified random sampling technique. Significant relationship was found between professionalism and emotional intelligence, professionalism and organizational climate, professionalism and locus of control. It was also found that male and female teachers differed significantly in professionalism as exhibited in their professional satisfaction, professional commitment and professional attitude. No difference was found in professional involvement with respect to gender; no significant difference was found in professionalism amongst teachers with experience above and below 5 years; between teachers from government and private colleges and also from professional and degree colleges.

Magdalena (2009) undertook a *comparative study of professional commitment in teachers*. The study aimed at identifying the configuration of the professional commitment dynamics in the primary and pre-school teaching staff, according to the ‘years of teaching experience’ variable and subsequently, the ‘age’ variable. A sample of 45 teachers in primary and pre-school educational staff working in both rural (20%) and urban (80%) residencies with teaching experience of 2 to over 25 years was drawn. The results obtained had been analysed on the three groups of participants: teachers with work experience upto 5 years, teachers with work experience between 10 to 20 years and teachers over 25 years of experience. The findings were: 1) No significant differences were found between group 1 and 3 regarding teachers’ affective commitment. 2) No significant differences were found between groups 2 and 3 regarding affective professional commitment. 3) No significant differences were found between the three analyzed groups regarding normative commitment.

Mann (2009) studied *teacher commitment as envisaged by Mahatma Gandhi and its relevance in the present educational system*. The study was philosophical and historical in
nature. Gandhi ji felt the teacher must be committed to the student, to the society and to his profession. The study concluded that views on commitment and dedication of the teacher were very much relevant in the present educational scenario.

**Mc Cormack et al. (2009)** studied the *mediating effect of affective commitment on workplace bullying and intention to leave among school teachers in China*. Based on data from 142 school teachers in China, the analysis revealed that affective commitment partially mediates the effect of bullying on intention to leave. Furthermore, the direct effect of bullying on intention to leave is stronger than the indirect effect.

**Schwelchenau (2009)** conducted a study on the *effectiveness of an acceptance and commitment intervention for work stress*. He examined the effectiveness of an acceptance and commitment therapeutic approach to work stress in the US among traditionally high stress occupations: workers who serve those with intellectual disabilities and teachers. Forty five employees from three worksites in Midwest Ohio were assigned to either two, three hour intervention session or a waitlist control group. Participants completed measures one week before and immediately following the intervention. Results demonstrated a marginally significant reduction in psychological distress among intervention participants relative to the waitlist control group. However, waitlist control participants reported significantly less perceived job demands and marginally less burnout at post-treatment. Change in levels of psychological flexibility was marginally predictive of reduced psychological distress among intervention participants. Overall, results demonstrated partial support for the effectiveness of an act based intervention for work stress.

**Sezgin (2009)** examined the *relationship between teachers’ organizational commitment and school health in Turkish primary schools*. 323 teachers employed in 20 primary schools in Ankara were randomly selected. The results indicated that teacher compliance commitment was negatively related to both identification and internalization. Three dimensions of school health, institutional integrity, principal professional leadership and morale negatively predicted teacher commitment based on compliance. However, teacher internalization commitment was positively predicted by these three health dimensions. Professional leadership was the only school health dimension that was significant in predicting identification commitment. Two other dimensions of school health, academic emphasis and resource support were not significant predictors of commitment factors.
Shaokang (2009) investigated organizational commitment of university teachers. The findings were as follows: (1) Overall level of commitment of women was higher than that of men, but lower than that of men in opportunity commitment (2) The level of ideal commitment and opportunity commitment of post graduates was higher than graduates. (3) Married teachers had higher commitment than single teachers but were lower in opportunity commitment (4) Significant differences were found in affective and overall commitment in terms of teaching years. (5) Level of normative commitment and overall commitment of Science teachers was higher than Arts teachers.

Skretta (2009) described the phenomenon of commitment to teaching as experienced and told by 12 winners of the 1997 Sallie Mae First Class Teacher Award (SMFCTA) who were still serving as classroom teachers or in some other role as an educator. The study was conducted within a phenomenological framework and data were collected from semi-structured telephone interviews. Some participants experienced unwavering commitment to teaching over their careers, while others faced serious challenges to their commitment. Despite different experiences in distinct schools and settings across the U.S., the following conclusions were drawn – Student focus; work ethics, effort and dedication to continuous improvement and lifelong learning; investment and ownership; passion; balanced and prioritized commitment; and commitment to teaching from outside of the classroom teacher role.

Srivastava and Pratibha (2009) studied the relationship of teaching competency to teaching aptitude and professional commitment. Three hundred primary school teachers of Pilibhit district of U.P. were sampled for the study. The study revealed a positive and significant relation between teaching aptitude and teaching competency of primary school teachers. Difference in professional commitment of teachers had no significant effects on the overall teaching competency and aspects of teaching competency. Therefore, teaching competency and professional commitment of teachers were not related to each other.

Tabbodi (2009) examined the effect of leadership behaviour on the commitment of Humanities departments in the University of Mysore. The data were collected from 93 participants. The results revealed there was a significant relationship between the leadership behaviour of heads of Humanities departments and faculty commitment in the university. Significant differences were also revealed between leadership behaviours of heads of Humanities departments and male / female commitment; moreover, interaction effects
between age group and educational qualification regarding faculty commitment scores were significant.

**Tang and Choi (2009)** carried out a *qualitative study about how teachers entering the profession at different terms over the last five decades made sense of their professional lives and continuing professional development (CPD) experiences against the background of the CPD policy experiences and wider educational contact in Hong Kong*. Life history method was used. The findings showed that teachers’ self-directed professional development was driven by a commitment to the moral purposes of teaching, characterized by their active agency in professional knowledge construction and supported by facilitating organizational conditions in schools.

**Abd Razak et al. (2010)** examined the *similarities and differences in the influence of culture on teacher commitment in 3 types of Malaysian primary schools*. Each of the 3 types of schools was related to one of the 3 major cultural groups in Malaysia namely the Malay, Chinese and Indian cultures. An investigation was undertaken of the similarities and differences between these 3 groups with respect to cultural orientation with school leadership, in-school working conditions and teacher commitment as the criteria. The statistical analysis conducted at the teacher level was path analysis with latent variables using partial least squares regression to estimate the direct and indirect effects for the different ethnic groups of the main variables on teacher commitment. The differences reported between groups were of sufficient strength to argue that analysis with pooled data were largely inappropriate and consideration needed to be given to separate analysis for the various cultural subgroups both within a country and between countries where the effects of culture were largely different.

**Frankenberg et al. (2010)** in a longitudinal study explored the *relationship between preservice teacher attitudes about urban schools and their actual career decisions by tracking the urbanicity and student characteristics of graduates’ schools*. The authors found that most graduates attained teaching jobs in urban schools, and higher percentages of graduates who exited the programme more committed to teaching in urban schools took jobs in urban schools with higher percentages of students of colour and low-income students. The vast majority of graduates remained in urban school, but those graduates who transferred to work in less urban and/or schools with fewer students of colour or teachers who left the field altogether were those who reported lower urban commitment. Understanding how professed commitments to teaching in urban school at the end of a teacher education programme were
associated with the subsequent career decisions of graduates represented an important step in understanding why some individuals elected to teach and remain in urban schools.

Sood and Anand (2010) studied the level of professional commitment of teacher educators serving in secondary teacher training institutions of Himachal Pradesh. Data was taken from 135 teacher educators of 25 B.Ed. colleges of Himachal Pradesh. Results showed that the level of professional commitment of B.Ed. teacher educators in Himachal Pradesh was moderate. Significant differences were found in professional commitment of B.Ed. teacher educators with regard to gender, marital status and teaching experience. However, NET qualified and Non-NET qualified teacher educators were found to have similar level of commitment towards their profession.

Talawar and Kumar (2010) investigated the correlation between teaching commitment and educational aspirations of primary school students. A sample of 130 teachers and 150 students was drawn adopting random sampling technique from government primary schools of Bangalore district, Karnataka. The study revealed that there was high correlation between teaching commitment and educational aspirations of primary school students. There was a significant difference in the teaching commitment of male and female primary school teachers. There was no significant difference in the educational aspirations of boys and girls belonging to government primary schools.

Choi and Tang (2011) explored the self-appraisal of teacher commitment and their associated emotional experiences in the first ten years of teaching among three generations of Hong Kong teachers. Life history method was used. Semi-structured interview and documentary analysis techniques were used for data collection. The findings reaffirmed the fact that high commitment level of teachers was characterized with psychological attachment to the commitment object. However, the relationship between increased teacher commitment level, time investment in work and psychological attachment to teaching was found uncertain in the changing contexts. Further, teacher commitment was found to be strongly related to emotions. Teachers with increased commitment experienced positive feelings such as satisfaction, enthusiasm or a sense of achievement. Teachers with dissatisfied commitment suffered negative emotions such as weariness, doubt and stress. All number-oriented period entrants reported increased commitment in their mid-career reported positive emotions, however, many mid-career teachers in the quality - oriented and performance - oriented periods with increased commitment level reported negative emotions.
Dumay and Galand (2012) studied the multi-level impact of transformational leadership on teacher commitment. It aimed to investigate the processes explaining this effect at the organizational level. Using a sample of 660 teachers within 50 primary French-speaking Belgian schools, the authors tested a model hypothesising that the impact of the school principal's transformational leadership (as an organizational-level construct) on teacher commitment to school was mediated by school culture strength (cognitive pathway) and teacher collective efficacy beliefs (motivational pathway). Results of multilevel analyses largely supported the theoretical model, but showed that schools had a limited impact on teacher commitment.

Pai et al. (2012) investigated to what extent professional commitment of IT staff was being affected by the amount of work stress and job satisfaction. A sample of 280 IT employees was drawn for the study. The findings showed that during economic downturn, job satisfaction was positively correlated with professional commitment; while work stress had a significant negative correlation with professional commitment. Further, job satisfaction had a significant positive influence on professional commitment and general satisfaction; satisfaction toward the achievement acquired from work had the highest impact on professional commitment.

Gupta and Jain (2013) studied professional commitment among teacher educators with respect to locale, gender and academic qualification. A sample of 70 teacher educators was drawn for the study out of which 21 male and 49 female; 44 urban and 26 rural; 26 were NET qualified/ M.Phil/ Ph.D. whereas the rest had only M.Ed. as qualification. The data was collected by administering ‘Professional Commitment Scale for Teacher Educators’ developed by Dr. Vishal Sood. The findings showed no difference in professional commitment of teacher educators with respect to locale and gender; but showed significant difference on the basis of academic qualification.

Malmir et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between organizational justice and professional commitment in Kermanshah official organizations. The results indicated positive and meaningful relationship between organizational justice and professional commitment. Linear regression analysis also revealed that there is a positive and meaningful relationship between inter-organizational justice and professional commitment. Three components of organizational justice were ranked and the results showed that interactional justice maintained highest importance while distributive justice came last in terms of priority.
Uysal (2013) conducted a study on the effect of organizational climate to professional commitment development of intern workers. 317 workers were sampled for the study. Intern worker has been defined as a person who receives education in an educational institution and maintains his/her development under an enterprise to improve his/her professional ability and experience. In the study, seven hypotheses, one main and six subtype hypotheses were created by identifying professional commitment with the five factors under organizational climate. Correlational and regressional analyses showed a significant relationship between the development of intern workers’ professional commitment and each one of the dimensions of organizational climate’s trust-respect, the manner of leader, satisfaction, communication and the perspective of support. Further, no relationship was found between the development of intern-workers’ professional commitment and their graduated high schools.

The perusal of related literature showed meagre research on professional commitment as compared to organizational commitment. Professional commitment has been indirectly studied in other forms like job involvement, career and occupational commitment, professional responsibility and attitude of teachers towards the teaching profession (Ahmed, 1986; Chauhan, 1995; and Tapodhan, 1991).

Most of the studies have been on job satisfaction and adjustment (Goyal, 1980; Shann, 1988; Kaur, 2005; Kohli, 2005); organizational climate (Rana, 1981; Rosenholtz, 1989; Chauhan, 1995, Uysal, 2013); occupational stress (Priyadarshani, 2004; Elitharp, 2006; Liu and Lin, 2008, Pai et al. 2012); organizational justice (Malmir et al., 2013). Personality and psychological variables have been commonly associated with professional commitment. Difference in commitment has been studied on the basis of gender, age, caste, residential background, marital status, educational qualification, stream of education, teaching experience and kinds of schools. Research has highlighted various dimensions of commitment and also factors sustaining and enhancing commitment (Raju and Srivastava, 1993; Maheshwari, 2005; Cheung, 2009)

Overall, the results have showed positive relationship between professional commitment and organizational commitment and between organizational climate and professional commitment. Professional commitment has not always been found to be gender specific and mixed results have been found on the basis of location and teaching experience.
2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO SELF-EFFICACY

Gibson and Dembo (1984) studied teacher efficacy: A construct validation. According to him teacher efficacy has been identified as a variable accounting for individual differences in teaching effectiveness. This study of elementary school teachers developed an instrument to measure teacher efficacy, provided construct validation support for the variable and examined the relationship between teacher efficacy and observable teacher behaviours.

Locke et al. (1984) examined the effect of self-efficacy, goals and task strategies on goal choice and task performance on a sample of 209 undergraduates from an introductory management course. Self-efficacy and task strategies were manipulated through training. It was found that ability, past performance and self-efficacy were the major predictors of goals choice. Ability, self-efficacy, goals and task strategies were all related to task performance. Self-efficacy was more strongly related to past performance than to future performance but remained a significant predictor of future performance even when past performance was controlled. Self-efficacy ratings for moderate to difficult levels of performance were the best predictors of future performance.

Guskey (1988) carried out a study on teacher efficacy, self-concept and attitudes toward the implementation of instructional innovation. The study involved 120 elementary and secondary school teachers who attended a staff development programme which focussed on mastery learning of instructional strategies and instructional innovations for the study’s participants. The results of the study showed that teachers who regarded instructional innovation practices (mastery of learning strategies) as congruent with their present teaching practices rated them as easier to implement. Similarly, those who deemed instructional innovations as very different from their current teaching methods rated them as more difficult to implement and therefore less important.

Lee et al. (1991) explored the links between school organization and the self efficacy and job satisfaction of secondary school teachers. They also investigated the relationship between a teacher’s sense of control over classroom practice and self-efficacy. The sample included 8,488 full time teachers in 354 catholic and public high schools. Such elements as principal leadership, communal school organization, an orderly environment and average levels of control granted to teachers influence average efficacy. Higher levels of efficacy in Catholic than in public schools were explained by organizational differences.
Raudenbush et al. (1992) studied the existence of intra-teacher variation among teachers in 16 high schools and revealed that a teacher was most efficacious when teaching high-track students. This effect was most pronounced for Maths and Science teachers and disappeared when the level of student engagement was controlled. A teacher’s level of preparation and the grade level of the class also predicted intra-teacher variation. An analysis of inter teacher variations revealed that teachers who exercise control over key working conditions and work in highly collaborative environment had elevated self-efficacy.

Bandura (1993) reviewed the diverse ways in which perceived self-efficacy contributes to cognitive development and functioning. Perceived self-efficacy exerts its influence through four major processes. There are three different levels at which perceived self-efficacy operates as an important contributor to academic development. Students’ beliefs in their efficacy to regulate their own learning and to master academic activities determine their aspirations, level of motivation and academic accomplishments. Teachers’ beliefs in their personal efficacy to motivate and promote learning affect the types of learning environments they create and the level of academic progress their students achieve. Faculties’ beliefs in their collective instructional efficacy contribute significantly to their schools’ level of academic achievement. Student body characteristics influence school-level achievement more strongly by altering faculties’ beliefs in their collective efficacy than through direct effects on school achievement.

Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) conducted a study on teachers’ sense of efficacy and the organizational health of schools. They examined the relationships between two dimensions of teacher efficacy (general and personal teaching efficacy) and aspects of a healthy school climate. The sample was composed of 179 teachers, randomly selected from 37 elementary schools in New Jersey. It was found that a healthy school climate was conducive to the development of teachers’ beliefs that they could influence student learning (personal teaching efficacy). Only institutional integrity (the ability of the school to protect faculty from unreasonable outside demands) and teacher morale predicted general teaching efficacy. The data demonstrated that the construct of general and personal teaching efficacy are separate sets of beliefs.

Campbell (1996) compared teacher efficacy for pre-service and in-service teachers in Scotland and America. It was observed that teaching is a complex process requiring skills and strategies such as preparing lesson and unit plans, motivating students to learn, creating a
climate for teaching, using textbooks and curriculum guides effectively, using a variety of
teaching skills, using media and technology, maintaining classroom discipline and diagnosing
student difficulties and adapting instruction to meet individual needs. Pre-service and in-
service teacher education programmes must certainly include preparation in these important
areas, but should also include the development of confidence in one’s ability to execute these
teaching activities effectively. This latter concept has come to be known as teacher efficacy.

Ross and And (1996) studied secondary school teachers feelings of personal efficacy
towards teaching different classes. It was found that teachers’ performance expectancies
varied among teaching assignments. Within-teacher factors accounted for 21% of the variance
in teacher efficacy. The influence of within-teacher factors on teaching efficacy was
moderated by between teacher variables.

Singhal and Sharma (1996) conducted a study on teacher self efficacy and
competence for improving quality of primary schooling. The study took up the objectives of
examining the effect of training teachers into achieving subject specific competencies in the
primary classes on their self efficacy and competence. The sample consisted of 116 primary
school teachers trained at DIET, Moti Bagh into achieving competencies (MLL) during the
last two years. This was treated as experimental group. Another control group of 110 teachers
was identified from the comparable schools in South Delhi who had not been trained so far in
achieving competencies. The experimental group scored higher than the control group on
dimensions of self efficacy and competence. The experimental group felt more certain about
the power and capacity of teachers. Teachers believed that they could do many good things if
they so desired. The control group, on the other hand, had more valued observations made on
what teachers cannot do. Thus, while the approach of experimental group was positive, the
approach of control group was negative, which in turn, reduced the effectiveness of their
efforts for capacity building. Moreover, the experimental group was better in the use of
communication strategies and had significantly longer work experience.

Soodak and Podell (1996) conducted a study on teacher efficacy: Towards the
understanding of a multi-faceted construct. They explored dimensions of Bandura’s construct
of teacher efficacy by taking the responses of 310 preschool, elementary school, junior high
school and high school teachers. Personal efficacy concerned teachers’ beliefs about their
ability to perform specific behaviours, outcome efficacy referred to teachers’ beliefs that
student outcome was attributable to their actions. The authors believed that two factors
represented the efficacy expectation and outcome expectation of Bandura’s model of self-efficacy. The third factor, teaching efficacy, concerned teachers’ beliefs about the influence of external factors, including the home, heredity and television violence on the impact of teaching.

Ghaith and Yaghi (1997) reported a study undertaken to investigate the relationship among teachers’ experience, efficacy and attitudes toward the implementation of instructional innovation. Data were gathered through three questionnaires administered to 25 teachers immediately following a four-day staff development programme on co-operative learning. Results showed that experience was negatively correlated, personal teaching efficacy positively correlated and general teaching efficacy not correlated with teachers’ attitudes towards implementing new instructional practices.

Geoghegan et al. (1998) conducted a study on preservice early childhood teachers’ self-efficacy, teacher preparedness and facilitating children’s learning of concepts in multiple contexts. The findings indicated that final year preservice early childhood teachers had high levels of confidence for facilitating teaching and learning that incorporated a multi-modal approach to concept development. The study reaffirmed the view that perceptions of efficacy impact upon confidence and attitude in the professional role of teacher. However, the positive spiral of self-efficacy was dependent upon a high degree of professional reflection.

Hagen (1998) investigated into enriching teaching self-efficacy in pre-service teachers through direct experience, vicarious experience and persuasion. In this study, pre-service teachers were taught an approach to managing classroom behaviour problems and then completed two questionnaires regarding perceptions of personal self-efficacy as future teachers. It was found that participants demonstrated greater levels of self-efficacy in their ability to manage their classroom and have a positive effect on difficult to teach students despite their family background or influential peers. Participants also demonstrated a greater sense of efficacy in their ability to work successfully with hypothetical cases presented in brief vignettes.

Reames and Spencer (1998) examined Georgia middle school teachers’ perceptions of their work environment, their perceived efficacy and organizational commitment. A mailed survey was carried out on 400 teachers from 40 middle schools. 275 teachers responded to the survey. The findings showed that organizational structure and process variables were
positively related to important teacher beliefs such as personal efficacy and organizational commitment.

Ghaith and Shaaban (1999) in their study the relationship between perceptions of teaching concerns, teacher efficacy and selected teacher characteristics investigated how teaching experience, gender and grade level taught correlate with personal and general teacher efficacy and perceptions of teaching concerns among 292 Lebanese teachers from different school backgrounds. The findings were: personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy were not related; teaching experiences and personal efficacy were negatively correlated with perception of teaching concerns; more years in teaching resulted in more confidence in effective teaching but less concern towards other problems; on the other hand, gender, grade level taught and general efficacy were not found to be related to the teachers’ perceptions of any of the categories of teaching concerns.

Martines (1999) evaluated the effectiveness of a multicultural workshop in advancing teachers’ multicultural awareness and perceived self-efficacy. The subjects consisted of 60 urban high school teachers. One group comprised of teachers (n=30) who participated in the workshop and the other group of teachers was established as a comparison group (n=30). Teachers were administered the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey and the Teacher Efficacy Scale. ‘t’ tests were computed to test the hypothesis that teachers who were exposed to the workshop would demonstrate higher scores on the two scales than those who did not attend. Findings indicated that teachers’ participation in the workshop did not support the hypothesis. On the other hand, consultee teachers who did not participate in the multicultural workshop were found to differ from consultee teachers who participated in the multicultural workshop on the Personal Teacher Efficacy sub scale.

Brouwer and Tomic (2000) conducted a longitudinal study of teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. The study examined the direction and time frame of relationships between perceived self-efficacy in classroom management and the three dimensions of burnout among 243 secondary school teachers. The results indicated that perceived self-efficacy had a longitudinal effect on depersonalization and a synchronous effect on personal accomplishment. However, the direction was reversed for the relationship between perceived self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion; the time frame was synchronous.

Schmitz and Schwarzer (2000) studied self-efficacy of teachers in Germany. It was questioned why some teachers succeeded in being good teachers while other teachers could
not meet expectations imposed on them. Self-efficacy was one of the reasons. A new scale to measure self-efficacy was developed and tested in a longitudinal field study. The nationwide test of this instrument in 275 teachers in ten schools revealed good psychometric properties. High negative relations with job strain and with job burnout were found. Moreover, teachers high on teacher self-efficacy were used to offer up more leisure time for their students than their less self-efficacious counterparts.

**Wheatley (2001)** analyzed the benefits that specific teacher efficacy doubts could have for educational reforms, especially for progressive, meaning-centered reforms. Teachers efficacy doubts might support reform in several ways, perhaps most significantly by supporting teacher learning. Similar benefits could be expected for specific teacher doubts regarding collective teacher efficacy. The important role of efficacy doubts in progressive, meaning-centered teaching was highlighted. The conclusions challenged the common assumption that teachers’ doubts about their efficacy were inherently problematic for reforms.

**Evers et al. (2002)** who recently implemented an innovative educational system in the Netherlands focussed on the onset of burnout and self-efficacy. A random sample of 490 teachers employed in the study home system participated in this study. The results showed that the self-efficacy beliefs for each of the three domains were significantly and negatively related to the depersonalization and emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout and significantly positively related to personal accomplishment dimension. Furthermore, the more negative the teachers’ attitudes towards the study-home appeared to be, the more they appeared to suffer from depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, and the lower they scored on the personal accomplishment dimension of burnout. Thus, teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs are related to their burnout level. Teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs seem to be more prepared to experiment with, and later also to implement new educational practices.

**Friedman and Kass (2002)** offered a new conceptualization of teacher self-efficacy based on a broader work spectrum, comprising classroom and school organizational context, with empirical evidence to support its validity. Participants were 555 teachers from 22 randomly selected elementary and secondary schools in Israel. In a factor analysis of the scores, a two-factor structure emerged which consisted of teacher self-efficacy in the classroom and in the school organizational domain. Each factor possessed professional tasks and inter-relation elements. The study suggested a new definition of teacher self-efficacy.
**Gibbs (2002)** discussed the influence of teacher’s self-efficacy on teaching and how this related specifically to exercising thought control in teaching. Teacher’s personal sense of control and their beliefs in their capability to exercise personal control of their thinking during teaching was suggested as impacting on how teachers think, feel and teach.

**Hodge (2003)** explored the moderating roles of teacher’s gender and their years of teaching experience in the prediction of teacher’s self-efficacy beliefs from their perception of principal support and classroom autonomy. The sample included the mailed questionnaire responses of 223 Midwestern subway elementary, middle school and high school teachers. The findings revealed that while principal support and autonomy were predictive of teacher’s self-efficacy, only autonomy was found to be a significant unique predictor. Gender and years of teaching experience did not moderate the relationship between principal support, autonomy and self-efficacy. Furthermore, the results revealed that gender does moderate the relationship between principal support and self-efficacy beliefs when autonomy was removed from the analysis.

**Looney (2003)** in his study titled understanding efficacy beliefs: The role of professional community provided evidence of a relationship between teachers’ perceptions of a professional community within their academic department, teachers’ overall efficacy, efficacy for classroom management, efficacy for instructional practices and efficacy for student engagement. When professional community features were examined separately, teachers’ perceptions of shared norms and values also predicted all dimensions of efficacy, and perceptions of deprivatized practice within the department predicted teachers’ efficacy for instructional practices. Furthermore, perceptions of a departmental professional community predicted the degree to which teachers learn through observation of and persuasive comments from their colleagues, with perceptions of deprivatized practice predicting teachers’ vicarious experiences and reflective dialogue and collaboration predicting teachers’ reports of verbal persuasion. Finally, the amount of verbal persuasion teachers’ felt they received from their departmental colleagues predicted their overall self-efficacy.

**Milner (2003)** conducted a case study of an African American teachers’ self-efficacy, stereotype threat and persistence. The purpose of this qualitative investigation was to understand the sources of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) for an African American teacher in a suburban high school in U.S.A. As one of only three African American teachers in the school,
she encountered many challenges that could have threatened her sense of efficacy and thus caused her to leave the school, yet she persevered. An attempt was made to identify and interpret the sources of efficacy that encouraged teachers’ persistence in an unsupportive environment. Besides, it was considered how the concept of stereotype threat might help to better understand the teacher’s situation.

**Andersen et al. (2004)** studied the *relationship between changes in teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs and the science teaching environment of Danish first year elementary teachers*. The study’s purpose was to determine whether science teaching self-efficacy beliefs among new teachers of elementary science interact significantly with teaching environments in their schools. The self-efficacy of new elementary teachers from Denmark was assessed at the beginning, middle, and end of their first year of teaching. Their teaching success and environments were also assessed. It was found that positive changes in self-efficacy seemed positively related to the occurrence of environmental factors helpful to teaching. In three case studies, there was some support for this association from assessments, interviews and success in teaching.

**Desouza (2004)** carried out a study of *Science teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs of teachers in India*. The study revealed that middle school teachers in urban schools in India provided responses to the science efficacy instrument (STEBI-A). It was found that the instrument worked well for the two groups of teachers, but the differential item functioning analysis found that the teachers utilized several items in the scale differently. Parametric tests suggested that self-efficacy and outcome expectancy measures correlated highly for middle school teachers, for those that did not have a science degree and written science curriculum. Significant predictors of self-efficacy were minutes per week science was taught, educational level, number of days in the school year, holding of a science degree, and the presence of a science curriculum. Therefore, it was concluded that teaching experience was important, but not necessarily enough to increase teachers’ outcome expectancy beliefs.

**Adeyemo and Ogunyemi (2005)** explained the *interactive and relative effects of emotional intelligence and self efficacy on occupational stress of Nigerian University academic staff*. A sample of 300 staff from eight faculties of the institution was raised for the study. Data analysis involved the use of Pearson correlation and multiple regression procedure to investigate predictive capacity of the independent variables on the dependent
variable. The results indicated that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy when taken together were effective in predicting occupational stress. Each of the variables contributed significantly to the prediction of occupational stress with self-efficacy making higher contribution to the prediction.

Anderson (2005) investigated the extent to which high school teachers in general compared to high school health teachers perceive themselves as able to identify and possibly take action with students at risk for suicide. The results showed that teachers in general were significantly different from health teachers on all five variables: experience, efficacy expectation, outcome expectation, outcome values and sources of information. Seven recommendations were given: teacher education programmes on suicide presentation should be provided in school; crisis intervention teams should be available in schools; teachers in general should have more information from various sources about suicide; suicide intervention should be included in school curriculum; school counsellors should be available to receive referrals from teachers; additional research should be conducted to discover why adolescents attempt suicide; and the effectiveness of interventions to improve self-efficacy in teachers should be studied.

Chacon (2005) studied self-perceived efficacy of a group of 100 EFL (English as a Foreign Language) middle school teachers in Venezuela and how this related to their self-reported English proficiency. Using the short version of Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale based on Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy and two other sub scales (self reported proficiency and pedagogical strategies) he found that teachers’ perceived efficacy was positively correlated with self-reported English proficiency. As for the relation between teachers’ sense of efficacy and their use of pedagogical strategies (communication oriented vs grammar oriented), the results indicated that the efficacy did not have an influence over the kind of strategies these teachers preferred. The EFL teachers in this study seemed to be more inclined towards adopting grammar-oriented methods of teaching.

Chen and Bembenutty (2005) studied self-efficacy of urban pre-service teachers. The study was conducted on 60 pre-service teachers to learn about their self-efficacy beliefs and such learning behaviours as effort expenditure, assessment of academic accuracy and time and study environment management strategies in an educational psychology course. Results indicated that pre-service teachers who had higher efficacy and used time and study environment management strategies exerted more effort than those with lower efficacy. Also
those exerting more effort were more accurate in assessing their performance capabilities and subsequently scored higher on their practice tests.

Clift and Brady (2005) found the influence of pedagogical methods courses and field experience courses throughout teacher education programmes on pre-service teachers’ thoughts and beliefs about their teaching practice. The findings demonstrated the advantage of field experience courses early in a teacher education programmes. These early field experiences provided pre-service teachers with the opportunities to gain experiences through observation, simulation, tutoring and small group instruction opportunities all of which could influence the development of pre-service teachers’ efficacy levels and teaching skills.

Liang and Shang-bao (2005) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and the style of attribution of middle school teachers. A sample of 661 junior and senior high school teachers was drawn. The results found that creativity efficacy could be predicted by the attribution style by ability, but the work efficacy was predicted by the attribution style ability assignment and effort. The prediction of attribution style on self-efficacy was different in gender and teaching length. It was concluded that the relationship between self-efficacy and the style of attribution of middle school teachers was variable.

Woolfolk Hoy and Burke- Spero (2005) in their study changes in teacher efficacy during the early years of teaching: A comparison of four measures reported changes in teacher efficacy from entry into a teacher preparation programme through the induction year. Multiple quantitative assessments of efficacy were used including Gibson and Dembo’s Teacher Efficacy Scale, Bandura’s assessment of instructional efficacy and an instrument designed to reflect the specific context and goals of the preparation programme were studied. Results indicated significant increases in efficacy during student teaching but significant declines during the first year of teaching. Change in efficacy during the first year of teaching was related to the level of support received.

Zajacova et al. (2005) studied self-efficacy, stress and academic success in college. The researchers investigated the joint effects of academic self-efficacy and stress on the academic performance of 107 nontraditional, largely immigrant and minority, college freshmen. A survey instrument was developed to measure the level of academic self-efficacy and perceived stress associated with 27 college-related tasks. The results suggested that academic self-efficacy was a more robust and consistent predictor than stress of academic success.
Anglin - Bodrug (2006) carried out a study entitled *student evaluation of high school preservice teachers: Rating accuracy, formative feedback, and concurrent validity*. One of the objectives of the study was to find out whether preservice teachers with higher levels of teacher efficacy would have higher student ratings and would benefit more from feedback than those with lower levels of teacher efficacy. The results showed no significant difference in mean student ratings between low and high self-efficacy teacher groups and there was no evidence that pre-service teachers with higher self-efficacy responded any differently to feedback than those with low self-efficacy.

Betoret (2006) conducted a study on *relationships among teacher occupational stressors, self-efficacy, coping resources and burnout* on a sample of 247 Spanish secondary school teachers. Teachers reported that when their pedagogical practice in the school setting was being interfered or hindered by a set of factors from the multiple contexts involved in students’ learning, problems of burnout occurred. In addition, results revealed that teachers with a high level of self-efficacy and more coping resources reported suffering less stress and burnout than teachers with a low level of self-efficacy and fewer coping resources and vice versa.

Di Fabio (2006) investigated the *psychometric properties of the occupational self-efficacy scale* in a high school teacher sample of 172 teachers. Descriptive statistics, dimensionality, reliability and concurrent validity were calculated. Confirmative factor analysis supported a short item unidimensional version with good internal consistency and concurrent validity. OCC-SELF can become a precious instrument for measuring occupational self-efficacy also in a specific work setting.

Tobin et al. (2006) carried out a study titled *organizational learning and climate as predictors of self efficacy*. Schools were studied as organizations and 679 teachers and 734 non-teachers were taken for the study. For teachers, both organizational learning and personal self efficacy were significant predictors of teaching efficacy, whereas for the group of non-teachers they were not. In both groups, however, participation in organizational learning was a significant predictor, while organizational climate was not.

Yost (2006) carried out a *qualitative study on the relation between reflection and self-efficacy and enhancement of the retention of qualified teachers*. The findings supported the notion that self-efficacy, derived from successful field and student teaching experiences and the ability to use reflection for problem solving actually outweighed positive school climate...
as a factor in novice teacher success. Resilience in teachers leads to high levels of self-efficacy which in turn leads to greater persistence and risk-taking.

**Bandura (2007)** examined whether the *association between teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs and academic performance was mediated by their homework self-efficacy beliefs and their use of self-regulatory learning strategies*. The results revealed that teacher’s self-efficacy beliefs had an indirect effect on their academic performance, which was mediated by their self-efficacy beliefs about their capability to initiate and complete homework assignment and their use of self-regulatory learning strategies.

**Penrose et al. (2007)** studied *emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy: The contribution of teacher status and length of experience*. It investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy and the extent to which this relationship is moderated by gender, age, teaching experience, and status in a sample of 211 Australian teachers. The results showed that emotional intelligence was positively related to teacher self-efficacy. Regression analysis showed that neither gender nor age moderated this relationship, however, length of teaching experience and current status added significant direct effects on predicting teacher self-efficacy but did not moderate the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy. Status was found to be a stronger influence on teacher self-efficacy than experience and neither status nor experience influenced a teacher’s sense of efficacy as strongly as their level of emotional intelligence did. Importantly, emotional intelligence was a significant predictor of efficacy even after controlling for the effects of gender, age, experience, and status. Emotional intelligence and status together explained 20% of the variance in personal teaching efficacy and of the two, emotional intelligence made the greater contribution to the predicted model.

**Salami (2007)** investigated the *relationship of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy to work attitudes of secondary school teachers in South Western Nigeria*. The sample consisted of 475 secondary school teachers (males=230, females=245) randomly selected from South Western Nigeria. Measures of demographic data form, career commitment, organizational commitment, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and work family conflict were administered to the teachers. Results of the study indicated that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy had significant relationship with work attitudes. However, age, sex and work experience had none. The implications of the findings for selection, training, counselling and retention of teachers were discussed. It was recommended that emotional
intelligence and self-efficacy of the teachers should be enhanced for improving their work attitudes.

**Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007)** studied the *differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers*. Among the 255 novice and experienced teachers who participated in this study, contextual factors such as the teaching resources and interpersonal support available were found to be much more salient in the self-efficacy beliefs of novice teachers. Among experienced teachers, for whom an abundance of mastery experiences were available, contextual factors played far less important a role in the self-efficacy beliefs.

**Carmona et al. (2008)** examined whether *social comparison responses (identification and contrast in social comparison) mediated the relationship between goal orientation (promotion and prevention) and self-efficacy, and whether self-efficacy was subsequently related with a better performance*. The results showed that promotion-oriented individuals who were focussed on achieving success had higher self-efficacy than prevention-oriented individuals who were focussed on avoiding failure. Only one of the social comparison responses had a mediating role. That is the tendency to contrast one self with others who were doing better mediated the relationship between a prevention goal orientation and self-efficacy. In addition, self-efficacy was related to a better performance.

**D’Amico (2008)** examined the relationship between *collective efficacy and advanced placement teachers perceptions of parent involvement and self-efficacy in a high school setting*. The study analyzed the relationship of two factors: teacher’s perceived parent involvement and self-efficacy beliefs on advanced placement (AP) teacher’s collective beliefs. Data was collected from 32 AP high school teachers. Results of the study did not reveal a significant relationship between the three variables.

**Eslami and Fatahi (2008)** studied teachers’ *sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency and instructional strategies of Nonnative EFL teachers in Iran*. A modified version of the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) was used to assess efficacy for management, engagement and instructional strategies. Two other subscales (self reported proficiency and pedagogical strategies) were also used. The results showed that the teachers’ perceived efficacy was positively correlated with self reported English proficiency. The findings also revealed that the more efficacious the teachers felt, the more inclined they were to use communicative-based strategies.
Fabio and Palazzeschi (2008) analyzed the construct of emotional intelligence and its relation to occupational self efficacy in a sample of 169 Italian high school teachers. Significant differences in emotional intelligence were found with respect to age. In comparison to females, males obtained higher scores in the intrapersonal dimension while women scored higher on the interpersonal dimension. Teacher self efficacy was best explained by the intrapersonal dimension.

Faleye (2008) studied the suitability of 52 items for measuring teacher efficacy with the aim of developing and validating a Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) for Nigerian secondary school teachers. The scale was administered on 2400 teachers (mean age=36.75 years). Data were subjected to factor and reliability analyses. 28 items were dropped, resulting in the retention of 24 items in the final version. The instrument had a Cronbach’s Alpha and split-half reliability coefficients of 0.88 and 0.90 respectively. Exploratory Factor Analysis revealed that the items in the final version loaded on two factors which accounted for 46.40% of the total scale variance. They were ‘efficacy to influence students’ learning’ (Cronbach’s Alpha=0.86), and ‘efficacy to enlist parental support in students’ learning’ (Cronbach’s Alpha=0.72). It was concluded that the 24 item TES in its present form was capable of effectively measuring teacher efficacy among secondary school teachers.

Revital (2008) studied the relationship between school violence prevention training and teachers perceived self-efficacy in handling violent events; three indicators were used to examine teachers’ self-efficacy: personal teaching efficacy (PTE), teachers’ efficacy in the school as an organization (TESO), and teachers’ outcome efficacy (TOE). Data were obtained from an anonymous questionnaire administered to 147 teachers. The findings revealed a significant correlation between participation in school violence training and TOE, whereas training did not correlate significantly with PTE and TESO. Teachers at elementary and junior high schools reported higher levels of TOE in dealing with violence than high school teachers. A significant relationship was found between teachers who reported receiving high levels of support from the school and TOE in dealing with violence.

Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) examined the relationships between self-efficacy, job stress, and burnout, focussing on mediation (self-efficacy - job stress - burnout).Moreover, it questioned whether such a mediation, if found, would be dependent on the levels of other variables (moderated mediation). Study I, with two samples of teachers (= 1,203), examined this putative mechanism cross sectionally and found such an effect, in particular for younger
teachers and those with low general self-efficacy. Study II, with 458 teachers, replicated the results longitudinally over a period of one year by employing structural equation models. In a cross-legged panel design, low self-efficacy preceded burnout.

Selaledid (2008) studied teacher efficacy in the free State province of South Africa. The study operationalised the self-efficacy construct and applied it to the assessment of teachers’ self-efficacy behaviours with respect to the new educational perspective in the Free State province after May 10, 1994. 1128 samples of primary and secondary urban school teachers from 93 schools were taken. The variables studied were school category, gender and teaching experience as independent variables. The dependent variable was self-efficacy. After factorial analyses and the use of three-way ANOVA, the findings revealed a significant effect for the school category with respect to Teacher Administrative Responsibilities (TAR), Teacher Classroom Organization (TCO), and Teacher in Relationship with Others (TRO) as dependent variables. This pattern was inconsistent with gender and teaching experience.

Sridhar and Badiei (2008) examined and compared the teacher efficacy of higher primary school teachers in India and Iran by surveying 225 Indian teachers and 222 Iranian teachers. Overall, participant teacher efficacy scores were almost high. Statistically, no significant difference in general teaching efficacy scores were found between two countries. A statistical difference was found between male teachers in two countries in terms of personal teaching efficacy. Iranian male teachers had high personal efficacy than their counterparts in India. However, female teachers were not reported statistically different in both the dimensions of teacher efficacy. Furthermore, the results revealed no significant differences regarding efficacy beliefs on both dimensions for number of years teaching experience.

Sridhar and Razavi (2008) conducted a study on teacher efficacy in different management types of secondary schools. Different types of schools in Mysore district were examined- government, private unaided, private aided, CBSE affiliated, Muslim schools and Navodya schools. Data was collected from 61 secondary schools and 256 teachers responded to the questionnaire. Teacher’s efficacies with respect to demographic variables like gender, qualification, age, teacher experience and attentiveness were also examined. It was concluded that significant relationship existed between personal efficacy and types of schools. Navodya school teachers scored the maximum on personal efficacy. It was also found that student achievement also influenced personal efficacy. However, in case of general teacher efficacy it
was found to be independent of types of schools. Teachers below 30 years and above 51 years of age, teachers with Masters’ degree and teachers with experience of more than 21 years, teachers teaching science and female teachers were found to have higher personal efficacy and also higher general teaching efficacy than their counterparts in respective groups.

**Deryakulu et al. (2009)** studied the *satisfying and frustrating aspect of ICT (Information’s and communications technologies) teaching in Turkish schools with a comparison based on teacher’s self-efficacy.* Participants were 119 ICT teachers from different geographical areas of Turkey. Participants were asked to list salient satisfying and frustrating aspect of ICT teaching and to fill out the self-efficacy scale for ICT teachers. Results showed that high self-efficacy teachers listed more positive and negative aspects of ICT teaching than did the low self-efficacy teachers. The satisfying aspect of ICT teaching were the dynamic nature of ICT subject, higher student interest, having opportunity to help other subject teachers the most frequently cited frustrating aspect of ICT teaching were ICT-related extra works of schools and colleagues, shortage of hardware and technical problems, indifferent students, insufficient teaching time, and the status of ICT subject in school curriculum.

**Doherty (2009)** conducted a study on *self-efficacy and relational aggression with respect to general and special education teachers.* The study examined whether there were differences among general and special education teachers with regard to severity rating and intervention in relational aggression. The study sampled 311 high school teachers across U.S.A. No significant differences were found between special and general education teachers’ reported self-efficacy scores measured by the Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale-Long Form (TSES-LF). Teachers’ self-efficacy scores significantly predicted severity ratings in vignettes of relational aggression. Self-efficacy scores did not significantly predict reported likelihood of intervention in the vignettes. Supplemental analysis of this sample demonstrated a positive and significant correlation between teachers’ age and severity ratings in the vignettes.

**Griffin (2009)** studied the *relationship between self-efficacy of teachers and their perception of the school principals’ leadership style.* The results suggested that teachers’ perceptions of self-efficacy existed on different levels. Teachers with high and low self-efficacy did not necessarily rely on the principals’ leadership style for building their self-efficacy regarding student engagement and instructional strategies. These teachers may rely
more on other factors such as their own judgments, education, professional development, motivation, self-reflection, capability, and experience and collegial relationships to affect student achievement. Principals may want to consider the attributes of transformational leadership when influencing teacher self-efficacy. Teachers perceived themselves more efficacious when the principal had a more hands-on approach (transformational leadership) and inefficacious when a leadership had a more hands-off approach (laissez faire leadership). Principals who neither actively engage with teachers nor affirm the individual contributions of others are likely to lower self-efficacy among teachers, which could possibly lead to low student expectation, low student achievement and low student efficacy.

**Gurvitch and Metzler (2009)** studied the effects of laboratory-based and field practicum experience on pre-service teachers’ self-efficacy and found that field-based practicum teachers who experienced challenging yet authentic teaching situations demonstrated an increase in their self-efficacy levels prior to the student teaching semester. The pre-service teachers attained a mastery experience in the form of successful teaching performance in authentic environments, ostensibly contributing to a strengthening of their efficacy beliefs regarding teaching physical education in authentic school settings. The study demonstrated that providing pre-service teachers with early and frequent authentic teaching opportunities eventually fostered stronger teaching efficacy, once initial challenges were met in their teaching.

**Russel Mckenzie (2009)** evaluated student teaching experiences at urban and suburban field sites and their relationship to teacher efficacy, preparedness and commitment. Although the study did not find significant differences in resultant teacher efficacy, or preparedness for assuming full-time teaching responsibilities, urban-based teachers reported less long term teaching commitment, but were more likely to be seeking an initial placement in an urban school. Location and on-site school contextual variables (school climate, school poverty) played an integral role in prediction of teaching efficacy, while long term teaching commitment was most strongly predicted by emotional interpretations of the experience (satisfaction, stress, confidence) together with feeling supported by the field supervisor, intentions regarding teaching location were more dependent on support and encouragement received from mentor teachers in those locations, and viewing the mentor as a good career model.
Chong et al. (2010) explored how prior student achievement, through school types, predicted teachers’ self and collective efficacy and perceived academic climate of 222 middle school teachers in Singapore. Teachers assigned to high-track and regular middle schools differed in their perception of self and collective efficacy to promote organizational changes and student achievement, and of the academic climate of the school. Prior achievement was shown to be best predicted by perceived teacher collective efficacy and academic climate, but not self-efficacy. Further analysis revealed that the teacher collective efficacy partially mediated the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and academic climate.

Davies (2010) in his study investigated the relationship between teacher efficacy and the emphasis that teachers placed on higher order thinking in their teaching programmes. In the study this emphasis on higher order thinking was labelled “higher order instructional emphasis”. The research examined teaching in New South Wales government schools in the subject areas of History and Science in year 7 to 10. The sample consisted of 85 teachers out of which 52 were Science teachers and 33 were History teachers. Out of 85 teachers 47 were male and 38 were female. The study identified the powerful link between personal efficacy and higher order instructional emphasis. Teachers with a greater sense of personal efficacy placed a greater emphasis on higher order instructional objectives and outcomes than teachers with a lower sense of personal efficacy in similar context of the year, level of the class and the nature of the class.

O’ Neill and Stephenson (2010) explored final year Australian pre-service teachers sense of efficacy, its sources and some possible influences. Results showed that beginning teachers had a good sense of efficacy and classroom management was not differentiated from instructional or engagement efficacy. Further, personal qualities and physiological and affective states predicted self-efficacy scores and having a number of opportunities to practice behaviour management skills was associated with a higher sense of efficacy.

Sibichen and Annaraja (2010) carried out descriptive research on self-efficacy of secondary teacher education students. The objectives were to find out the level of self-efficacy; efficacy in teaching, efficacy in class management, efficacy in guidance, efficacy in preparing lesson plans, efficacy in preparing teaching aids, efficacy in using information and communication technology, efficacy in creating positive classroom management and efficacy in pedagogic analysis of male and female secondary education students. The findings showed that 21.9% of male and 7.4% female secondary teacher education students had high
level of self-efficacy. Furthermore, there was no significant difference between male and female secondary teacher education students in their self-efficacy in teaching, in class management, in guidance, in preparing lesson plans, in preparing teaching aids, in using ICT, in creating positive classroom management, in pedagogic analysis; but there was significant difference between male and female secondary teacher education students in their self-efficacy in organizing extra curricular activity and self-efficacy.

Suryanarayana et al. (2010) studied the relationship between teacher value behaviour and self efficacy of lecturers working in teacher training institutes and colleges of education of Andhra Pradesh. Regarding self efficacy of teachers all the demographic variables like sex, locality, age, marital status, qualification, experience and type of management were found statistically significant. Teacher value behaviour and self efficacy were found to be inter dependent. Significant correlation was found between the dimensions of teacher value behaviour and self efficacy. The area wise mean in merit order of teacher value behaviour was - Adjustment Centered, Professional Centered, Emotional Centered, Work Centered and Learner Centered, while the mean value in merit in respect of teacher self-efficacy was Physiological and Psychological Experience, Mastery Experience, Social Experience and Vicarious Experience.

Tsouloupas et al. (2010) in his study examined the relationship between teachers’ perceived student misbehaviour and emotional exhaustion, and the role of teacher efficacy beliefs (related to handling student misbehaviour) and emotion regulation in this relationship. Teacher turnover intentions in relation to emotional exhaustion were also studied. Data were collected from 610 elementary, middle and high school teachers using an online survey. The findings showed that despite the significant direct effect between the two emotion regulation strategies (cognitive reappraisal, expressive suppression) on emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions. Furthermore, teacher perception of student misbehaviour was found to have a considerable indirect effect on teacher turnover intentions. Findings signified the importance of developing strategies that enhance teachers’ situation-specific efficacy beliefs.

Guo et al. (2011) explored factors related to preschool teachers’ self efficacy and examined how teacher (teaching experience, perception of teacher collaboration and teacher influence) and classroom (children’s engagement) characteristics predicted teachers self-efficacy for 48 preschool teachers in the U.S. Results showed a significant interaction effect
between teachers’ perceptions of collaboration and children’s engagement in predicting teachers reported self-efficacy. Specifically, a higher level of children’s engagement was associated with a higher level of teacher self-efficacy. Teacher experience and influence in decision making were not related to teacher self-efficacy.

**Basavarajppa and Khanehkeshi (2012)** investigated the *relationship of academic stress, depression and self-efficacy with academic performance among high school boy students*. Using a random stratified sampling technique, 120 students from three academic grades including 1st grade, 2nd grade and 3rd grade were selected. The scale for assessing academic stress (Sinha, Sharma and Mahendra, 2001); Children depression inventory (CDI, Kavacs, 1992); and general self-efficacy scale (GSE. Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995) were used for collecting data. The Pearson’s coefficient of correlation showed that academic stress, depression and self-efficacy have simple and multiple significant correlations to academic performance. Analysis of variance showed that there is a significant difference between academic grades in terms of academic stress, depression and academic performance.

**Brigido et al. (2012)** studied the *self-efficacy of prospective teachers specifically with relation to emotions they expect to experience as future science teachers*. Data was taken from 188 teachers at the University of Extremadura during 2009/10. The results showed that they had positive emotions towards nature science and negative towards hard sciences. While their beliefs concerning their self-efficacy were significantly related to their emotions about their future teaching of the hard sciences, high self-efficacy was significantly correlated with more positive emotions and fewer negative emotions towards Physics and Chemistry.

**Garberoglio et al. (2012)** studied the *relationship of teacher and social characteristics with teachers’ sense of efficacy in different deaf education settings in the U.S.* Deaf education teachers reported high overall efficacy beliefs but significantly lower efficacy beliefs in the area of student engagement than in instructional strategies and classroom management. Teachers’ years of experience showed a significant relationship with efficacy beliefs, yet it was the teachers’ perceived collective efficacy of their educational setting that ultimately predicted teachers’ sense of efficacy.

**Kumar and Papaiah (2012)** carried out a study on *self-efficacy of 30 high school teachers of Chitton district of Andhra Pradesh*. The investigation was conducted to find out the presence of self-efficacy or otherwise among high school teachers. The results indicated that the high school teachers did possess self-efficacy. But significant difference was found
between the self-efficacy levels of teachers working in Zila Parishad High Schools and the levels of the teachers of private un-aided High Schools. The Zila Parishad High School Teachers (M=92) possessed relatively better self-efficacy than teachers from private un-aided High Schools (M=82). The probable factor for this difference were attributed to the higher level of belief due to their competence and also job security of Zila Parishad teachers as compared to teachers of private un-aided schools. No variation of self-efficacy was found due to the variations in age, gender, teaching experience, qualifications of teachers and subjects taught.

Polluakan (2012) conducted research to determine the effects of high scientific literacy, self-efficacy, and achievement motivation on teachers’ ability to compose effective tests. It was conducted among junior high school science teachers in Manado, North Sulawesi Province, Indonesia, from April to September 2011, using a cross-sectional survey design. The instruments used in this research consisted of questions to measure scientific literacy and teacher’s ability to make tests, and questionnaires to investigate the self-efficacy and achievement motivation of teachers. A path analysis was used to test the hypothesis that there are direct positive effect of high scientific literacy and self-efficacy, as well as indirect effects through achievement motivation, on teachers’ ability to compose effective tests. The results showed positive influences of (1) high scientific literacy on achievement motivation; (2) self-efficacy on achievement motivation; (3) high scientific literacy on teacher’s ability to make tests; and (4) achievement motivation toward teacher’s ability to make tests. However, self-efficacy did not directly affect ability to make tests.

Prabhu et al. (2012) studied proactive personality and entrepreneurial intent: Is entrepreneurial self-efficacy a meadiator or moderator? He examined two potential antecedents of entrepreneurial intent (EI): proactive personality (PP) and entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE). Specifically, the study was for testing the mechanism (mediation/moderation) by which ESE affected the relationship between PP/EI. For testing the mediation and moderation hypotheses the study used structural equation modelling and moderated regression analysis respectively. They found that PP had a robust relationship with the three different manifestations of EI- general, high growth, and lifestyle. Furthermore, ESE not only mediated the relationship between PP and high growth EI as well as PP and the lifestyle EI.

Cho and Shim (2013) conducted a study on contextual and personal factors associated with teachers’ achievement goals for teaching. A sample of 211 teachers was
taken. It was seen that perceived school mastery goal structure and performance goal structure predicted teachers’ mastery goals and performance approach goals, respectively teachers’ sense of efficacy moderated the effect of perceived school goal structures on achievement goals for teaching even when their schools emphasized conflicting goals. However, teachers with low teaching efficacy tended to assimilate goals promoted by their schools.

**Jadhav and Pujar (2013)** studied *occupational self-efficacy and job satisfaction of primary school teachers*. The sample consisted of 50 primary school teacher couples from Hubli-Dharwad twin cities of Dharwad district of Karnataka. Occupational self-efficacy scale developed by Pethe S., Chandhari, S. and Dhar, U. and Job Satisfaction Scale developed by Dixit, M. were used. ‘t’ test and correlation analysis was done. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between teachers (husbands and wives) occupational self-efficacy and job satisfaction. The study further reported positive and significant correlation between occupational self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

**Malinen et al. (2013)** studied *teachers’ perceived efficacy for teaching in inclusive classrooms by using a sample of 1911 in-service teachers from China, Finland and South Africa*. The investigators used Bandura’s theory of self efficacy to develop distinct models for each country. In all countries, it was found that experience in teaching disabled students was the strongest predictor of self-efficacy while the predictive power of other variables differed from country to country.

**Nneji (2013)** investigated the *effect of the teaching practice on Science teaching efficacy beliefs* among 340 Nigerian preservice basic science teachers from three different universities within the blue print of one-group pre-treatment, post treatment, quasi-experimental research design. In this study, Science Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument (STEBI-B) developed by Enochs and Riggs (1990) was used to collect data. The results indicated that pre service basic science teachers had high self-efficacy beliefs regarding science teaching. More so, teaching practice did have significant effect on preservice basic science teachers’ science teaching efficacy beliefs although gender had no significant effect on preservice basic science teachers’ science teaching efficacy beliefs.

A number of studies are available on the concept of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1993; Reames and Spencer, 1998; Brouwer and Tomic, 2000; Schmitz and Schwarzer, 2000; Friedman and Kass, 2002; Gibbs, 2002; Milner, 2003; Chen and Bembenutty, 2005; Zajacova
et al. 2005; Sibichen and Annaraja, 2010; Kumar and Papaiah, 2012; Malinen et al., 2013); teaching efficacy (Guskey, 1998; Campbell, 1996; Soodak and Podell, 1996; Ghaith and Shahban, 1996; Woolfolk Hoy and Burke-Spero, 2005; Selaledid, 2008; Davies, 2010; Cho and Shim, 2013) and construct validation of self-efficacy scales (Dembo and Gibson, 1984; Schwarzer et al., 1999; Schmitz and Schwarzer, 2000; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Bandura, 2005; Di Fabio, 2006; Faleye, 2008).

In most of researches self-efficacy has been investigated as a dependent variable. It has been studied with job satisfaction (Lee et al., 1991; Jadhav and Pujar, 2013); organizational commitment (Reames and Spencer, 1998); educational reforms (Wheatley, 2001); organizational climate (Hodge, 2003); emotional intelligence (Penrose et al., 2007; Salami, 2007); leadership style (Griffin, 2009); higher order thinking (Davies, 2010) and emotions (Brigido et al., 2012). Relationships between different dimensions of self-efficacy have been explored (Hoy and Woolfolk, 1993; Friedman and Kass, 2002) and comparative studies at various levels (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2006; Sridhar and Badiei, 2008; Malinen et al., 2013) have been conducted. A few recent studies have explored factors affecting self-efficacy (Guo et al., 2011; Cho and Shim, 2013).

Most of the studies have been conducted abroad and lately researchers have picked up this variable in India also. Generally, results have concluded high self-efficacy among teachers. Self-efficacy develops under good organizational climate (Lee et al., 1991); high self-efficacy is associated with innovation and good academic performance (Guskey, 1998). In cross border studies, it was found that experience was the strongest predictor of self-efficacy (Malinen et al., 2013).

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT AND SELF-EFFICACY

Coladarci (1992) studied teachers’ sense of efficacy and commitment to teaching. He examined the degree to which teachers’ sense of efficacy as well as other hypothesized influences on commitment to teaching predicted 170 teachers’ responses to the question “Suppose you had to do it all over again: In view of your present knowledge, would you become a teacher?” General and personal efficacy emerged as the two strongest predictors of teaching commitment along with teacher-student ratio, school climate and sex. In short, greater teaching commitment tended to be expressed by those teachers who were higher in both general and personal efficacy; who taught in schools with fewer students per teacher;
and worked under a principal regarded positively in the areas of instructional leadership, school advocacy, decision making and relation with students and staff. Teaching commitment also was higher for female teachers.

**DeForest and Hughes (1992)** probed the *effect of teacher involvement and teacher self-efficacy on ratings of consultant efficiencies and intervention acceptability*. The study indicated that from a pool of 102 elementary school teachers, 30 teachers scoring highest on a measure of personal teaching efficacy and 30 teachers scoring lowest on personal teaching efficacy were randomly assigned to view one of the two videotapes of consultation. The two videotapes were identical with the exception of the teachers’ involvement in making decisions at each of three decision points in consultation: Identifying the problem, selecting an assessment procedure, and selecting an intervention plan. After viewing the tape, the teachers rated the consultant effectiveness and the intervention’s acceptability. Teachers with high personal teaching efficacy rated the consultant as more effective and the intervention as more acceptable. No main effect for level of involvement or hypothesized interaction effect was found.

**Kemis et al. (1993)** studied *examination of the relationships between perceived teaching potential, commitment and efficacy and performance, satisfaction, preparation, career orientation and academic ability*. Respondents consisted of 126 first-year teachers who completed questionnaires at student teaching, graduation, and one year following graduation. Correlations between potential, commitment, and efficacy and performance at student teaching and as a first year teacher; satisfaction at graduation and as a first year teacher; academic indicators; variables related to preparation; and career orientation variables were computed. The results indicated that for first year teachers’ commitment to teaching as a professional career and efficacy appeared to be highly related to confidence in abilities as well as to satisfaction.

**Louis (1998)** studied how teachers’ *quality of work life contributes to their commitment to work and their sense of efficacy*. First, a model that tied organizational characteristics of the work place to important behaviours, attitudes and psychological characteristics of teachers that affect their teaching was presented. Second, measures of quality of work life in eight schools were examined, along with the relationship between the - quality of work life variables and measures of teachers’ commitment and sense of efficacy.
Finally, the effects of school structure on quality of work life were examined. It was found that quality of work life measures were strongly associated with both dependent variables.

**Wunder (1998)** examined whether teacher empowerment and sense of professional community would show a relationship to teacher’s sense of self-efficacy, motivation, and morale. Results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated (1) significant links between empowerment and teacher efficacy and morale with improved teacher attendance; (2) sense of professional community was strongly linked to higher levels of efficacy, morale, commitment to work beyond the regular day, and to fewer days missed from teaching; (3) strong school leadership had more to do with high levels of morale than efficacy, but it also contributed to a lower number of days missed from teaching; (4) minority status (Black or Hispanic) was very powerfully linked to higher levels of efficacy and commitment; (5) female teachers were able to attain significantly higher levels of efficacy than males and were more likely to work beyond the regular school day for planning, correcting papers, meeting with other teachers, counselling with students, and keeping up-to-date; (6) the positive effects of empowerment and professional community were more significant at individual teacher levels than through school-wide initiatives; and, (7) teachers in public schools were struggling with efficacy, motivation, and morale.

**Khmelkov (2000)** studied effects of school workplace organization on novice teachers’ sense of responsibility and efficacy. The research offered a conceptual model that linked individual aspects of teacher professionalism and organizational effects of a professional design of teaching in explaining the sources of teacher effectiveness. To explore empirically how workplace organization affected novice teacher’s professionalism during initial teaching experiences, the study examined longitudinal survey data collected from participants in two teacher education programs. The results of regression analysis showed that high initial professionalism was most likely to be sustained among those novice teachers who had autonomy in making decisions in their classrooms, received support from administration in managing discipline and other non-instructional demands, and engaged in collegial, outcome-focussed relationships with peers. Novice teachers with a strong sense of professionalism and those who had autonomy in their classrooms were consistently more likely to use progressive practices promulgated by current standards than teachers whose sense of professionalism was weak or who felt constrained in their teaching.
Joffres and Haughey (2001) conducted a qualitative study on the decline of elementary teachers’ commitment. It was found that when the teachers felt unsuccessful that is when they experienced low self-efficacy their commitments shifted or declined. Thus, commitment was linked to feelings of efficacy which in turn was affected by diverse organizational and individual characteristics, which was fostered by certain organizational and individual factors. Secondly, feelings of failure did not necessarily lead to a decrease of the participants’ commitment to teaching, unless teachers experienced hopelessness and/or the teachers’ inability to move to a different school. Instead, respondents indicated that unsatisfactory working conditions diversely affected their commitments, depending on their attributions of causes as to their felt lack of success. It was also found that declining commitments not only impacted the teachers’ professional lives but also their personal and social lives.

Knobloch and Whittington (2003) in their exploratory descriptive study investigated the differences between teacher efficacy of novice teachers based on relatively low and high levels of career commitment. The population was 91 novice teachers in their first, second and third years of teaching in agricultural education in Ohio. The teachers were split into two groups based on their median scores of career commitment. Although the two groups had the same teacher efficacy at the beginning of the school year, teachers with higher career commitment were more efficacious after the first 10 weeks of the school year than the teachers with lower career commitment. Moreover, teachers with lower career commitment experienced a decline in their teacher efficacy while teachers with higher career commitment did not change in their teacher efficacy from week 1 to week 10. There was a small relationship between career commitment and 10th week teacher efficacy.

Bogler and Somech (2004) studied the relationship between teacher empowerment and teachers’ organizational commitment, professional commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). They examined which subscales of teacher empowerment could best predict those outcomes. The data were collected through a questionnaire returned by a sample of 983 teachers on Israeli middle and high schools. The findings showed that the teachers’ perception of their level of empowerment was significantly related to their feelings of commitment to the organization and to the profession and to their OCB’s. Among the six subscales of empowerment, professional growth, status and self-efficacy were significant predictors of OCB.
Woolfolk Hoy (2004) in her research on self efficacy in college teaching asserted that highly efficacious teachers tend to be more open to new ideas, more willing to experiment with new methods to better meet the needs of their students, and more committed to teaching. They persist when things do not go smoothly and are more resilient in the face of setbacks. Efficacious teachers also tend to be less critical of students who make errors and are able to work longer with a student who is struggling.

Ross and Gray (2006) examined the mediating effects of teacher efficacy by comparing two models derived from Bandura’s social-cognitive theory. Model A hypothesized that transformational leadership would contribute to teacher commitment to organizational values exclusively through collective teacher efficacy. Model B hypothesized that leadership would have direct effects on teacher commitment and indirect effects through teacher efficacy. Data was collected from 3074 teachers in 218 elementary schools. The study found greater support for Model B than Model A. Transformational leadership had an impact on the collective teacher efficacy of the school; teacher efficacy alone predicted teacher commitment to community partnerships; and transformational leadership had direct and indirect effects on teacher commitment to school mission and commitment to professional learning community.

Rots et al. (2007) studied the relationship between teacher’s education and graduating teachers (not) starting in the teaching profession. Predictor variables referred to teacher education, integration into teaching and teaching commitment. To examine interrelationship between these variables, factors were also interlinked to test a theoretical model of graduates’ teaching commitment. The results revealed that graduates teaching commitment was strongly related to their entrance into the teaching profession. Furthermore, the perception of mentor teacher’s evaluative support was directly related to teaching commitment and other variables (e.g. faculty support, type of teacher training) were indirectly related through mediation with graduates’ teachers’ efficacy and professional orientation.

Ware and Kitsantas (2007) studied whether teacher and collective efficacy beliefs predict commitment to the teaching profession. The participants were 26,257 teachers and 6,711 principals who responded to the public school teacher and principal questionnaires of the 1999 and 2000 Schools and Staffing Survey (US Department of Education, 2005). The authors developed two teacher efficacy scales, a collective teacher efficacy scale and a teacher professional commitment scale. The findings supported the hypotheses that the scales
would significantly predict teacher professional commitment. The results indicated that 18% of the variance in teacher commitment to teaching could be explained by the three forms of efficacy- administrative direction, decision-making and class room management.

Chan et al. (2008) studied the mediating role of teacher efficacy and identification with school as predictors of teacher commitment. Perceived organizational politics was found to be negatively related to teacher commitment, whereas reflective dialogue and teaching experience were positively related. Teacher efficacy and identification with school were found to completely mediate the relationship between the three antecedents and teacher commitment.

Solomon (2008) studied the relationships among middle level leadership, teacher commitment, teacher collective efficacy and student achievement. The second objective was to determine if there were differences in the teachers’ perceptions of principal transformational leadership, teacher commitment and teacher collective efficacy when sorting Missouri’s middle level school by achievement qualities. The population consisted of teachers and principals from 138 middle level school in the state of Missouri. The study found that transformational leadership correlated with teacher commitment, teacher collective efficacy and student achievement. Significant correlations existed between teacher commitment, teacher collective efficacy and student achievement. Teacher collective efficacy and the transformational leadership factor of “individualized support” were predictors of communication arts achievement and teacher collective efficacy was a predictor of mathematics achievement. The transformational leadership factor of “goal acceptance” was a predictor of teacher commitment, while “vision identification” was a predictor of teacher collective efficacy. Finally, schools in the lowest achievement qualities had significantly lower levels of teacher commitment and teacher collective efficacy than those in the highest qualities.

Rosa and Alessandri (2009) carried out a study on teachers’ efficacy: Promoting job commitment and job satisfaction. They conducted an in-depth analysis of the soundness and validity of a theoretical model regarding the influence of self efficacy, collective and personal, on two organizational variables- job commitment and job satisfaction- within the school context, in light of the central role played by the perception of the quality of the work environment. The study investigated the psychosocial well-being within the school context among a sample of 375 teachers drawn from Italian primary and middle schools. The
theoretical model was checked against data using structural-equation models, a statistical tool that allows an empirical test of the degree to which a theoretical model explains the empirical co-variance observed within a set of empirical data. The study affirmed the validity of the proposed theoretical model and revealed the pivotal role of teachers’ personal self efficacy beliefs in influencing important organizational variables such as perception of work environment, commitment to the organization and job satisfaction. The perception of the work environment mediates the influence of personal efficacy on collective efficacy, which in turn, influences job commitment and job satisfaction. These causal relationships play a very important role in and influence on teachers’ participation in creating personal and organizational psychosocial well-being.

Eginli (2010) investigated relationship among principal leadership, collective efficacy, teacher efficacy and teacher commitment to the profession. For this investigation, three mediation models were hypothesized and tested. The first hypothesis was partially supported for most of the study variables had positive significant associations. The data partially supported the first mediation model when collective efficacy was hypothesized to be the mediator of principal leadership and teacher commitment to the profession. The third and fourth hypotheses were not supported when general teacher efficacy and personal teacher efficacy hypothesized to be the mediator of principal leadership and teacher commitment to the profession.

Erawan (2010) conducted a study on comparison of teaching efficacy, commitment to teaching profession and satisfaction with program effectiveness of teacher students under the 5 year program curriculum and those under the 4 + 1 year program curriculum. The sample size consisted of 322 Thai teacher students from 12 universities. The results indicated that the teacher students under 5 year program of teaching profession curriculum had teaching efficacy, commitment to the teaching profession and satisfaction with program effectiveness more than those under 4+1 year program curriculum.

Lin and Lu (2010) conducted a study on teachers’ task values and self-efficacy on their commitment and effectiveness for technology-instruction integration. They investigated the current situations and problems of primary school teacher’s technology-instruction integration. By implementing the approach of cognitive motivators and the human performance technology (HPT) theory, this study also investigated the relationships among teacher’s cognitive motivators (self-efficacy nd task values) and their commitment and
effort on technology-instruction integration. The researchers delivered 2,952 questionnaires via internet, e-mail and airmail in January 2008. Finally, 1,549 questionnaires replied back. The findings were: The situation of "high-tech schools, low-access technology" also happened in Taipei primary schools. The time teachers devoted to use technology into instruction was about 1-3 hour(s) per week and the level of technology implementation to be used was low. Besides, teacher’s self-efficacy and task values had impact on their commitment and effort on technology-instruction integration. Teachers' age and the length of teaching presented opposite correlations with their commitment and effort on technology-instruction integration.

**Siu and Ho (2010)** examined the correlation between commitment to specific treatment orientations and teacher self efficacy. The participants included 115 teachers working with children with autism. Teachers using one of the two different treatment orientations participated in the study: as oriented towards Applied Behaviour Analysis (ABA) and those committed to the Treatment and Education of Autistic and Communication-related Hadicapped Children (TEACH) orientation. The two groups were compared to a group of teachers with commitment to neither of these orientations (who served as a comparison group), in terms of personal and general teaching self efficacy. The results suggested that teachers who identified themselves with the ABA orientation had a significantly higher personal teaching self efficacy compared to the TEACH group, as well as the comparison group. No significant difference was found among the three groups in terms of general teaching self efficacy.

**Yian and Yong (2010)** explored the relationship model of teachers' occupational commitment, teaching efficacy and job burnout in primary and middle schools. 454 teachers in primary and middle schools were investigated with the scales of teachers' occupational commitment, teaching efficacy and job burnout. The results of correlation analysis indicated that except continuance commitment, teachers' affective commitment and normative commitment negatively correlated significantly with emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment, and positively correlated significantly with general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. And teachers' general teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy negatively correlated significantly with emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment. The results of SEM indicated that the teachers' occupational commitment and teaching efficacy
could remarkably predict negatively their job burnout. The teachers’ occupational commitment could not only directly predict their job burnout, but also could indirectly predict their job burnout through teaching efficacy. The occupational commitment and teaching efficacy had important influence on job burnout of teachers in primary and middle schools. The teachers' teaching efficacy played a partially positive mediating role in the relationship between occupational commitment and teaching efficacy.

**Alzaidiyeen et al. (2011)** conducted research on *Quality commitment in Malaysia: Mediating role of collective efficacy and moderating role of self efficacy*. The study focused on two objectives 1) to examine the underlying process through which middle managers’ transformational leadership influence teachers’ teaching commitment by focusing on collective efficacy and 2) to explore the moderating role of self efficacy on the relationship between transformational leadership and teachers’ teaching commitment. A sample of 1650 teachers randomly selected from 165 secondary public schools in the Northern Region of West Malaysia was selected. The findings showed that self efficacy can be used as a moderator variable to elevate teachers’ collective efficacy and the presence of school’s transformational leadership practices. However, results also showed that teacher collective efficacy acts as a full mediator in the relationship between the dimension of involvement in decision making with the teachers’ commitment in teaching and learning.

**Canrinus et al. (2012)** investigated how *relevant indicators of teachers’ sense of their professional identity (job satisfaction, occupational commitment, self-efficacy and change in level of motivation) were related*. A model was proposed, tested with structural equation modelling (SEM) and refined using data from 1,214 Dutch teachers working in secondary education. Classroom self-efficacy and relationship satisfaction played a key influencing role in the relationships between the indicators. Using multiple-group SEM, the parameters of the overall model were similar for the novice, experienced and senior teachers in a constrained model.

To sum up, it can be said that a few studies directly studied the relationship between self-efficacy and other variables (Louis, 1998; Solomon, 2008; Egilni, 2010); whereas some studies have examined the mediating effect of teacher efficacy (Ross and Gray, 2006; Chan et al., 2008; Yian and Yong, 2010; Alzaidiyeen et al., 2011). Research has reported that higher self-efficacy leads to more commitment among teachers and therefore it was a predictor of
commitment (Coladarci, 1992; Joffres and Haughey, 2001; Ware and Kitsantas, 2007; Erawan, 2010).

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO MOTIVATION

Aaron (1969) conducted a comparative study of rural and urban schools regarding socio-psychological conditions of the pupils and the teachers. He studied teacher’s motivation by analysis of autobiographical sketches. He found that there was no difference in rural and urban teachers as regards motivation, attitudes towards modernization and values.

Dixit (1971) reviewed employee motivation and behaviour. He observed that employee motivation could be better understood if viewed in the interaction context i.e. the motivation of the individual being determined by his personal needs interacting with the demanding situational forces of the organization, such as informal groups, organizational climate and the immediate supervisor’s style.

Aggarwal (1980) attempted to study the motivational factors in the choice of teaching as a profession and its relationship with some other variables and concluded that in order of priority five factors emerged as most important. Those were: desire to continue education, fondness of possibility of doing good to country, fondness of teaching, security of job and parents wish fulfillment.

Singh (1980) studied teachers’ motivation to work. The sample consisted of 556 teachers selected randomly from certain selected secondary and higher secondary schools of Ajmer and Jaipur division. The investigator identified broad areas of teachers’ work: Classroom teaching; school organization and administration; evaluation and guidance; co-curricular activities; extra activities. A test for teachers’ motivation to work was constructed and standardized.

Sathya Giri Rajan (1985) studied competency, personality, motivation and professional perception of college teachers. It was found that teacher competency was related to intelligence, emotional stability, conscientiousness, tender-mindedness, trusted nature, placid nature, self-sufficiency and relaxedness. It was significantly related to creativity, dynamism, organized demeanour and warmth and acceptance, self-actualization and professional perception of teachers.
Sinha and Prasad (1985) studied motivational pattern of school and college teachers in Bihar and concluded that security and advancement were important motivational factors in school and college teachers respectively. Pay as motivation was not found to be so important incentive except in case of teachers of affiliated colleges.

Sylvia and Hutchinson (1985) in their study what makes Ms. Johnson teach? A study of teacher motivation examined the need configurations underlying the motivations of public school teachers with regard to teacher perceptions of pay equity relative to other factors such as work autonomy, intrinsic work elements and satisfaction of so called higher order needs. 167 teachers from a medium-sized city in Oklahoma were samples for the study. The study concluded that teacher motivation was based on the freedom to try new ideas, achievement of appropriate responsibility levels and intrinsic work elements.

Behari (1986) conducted a comparative study of motivation and ‘being’ among teachers in Delhi schools with reference to age, sex, educational qualifications and related variables. The objectives of the study were to find out whether teachers under the variables of sex, type of institution, area of specialization, level of education, age, years of teaching experience and level of classes taught differed in motivation and being. The study was conducted on 250 teachers from 7 government and 4 non-government schools of Delhi. For each of the above variables the total sample of teachers was divided into sub groups on the basis of the variable under consideration. These sub groups were then compared and the statistical significance of differences was computed. The findings reported: 1) Teachers were more intrinsically motivated and self actualized than the average person of similar educational qualifications. 2) No significant difference was found between men and women teachers as far as intrinsic motivation and being was concerned. 3) The type of school in which teachers worked did not bring about a difference in their intrinsic motivation and self actualization. 4) Neither Humanities nor Science group had any superiority over the other in self actualization and intrinsic motivation. 5) Post graduates scored higher than graduates on self actualization and intrinsic motivation. 6) Older teachers had a stronger tendency towards intrinsic motivation and self actualization. 7) Teachers with teaching experience of 10 years and below were found to be lower in being and intrinsic motivation than those with more than 10 years of teaching experience. 8) Teachers teaching IX class and above were more intrinsically motivated and self actualised than those teaching classes VIII or lower.
Dutta (1987) conducted a study of teacher’s motivation to work and its impact on pupil’s likings and pupil achievement. The study concluded that most of the teachers were found to possess either average or high levels of work motivation. High and low work motivated teachers differed significantly in pupil likings and the former commanded more pupil likings than the latter. Pupil achievement did not appear to bear the impact of high-low levels of work motivation.

Das (1988) studied job satisfaction and job motivation of secondary school teachers in Cuttack district of Orissa in relation to age, qualification, environment and type of school. The sample consisted of 230 secondary school teachers drawn randomly from 35 government and privately managed schools. The findings were that 92% and 24% of the rural urban teachers respectively were positively motivated towards teaching and 62% and 46% of the trained and untrained teachers respectively and 53% each of the male and female teachers were positively motivated towards teaching. Again 77.6% and 25.33% of government and privately managed school teachers respectively were positively motivated.26.4% and 47% of the trained and untrained teachers respectively and 65% and 26% female and male teachers respectively were found satisfied with their profession. Teachers who were motivated were also found highly satisfied in their jobs.

Misra (1989) studied the impact of internal and external reward component on task performance by individuals highly motivated and those with low motivation level. The sample comprised of 96 English medium undergraduate students of Allahabad University with high socio-economic background. The subjects were selected on the basis of scores obtained on a choice motivator scale. The collected data were treated using ANOVA and correlations. The findings were: 1) Differences in intrinsic motivation were significantly related to efficiency in perpetual and cognitive functioning. 2) The highly motivated students showed better ability in processing information than those who were outcome- oriented. 3) Cultural difference had an important role in shaping attitude towards task- intrinsic and task- extrinsic activities. 4) Significant relationship was found between intentional performance and incidental learning.

Mittal (1989) explored the phenomenon of teachers’ motivation to work in various settings and levels and its interdependence with the organizational climate of the concerned schools. The study also aimed at comparing the teachers’ motivation to work among teachers differing in sex, location of schools and management of schools. The teachers working in the private schools were found to be significantly more motivated to work than those working in
government managed schools. It was found that the sex and location of the school had no significant influence on the teachers’ motivation to work. The teachers who perceived less disengagement, less alienation, less psycho-physical hindrance, more spirit and more humanised thrust dimensions of the school- organizational climate were found to be more work-motivated.

Kukreti (1990) in his study of some psychological correlates of successful teachers found that the prominent factors motivating the successful teachers to join the teaching profession were opportunity to enhance knowledge, ideal behaviour, honesty, peaceful life, simplicity, obedience, morality, confidence, punctuality, creativity, low corruption, and social service, advancement of qualification, opportunity of intellectual growth, regularity, reasonable salary, security, interesting job and human relations. Whereas the motivating factors influencing the unsuccessful teachers were discipline, livelihood, prestige, leadership, fame, personal freedom, influencing opportunity, enough leisure, little work, association with students, self expression, good co-workers and easy entrance.

Gorham and Christophel (1992) investigated students’ perceptions of teacher behaviours as motivating and demotivating factors in college classes. In their study they coded and categorised 2404 motivators and demotivators freely listed by 308 college students prior to and following their being prompted to consider teacher behaviours as contributing to motivation level. 20 categories of motivators and 20 categories of demotivators emerged; 4 of each reflected context factors, 6 of each structure factors, and 10 of each behaviour factors. While teacher behaviours accounted for approximately 44% of both motivators and demotivators, negative teacher behaviours were perceived as more central to students’ demotivation than positive teacher behaviours were perceived as central to motivation. Structure factors were more frequently mentioned as demotivators and context factors and personal desire for accomplishment as motivators. It was concluded that motivation is perceived by students as a student-owned state, while lack of motivation is perceived as a teacher-owned problem.

Mittal (1992) carried out an explanatory study of teachers’ motivation to work and some factors associated with high and low work motivation of teachers viz. their job satisfaction, personality factors, school organizational climate and pupil likings. The normative testing method using the survey method and cross-sectional approach was used on a sample comprising 400 teachers selected randomly from 20 senior secondary schools of
Delhi. He found that in general, motivation to work was significantly related to job satisfaction.

Reiger and Rees (1993) conducted a demographic study on teachers and motivation. They studied whether or not motivational levels of teachers were related to gender, age, race and years of experience. A sample of 74 teachers from a medium sized school district in Southern New Jersey was drawn for the study. No significant relationship was found among any of the variables, except years of experience. The only time teachers in the sample exhibited significantly higher levels of motivation was in the 6-10 year period of time. However, after the 6-10 year time period, teachers became significantly less motivated as the years of experience increased.

Lee (1996) studied the relationship between motivation factors and satisfaction among teachers, along external motivation and internal motivation, jointly or singly. It also attempted to establish the relationship between personal characteristics and satisfaction, along gender, race, marital status, qualifications, length of service and age. Proportionate stratified random sampling was adopted to select a sample of 328 respondents from a population of 2208 secondary school teachers in Georgetown, Penang. The findings indicated a positive and significant relationship between satisfaction and motivational factors, but satisfaction generally did not differ between males and females. Gender only affected satisfaction with external motivators. There was no significant difference in satisfaction with internal motivators among the races, but the difference in satisfaction with external motivators was found to be significant among the various ethnic groups. No significant difference in satisfaction was observed among teachers of various marital status and qualifications. The variance in satisfaction was significant and explained by both external and internal motivators, but not length of service and age. External motivators; however appeared to be the best predictor for satisfaction in this study.

Coutts (1997) explored school climate and teacher motivation. He found that teacher effectiveness was most closely related to the climate of the school, and that leaders were relied on less for motivation and more on being adequate managers. Subjects were also motivated by empowering control. Lastly, teachers stressed the importance of student discipline management to their sustained motivation and sense of satisfaction.

Yaakub and Elias (1999) studied job motivation and job performance of recipients for excellent service from one of the institutions of higher learning. The objectives of the
study were to determine job motivation and job performance of the recipients and also to compare job motivation according to gender and work category. The results showed that the overall job motivation was moderate, while job performance was high.

**Davis and Wilson (2000)** carried out a study on *Principals’ efforts to empower teachers: Effects on teacher motivation and job satisfaction and stress*. They examined how and in what matters teachers were empowered. They revealed motivation and job satisfaction were most optimal when teachers worked in a positive school climate. They felt leadership style was not a factor in their levels of motivation. Further, teachers sought empowerment in matters that involved instructional choices, but expressed feelings of de-motivation when asked to serve on school-wide decision-making committees. Lastly, this group of teachers enjoyed their work more when there were strong, collegial relationships in their schools.

**Ryan and Deci (2000)** studied *self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development and well-being*. Guided by self –determination theory their research focussed on social-contextual conditions that facilitate versus forestall the natural processes of self-motivation and healthy psychological development. Factors were examined that enhance and undermine intrinsic motivation, self-regulation and well-being. It was concluded that competence, autonomy and relatedness when satisfied show enhanced self-motivation and mental health and when thwarted, lead to diminished motivation and well-being.

**Carson (2001)** studied *teacher motivation in physical education by examining self determination theory*. Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) has proven salient for examining motivation, and posits that intrinsic, extrinsic, and a motivated behaviour stems from three innate psychological needs of self-determination: the need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy. The purpose of this study was to examine whether physical educators’ perceived competence, relatedness, and autonomy affects their type of motivation, as defined by self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In addition the relationship between certain personal, professional, and environmental factors among physical education teachers and their perceived competence, relatedness, and autonomy was investigated. Two hundred and forty seven physical education teachers were surveyed using questionnaires to assess perceived motivation, competence, relatedness, and autonomy levels as well as personal, professional, and environment factors. Physical education teachers were randomly selected from the state of Ohio, varying in age, level of experience, and grade level taught.
The results indicated that physical educator’s needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy was moderately related to their type of motivation. Furthermore, the relationship between personal factors and physical educators’ needs for competence, relatedness and autonomy was not supported, however support and partial support was found with professional and environmental factors, respectively.

Pelletier et al. (2002) studied determinants of teacher’s motivation and teaching behaviours. They examined the social-contextual conditions that led teachers (N=254) who taught classes from grades 1 to 12 to be more autonomy supportive versus controlling with their students. The authors observed that the more teachers perceived pressure from above (they had to comply with a curriculum with colleagues and with performance students) and pressure from below (they perceived their students to be non self-determined) the less they were self determined toward teaching. In turn, the less they were self-determined the more they became controlling with students.

Riley (2002) examined the presence and importance of Herzberg's motivator-hygiene factors as perceived by public school teachers in the state of Georgia. A 30 item questionnaire developed by James P. Furey (1982) and modified for this study was used to collect data. The modified questionnaire was distributed to 435 teachers in a total of fifteen schools throughout the metropolitan Atlanta area. Teachers receiving the questionnaire were asked to rate the extent to which motivator and hygiene factors were perceived to be present and important in their jobs. A t-ratio of 15.19 (p < .001) indicated a significant difference in the means for presence of motivator and hygiene factors. Teachers in this study perceived motivator factors to be present on their jobs to a greater degree than they perceived hygiene factors. Teachers identified responsibility and the work itself as job satisfiers. Working conditions, salary, status, and having adequate time for personal life were identified by teachers as job dissatisfiers. A t-ratio of -5.41 (p < .001) indicated a significant difference in the means for importance of motivator and hygiene factors. Teachers in this study perceived hygiene factors to be important to a greater degree than motivator factors. Therefore, teachers perceived factors surrounding their jobs to be more important than factors within the content of the job.

Shaari et al. (2002) studied job motivation and performance of secondary school teachers. The correlational study involved 245 secondary school teachers throughout Kedah. When comparing overall job motivation with job performance, the results showed that there
were no significant differences between the groups of respondents but when comparing achievement motivation with job performance, the results showed that the group of teachers had high achievement motivation.

**Barnett and Mc Cormick (2003)** conducted a study on *vision, relationships and teacher motivation*. The purpose of the study was to investigate transformational leadership behaviour and vision in schools. A qualitative approach using semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. The study concluded that leadership in schools was mainly characterized by relationships with individuals and it was through these relationships a leader was able to establish his/her leadership and encourage teachers to apply their expertise, abilities and efforts towards shared purposes.

**Parker (2003)** studied *motivation and incentives for distance faculty*. The study was designed as an exploration into the incentives that faculty perceive as motivating. The analysis of over one hundred articles led to the conclusion that faculty generally teach in distance education programme for the same reasons they teach traditional courses: for intrinsic rewards. The study identified self-satisfaction, flexible scheduling and wider audience workload, release time and new technology as the extrinsic motivators. A profile of the distance educator was developed to assist administration assigned the task of motivating faculty towards distance delivery.

**Shelnutt (2003)** examined the *differences between the components of teacher motivation in high and low achieving elementary schools*. It measured the motivational components influenced by the principal as identified by Teacher Motivation Diagnostic Questionnaire (TMDQ). It recognized that teachers at low achieving elementary schools have different motivational needs than those at high achieving elementary schools. Principals have the task of focusing not just on the demands of today’s standards but also on the motivational needs of teachers.

**Ofoegbu (2004)** addressed the issue of *teacher motivation as an essential factor for classroom effectiveness and school improvement*. Teacher motivation has to do with teachers’ desire to participate in the education process. 772(10%) public primary and secondary school teachers from the South Eastern part of Nigeria participated in the study. Data was collected using a survey instrument designed by the researcher. Analysis of data revealed that the participating teachers almost unanimously agreed that teacher motivation is a vital factor for classroom effectiveness and school improvement.
Balasubrahmanyam (2005) studied professional excellence among eminent musicians and dancers: A motivational analysis. He stated that self motivation is one of the core competency ability which every individual should possess if they aim for excellence in their profession. Self-satisfaction, public recognition and monetary benefits were identified as prime motivators. Financial constraints, lack of recognition, lack of influential support, lack of emotional support, physical exhaustion were prime demotivators. Continuous practice, setting high standards, networking, self motivation, creativity, good physical and mental health were identified as sustaining factors of motivation for maintaining standards of excellence.

Jesus and Lens (2005) conducted research on an integrated model for the study of teacher motivation. They proposed and tested a model of teacher motivation that integrated constructs from several cognitive-motivational teachers. The participants were 272 elementary and secondary teachers in Portugal. They responded to a series of inventories designed to measure their expectancies of control, success and efficacy, attributions, intrinsic motivation and perceived goal value levels, and how these interact to influence professional engagement (the model’s exogenous variable) Analyses of path coefficients and the variance of endogenous variables supported the proposed integrated model and suggested strategies for teacher education that might increase teacher motivation.

Patel and Rao (2005) examined the determinants of teachers’ motivation and performance towards school improvement. The study led to identification of twenty seven factors/sub factors within teachers and school which influenced teachers’ motivation and performance in relation to the performance of the schools. The findings revealed that the major contributors to teacher motivation and their performance were: individual ability of teacher (100%), understanding of role and responsibility by teachers (93%), concern of the head of school for administrative efficiency (93%), concern of the head of the school for academic efficiency (90%) and supportive classroom environment (90%). Among these factors individual ability of teachers, concern of head of school for administrative efficiency, internal school environment and supportive classroom environment were found to be significantly correlated with teacher motivation and their performance. Similarly, opportunity for reward and recognition were found to have higher positive correlation with teacher motivation whereas the current compensation package for teachers was negatively correlated with the motivation of the teachers.
Pimpa (2005) studied terrorism and work motivation of teachers in Southern Thailand. He investigated factors pertaining from five schools in Southernmost Thailand and their relationship with teaching motivation. The results indicated that school’s policy and leadership positively contributes to teacher’s work motivation.

Ramachandran et al. (2005) conducted a study on teacher motivation in India. They based their study on review of government data, policy documents and published material on India and interviews with stakeholders in the state of Rajasthan and rapid survey in ten schools of Tonk district of Rajasthan. The report described the national trends and explored them in context of Rajasthan. Teachers linked motivation to the larger environment in which they worked. They felt demeaned for doing odd duties and non-receipt of salaries on time. They complained about lack of physical infrastructure, poor in-service training and role of the head. The administrators linked motivation to low absenteeism, maintaining discipline, proper record keeping, collection and supply of educational data, utilization of funds allocated for teaching and learning material and giving exercises in the classroom and correcting them. In the end everybody was of the opinion that 25% to 30% teachers are highly motivated and work very hard regardless of their personal circumstances. Another 30% comply with all the formal requirements-regularity, attendance, data on enrolment and retention, mid-day meal distribution and so on. These teachers have the potential but the system has worn them out. The remaining 40-45% can be categorized as ‘indifferent’-they are just not motivated and really do not care. No correlation was found between motivation levels and teacher qualification, training, residence, gender and pay scale. However, a school with good infrastructure and connectivity could hold back more teachers for more hours. It is difficult to say whether this translates into more instruction time or higher learning levels.

Shaheen (2005) studied the relationship between selected motivational techniques and levels of job satisfaction of secondary school teachers. The dependent variables were teacher’s participation in decision making, recognition and task structure. Data were collected from 88 teachers working in 22 secondary schools. Respondents were compared age, gender, qualifications and experience wise. It was found that there was a positive relationship between first two selected motivational techniques and level of job satisfaction and there was negative relationship between their technique, task structure and job satisfaction.

Monyatsi (2006) studied motivating the motivators with developmental teacher appraisal. He conducted a combined quantitative and qualitative study on 607 secondary
school teachers in seventeen schools in the South Region of Botswana evaluating the effectiveness of the current appraisal process as carried out in secondary schools. It looked out at how the process of teacher appraisal could motivate teachers to improve their performance of facilitating effective teaching and students’ learning. The study revealed that if carried out properly, the appraisal process could motivate the teachers to do more.

**Upadhaya (2006)** conducted a study on *emotional intelligence among student teachers in relation to academic anxiety, personality traits and teaching motivation*. It was found that male and female, Arts and Science student teachers did not differ from one another on academic anxiety, emotional intelligence, teaching motivation and personality factors; emotional intelligence among male, Arts and OBC student teachers was negatively related to teaching motivation. Emotional intelligence among female, Science, general and SC student teachers was positively related to teaching motivation.

**Bennell and Akyeampong (2007)** studied *teacher motivation in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia*. The objectives were: 1) Is there a motivation crisis? 2) What should be done to motivate teachers? 3) If so, what are the reasons for poor motivation? 4) How do poor motivation and incentives affect teacher performance. This international research project was based on 12 country case studies. The findings were: sizeable proportions of primary school teachers, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa had low levels of job satisfaction and motivation; motivation in private schools was higher than in government schools; the key determinants of teacher motivation in developing countries were teacher and school accountability, security and conflict, policy environment, teacher competence, vocational commitment, occupational status, pay, working and living conditions, teacher and system management; all the case studies concluded that poor teacher motivation and inadequate incentives had far reaching adverse impacts on the behaviour and overall performance of primary school teachers and thus learning outcomes. The remedies suggested were more incentives in rural schools, better pay, attractive career structures with regular promotions, teacher accountability to school, parents and community.

**Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (2007)** carried out a study titled *the teaching workforce: Meeting aspirations and enhancing motivation* and investigated what matters to teachers and how best to motivate them. Research on work motivation was used to shed light on how both “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” motivation could promote work outcomes such as performance, satisfaction and well being. The analysis stressed that motivation
underpinned the success of both; teachers’ work and the introduction of any renewal in schools. The central message was that teachers’ actions needed to be self-motivated, resulting from their acceptance of and identification with the values and objectives of practices and regulations in schools.

**Duggan (2007)** proposed a model of *teacher motivation for learning how to teach that included* Attribution Theory, Social-Cognitive Theory's construct of self-efficacy, Achievement Goal Theory, research on teacher stress, Future Time Perspective Theory, and the construct of professional engagement. Surveys were administered to 363 first-year teachers in the greater Phoenix metropolitan area at three points in the school year. Linear decreases over time were observed in mastery orientation and engagement in the teaching profession. Non-linear relationships over time were seen with success-controllable attributions, efficacy, and connectedness, with scores decreasing at Time 2 and then increasing at Time 3. Stress was at its lowest at Time 1 and increased throughout the year. Grade level taught, gender, parenting status, school profile ranking, age, and year goal for teaching were all shown to influence different aspects of motivation to learn how to teach. The outcome variable of engagement in the teaching profession was shown to correlate with success-controllable attributions, mastery orientation, efficacy, stress, and connectedness to the future. Mediational relationships were found that support a model of teacher motivation. Finally, school membership was shown to influence mastery orientation and connectedness in first-year teachers.

**Addison and Brundrett (2008)** carried out a study on *motivation and demotivation of teachers in primary schools: The challenge of change*. They reported on research in six primary schools in England which attempted to determine the nature of the issues impacting upon motivation and demotivation at the start of the twenty first century. The findings suggested that the principal motivators for teachers in primary schools were extrinsic motivators, such as positive responses from children and that, conversely demotivators were poor responses from children and workload factors.

**Brown and Hughes (2008)** studied *teacher and administrator perceptions of teacher motivation*. They compared perceptions of teacher intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, dependent variables, among the independent variables of job type (teachers and administrators), years of experience (novice, experienced and veteran), and gender. The participants included 793 elementary and secondary teachers and 90 administrators. Results
indicated statistically significant differences on both intrinsic and extrinsic scales for teachers and administrators. Teachers rated intrinsic items higher than administrators and administrators rated extrinsic items higher than teachers rated for themselves. Further analysis revealed that females rated themselves higher on the intrinsic scale than males.

Kiziltepe (2008) examined sources of motivation and demotivation among teachers at a public university in Istanbul. Three hundred teachers (M=112, F=188) aged between 33 and 65 were asked two open-ended questions regarding their motivational and demotivational tendencies towards their profession. Motivating aspects/factors of teaching were compressed and categorized under four main units: students, career, social status and ideals. Demotivating aspects / factors were compressed and categorized under five different headings: students, economics, structural and physical characteristics, research, and working conditions. Results showed that students were the main source of motivation and demotivation for university teachers. Besides students, while career was a secondary motivational factor, economics and research were secondary demotivating factors.

Klassen et al. (2008) used a mixed methods approach to explore secondary teachers’ motivation beliefs in Canada and Singapore. Results from Study 1 revealed that socio-economic status (SES) was the strongest predictor of school climate in Canada, and that collective efficacy mediated the effect of SES on school climate in Singapore, but not in Canada. In Study 2, interviews were conducted with 10 teachers in Canada and 14 teachers in Singapore. Teachers in both settings discussed students’ social and behaviour problems, but the range of the social problems was greater in Canada than in Singapore, and had a stronger impact on teachers’ motivation beliefs.

Naseer Ud Din and Inamullah (2008) investigated the motivation techniques used by heads of higher educational institutions in Pakistan and also examined the views of teachers about effective and ineffective motivational techniques used by their heads. Random sampling technique was used to constitute a sample of 200 heads of degree colleges and 1000 teachers of degree colleges. It was found that although some principals held a strongly positive view, in general they were less positive when compared to their teachers. It was recommended that a special training course may be arranged for educational managers, administrators and supervisors for achieving competency in motivation techniques.
Saricoban and Mengii (2008) explored the issue of teacher motivation as an essential factor for classroom effectiveness and improvement. Teacher motivation has to do with teachers’ desire to participate in the education process. 133 foreign language teachers at Hacettepe University participated in the study. Analysis of data revealed that the participating teachers differ in four issues: (a) teaching profession (b) research, (c) physical conditions and (d) social facilities.

Javaid (2009) investigated the problem of teacher motivation in Pakistan where most teachers consider themselves to be ‘undervalued by society’ and teaching as the least sought after profession. The paper looked into various motivational theories, possible reasons for low motivation and suggested some solutions. The investigator found that extrinsic motivation was given more importance than intrinsic motivation. The teachers perceived motivation as coming to duty/school on time, making electoral lists or performing other official duties regardless of whether they translated into higher learning outcomes of children. Reasons for low motivation included working and living conditions, management support, weak accountability mechanisms, low pay and absenteeism. The remedies suggested were increasing salaries, awarding performance, improving school environment, providing housing facilities and accountability by empowerment of school management committees.

Kaur (2009) studied professionalism among government and private secondary school teachers in relation to motivation, occupational stress and job satisfaction. The results indicated that private school teachers exhibited better professionalism as compared to government school teachers; private school teachers exhibited better motivation than government school teachers and positive relationship was found between professionalism and motivation.

Kocabas (2009) aimed to determine the effects of motivational sources on teachers' motivation levels. The population sample for this study consisted of teachers working in the Elazig city center in 2006-2007 academic year. A sample of 225 teachers was randomly selected from this population. The findings showed that teachers were mostly motivated by the following factors: a sense of safety in school, pupil achievement, the levels of attraction to the teaching profession, levels of self-reliance, their perception of their status in society, the importance of positive inspection reports, the sense of self-fulfillment, a positive atmosphere in school, positive relationships amongst teachers, their perception of their competencies in their fields, their levels of self-respect, the school's position in the league
Nor et al. (2009) examined the changes in teachers' commitment, motivation and burnout levels of secondary school teachers. The findings reported significant changes in the current teachers' commitment and motivation compared to their commitment and motivation in the past. The teachers attributed the negative changes mainly due to the increase in work load and the positive changes to their personal development. Negative changes in teachers' motivation and commitment and an increase in teachers' burnout levels were also found.

Singh (2009) carried out a study on motivation, job involvement, occupational stress and coping strategies as correlates of teacher effectiveness. The findings were that highly motivated teachers were more effective than low motivated teachers; length of service was not found to be a predictor of teacher effectiveness; women teachers could motivate, advice and guide the child in a better way than male teachers; specialization also indicated teacher effectiveness in specific areas.

Bruinsma and Jansen (2010) investigated 198 pre-service teachers’ intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for becoming teachers and focussed on the distinction between adaptive and maladaptive motives. They examined the relationships with teachers’ self efficacy, the quality of teacher training programmes, classroom teaching experiences and the time these teachers expect to spend in the profession. The results indicated that female pre-service teachers with higher prior ability showed more intrinsic adaptive motives. Intrinsic adaptive motives were positively related to the quality of training programmes and classroom teaching experiences. Pre-service teachers with positive teaching experiences indicated greater teacher self-efficacy. Pre-service teachers with extrinsic maladaptive motives indicated negative teaching experiences and they intended to remain in the profession for a short time. Teachers’ self-efficacy was positively related to the amount of time pre-service teachers intended to remain in the profession.
Darolia et al. (2010) explored the extent to which the perceived organizational support, work motivation and organizational commitment predict the individual differences in job performance of workers. Among all the three predictor variables, perceived organizational support showed highest correlation with job performance followed by work motivation measure i.e. monetary gains and affective commitment. Continuance commitment, need for goal achievement and competition and non-financial rewards showed modest level association with performance. Two components of work motivation i.e. need for monetary gains and goal achievement and competition contributed significantly to the prediction of job performance. The study revealed that among the three components of organizational commitment, affective and continuance commitment were the best predictors of job performance.

Gao (2010) conducted a study on English teachers’ motivation and their commitment to the teaching career. He found that initially, many of them were unwilling to become teachers but were attracted by the teacher education programmes to learn more English. Many of them became more committed to teaching after they had positive professional experiences. However, their sense of satisfaction and achievement were reported to be undermined by the challenges that they had to cope with as well as awareness that they were unable to sustain their professional competence.

George and Sabhapathy (2010) carried out a study on work motivation of teachers: relationship with transformational and transactional leadership behaviour of college principals. A sample of 450 teachers, 150 from each of the 3 categories of colleges was selected by stratified random sampling technique. The study showed that there was a significant and positive correlation between work motivation of degree college teachers and transformational and transactional leadership behaviour of principals.

Klassen et al. (2010) investigated pre-service teacher motivation across cultures using the Teachers’ Ten Statements Test Motivations for choosing teaching as career. 200 pre-service teachers from Canada and Oman were taken up for the study. Results showed that Canadian participants made more self-references and expressed higher levels of individual focused motivation and social utility values as career motivators then did Omani participants who expressed greater endorsement of teaching as a fallback career and higher levels of socio-cultural influences than Canadian participants.
Rasheed et al. (2010) explored various issues of motivation for the teacher in higher education institutions. Primary data was collected through questionnaire and in depth face to face interviews. Findings showed that although compensation and benefits were important factors in competitive, market environment but some intangible motivators like job design, work environment, feedback, recognition and empowerment or decision making participation were also the potential factors for motivating teachers in higher education.

Sridevi and Javan (2010) conducted a study on teacher motivation among B.Ed.teacher educators of University of Mysore. A sample of 100 B.Ed. teacher educators from 16 colleges under the ambit of University of Mysore was taken. 92% of teacher educators were found to be highly motivated and 8% were moderate in motivation. There was no significant difference in teacher motivation of teacher educators with respect to the locale, gender, age and marital status.

Wagner and French (2010) studied motivation, work satisfaction and teacher change among the teachers. The results indicated that three facets of work satisfaction: supervisor support, the nature of the work itself, and co-worker relations were the significant predictors of intrinsic interest in professional development. The qualitative analysis also revealed the ways in which interactions between motivation, professional development activities, and work environment support or undermine change.

Alam and Farid (2011) conducted a study on factors affecting motivational level of teachers at secondary school level in Rawalpindi city in Pakistan. The major objectives of the study were to identify the factors of low and high motivation of teachers; to determine the socio-economic status affecting the motivation level of teachers and to investigate the effect of students’ behaviour, class room environment and examination stress on teacher’s motivational level. A sample of 80 teachers was selected for the study. The factors affecting motivation of teachers investigated were income status, importance in the society, self-confidence and incentives/rewards. It was found that teachers were not satisfied with their socio-economic status, choice of profession, student’s behaviour and examination stress. A number of teachers felt that they were not paid according to their abilities.

Hayden (2011) studied teacher motivation and student achievement in middle school students. The purpose of this phenomenological study was to identify how mathematics teachers perceived the effects of teacher motivation on student achievement, influence of job satisfaction on teachers. The findings reported that teacher motivation affected student
achievement. The findings also suggested that some teachers were dissatisfied that student achievements were linked to salary increases.

**Marusic et al. (2011)** empirically tested the *model of influences on the choice of teaching as a career based on expectancy-value theory of motivation*. The results of the study revealed that the principal motives for career choice of the student teachers were the opportunity to work with children, social contribution and perceived teaching ability, while personal values such as job security and time for family were perceived to be less important.

**Recepoglu et al. (2011)** examined the *motivation level of teachers according to school principals' humour styles*. The results indicated that 141 of the teachers claimed school principal had producer style of humour, 76 of them said that the principal had appreciator style of humour and 18 of them reported that school principal had reproducer style of humour. On the other hand, 70 teachers revealed that school principal had a non-humorous style. In addition to this, it was concluded that the motivation level of the teachers who work with non-humorous principals were lower than those working with principals who had producer, appreciator or reproducer humour styles.

**Roness (2011)** presented results from the third study in a longitudinal research project which examined *newly qualified teachers’ (NQTs) motivation for teaching and how they retrospectively valued teacher education*. The findings showed that teachers still enjoyed the profession one and half year after graduation. They were motivated both by working with their subject matter and by teaching. Although these teachers seemed satisfied in their profession, the study revealed around 40 percent rate of attrition and a prevalent ambivalence about their professional future.

**Akuoko et al. (2012)** examined the *relationship between teacher motivation and delivery of quality education in public basic schools in Tamale metropolis*. Stratified random sampling method was used to select 20 public basic schools from the urban and peri-urban areas and 216 respondents were selected from the schools through simple random sampling method. Self administered questionnaires and simple observation were the methods used for data collection. The results showed a significant relationship between teacher motivation and quality education delivery but there was no significant difference in terms of motivation between urban and peri-urban teachers in the metropolis. It was also found that majority of the teachers joined the service because of the interest they had in teaching. But the level of motivation reported was low.
Bakshi (2012) conducted a study on job satisfaction and motivation among private school teachers. The unstable and adverse working conditions of teachers in private schools prompted this study which aimed at identifying the job satisfaction levels and sources of motivation of the teachers. 224 teachers were sampled for the survey. The results of the study indicated that student responsiveness and enthusiasm was a primary and central factor in the teachers’ own enthusiasm and motivation. The findings shed light on the factors/issues that affect the teachers’ motivation and that need to be taken into account by educational policy makers and school advisors, if high quality school education was to be achieved.

Balyer (2012) conducted a study on transformational leadership behaviours of school principals: A qualitative research based on teachers’ perceptions. The study employed ethnographic research design in collecting data. The participants of the study were 30 teachers from 6 different schools determined with equal gender variable in the 2011/2012 academic year in Istanbul, Turkey. Purposive sampling method was used. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. The study proposed to discover the level of transformational leadership behaviours that school principals demonstrate during their administrative practices on daily basis. The results revealed that school principals demonstrate high level of characteristics of transformational leadership in terms of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation behaviours. It was found that principals demonstrate idealized influence behaviours highly by being considerate in dealing with their followers and their professional needs. Regarding inspirational motivation it was concluded that principals always set high academic standards and motivate people towards them. They can be seen around very often and make teamwork possible at school. However, they sometimes lose their enthusiasm and concentration after some official barriers. Individualised consideration was seen when principals are aware of their teachers’ needs and give them personal attention. Finally, intellectual stimulation represents the leaders’ efforts to stimulate followers to be innovative and creative in approaching problems.

Claeys (2012) in her study entitled teacher motivation to teach and to remain teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students identified teachers’ initial motivation to select teaching as a profession and explored the factors that contribute to their desire to remain teaching. Specifically identified were factors that influence the intent to continue teaching culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students in high-need schools. A total of 175 compatible novice teachers with 5 or less than 5 years of teaching experience responded
to the Motivation Orientation Teacher Survey (MOTS); out of these 10 teachers were interviewed. The research study explored the constructs of 1) personal motivation, 2) administrative support, and 3) induction support to capture novice teachers’ realities regarding the impact of their socio-cultural context on their decisions to remain teaching. The study revealed three factors that influenced novice teachers’ motivation to teach CLD students: intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic. In general, novice teachers attributed their motivation to enter and to remain teaching CLD students to: 1) to their commitment to help CLD students realise and achieve their own potential, 2) to give back to the community, and 3) to promote the love for content. The findings also indicated that novice teachers place value and perceive administrative and induction support as important. Novice teachers’ perceptions regarding the importance of informal and formal mentoring/collegiality and campus level principals were regarded as important and very positive within the schools’ socio-cultural context.

Hein et al. (2012) aimed to investigate how teachers’ motivation to teach is related to different teaching styles. 176 physical education teachers from 5 European countries participated in the study. The results showed that teachers were more intrinsically motivated to teach than externally. Cross-cultural comparison indicated that the Spanish teachers were more intrinsically motivated while Lithuanian teachers were more externally motivated than teachers from the other four countries. Teachers from all five countries reported a more frequent use of reproductive styles than productive styles. The results of the study showed that autonomous motivation is related to the student-centered or productive teaching styles while non-autonomously motivated teachers adopt more teacher-centered or reproductive teaching styles. Intrinsic and introjected motivation was significantly higher among teachers who more frequently employed productive teaching styles than teachers who used them less frequently.

Naseer Ud Din et al. (2012) examined the factors affecting motivational level of teachers at secondary school level in Kohat city. A sample of 4 male and 4 female secondary level schools were taken for the purpose of research and 40 teachers were selected for the study. It was concluded that rewards and incentives, self-confidence, economic status of teachers and financial incentives more affect the performance of teachers, while socio-status of the teacher, examination stress and teaching as first choice of the teacher less affects the performance of the teachers.
Raju (2012) studied the relationship between change proneness and teacher motivation among junior college teachers in Vizianagaram District, Andhra Pradesh. The data were collected from 145 junior college teachers working in 18 junior colleges in the Vizianagaram District. The variables adopted for the study were sex (male and female), locality (rural and urban), qualifications (post graduates and post graduates with M.Phil. /Ph.D.), medium of instruction (English and Telegu medium), age (below 40 years and above 40 years), experience (below 20 years and above 20 years), teaching subjects (Sciences and Humanities), marital status (married and unmarried), and type of management (government-aided and private un-aided schools). Significant differences were found between sex, locality, qualifications, medium, age, experience, teaching subjects and marital status in teacher change proneness. Significant differences were found in medium and marital status in teacher motivation. Telegu medium teachers were highly motivated than English medium teachers. Married teachers were highly motivated than unmarried teachers. Significant relationship was found between change proneness and teacher motivation. When change proneness is more in a teacher, motivation is also high. So both the variables are proportional in their enhancement.

Saeed and Muneer (2012) in their study evaluated the work motivation of male and female secondary school teachers in Karachi. Stratified random sampling design was adopted. The female teachers were found to be more motivated to their work than male teachers. It was recommended that the principals should adopt a dynamic leadership style and encourage participation of teachers in decision making.

Shelly (2012) conducted a study on gender differences in motivational beliefs of professional students. The professional students taken were those of management, computer application, engineering and medical courses. A representative sample of 819 professional students (495 males and 324 females) was raised randomly. The results revealed that the professional students (medical and engineering course) showed significantly higher mean intrinsic motivation than those in computer application and management courses. However, these professional students did not differ significantly amongst each other in their intrinsic motivation. The intrinsic motivation score of professional students in computer application and management was insignificant. The professional students pursuing their studies in management course reported significantly higher mean extrinsic motivation score than those pursuing their studies in computer application and medical courses. The female students in management, computer applications, engineering and medical courses showed significantly
higher mean than their male counterparts in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. However, the female and male professional students of management, computer application, engineering and medical courses did not differ significantly amongst each other in their control of learning beliefs and self efficacy beliefs.

Anderson and Iwanicki (2013) examined the relationship between motivational factors and teacher perceived burnout when controlling for the background variables of age, sex, level of teaching and years of teaching experience. Motivational factors consisted of teacher perceived security, social esteem, autonomy and self-actualization need deficiencies. Teacher perceived burnout was examined in terms of the frequency and intensity of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. The study concluded that the higher level self-actualization and esteem need deficiencies explained a significant amount of the variance in burnout among teachers.

Glass (2013) examined teacher motivation in the context of performance-based compensation systems. The researcher specifically sought to address four research questions: 1) To what extent are teachers motivated for behavioristic/economic reasons and extrinsic rewards? 2) To what extent are teachers motivated for altruistic/PSM reasons and intrinsic rewards? 3) To what extent are teachers simultaneously motivated by both behavioristic/economic and altruistic/PSM means? 4) To what extent are behavioristic/economic or altruistic/PSM motivators more dominant in what drives teachers? The data used in this study was gathered from teachers working in the Eagle County School District in Colorado in the Spring of 2011. 278 teachers participated in the survey. The results suggested that teachers were motivated by behavioristic/economic motivators. However, while it appeared teachers desire to earn more money, this did not seem to translate into a clear behavioural change in terms of work habits. The evidence did suggest an increased level of attention to measures that were tied to compensation. Second, teachers were also motivated for altruistic/public service motivation reasons. Third, the evidence presented here suggested that teachers could be simultaneously motivated by both the behavioristic/economic and the altruistic/public service motivation paradigms. Finally, the altruistic/public service motivation paradigm seemed to be the stronger of the two in what drives teachers.

Gupta and Gehlawat (2013) carried out a comparative study on job satisfaction and work motivation of secondary school teachers in relation to some demographic variables. Job
satisfaction and work motivation were dependent variables and gender, type of schools, teaching experience and educational qualifications were independent variables. The sample comprised of 400 secondary school teachers working in schools located in Rohtak division affiliated to HBSE. Multi-stage random sampling technique was used. The findings showed: 1) No significant difference was found in job satisfaction and work motivation of male and female teachers. 2) There were significant differences among teachers working in government and private schools: more experienced and less experienced teachers with respect to job satisfaction and work motivation. 3) Significant difference was reported in work motivation of teachers having graduate and post graduate qualifications.

Hettiarachchi (2013) drawing on in-depth qualitative data from fifty-four surveys and five interviews, the study investigated aspects of motivation and demotivation among Sri Lankan English language teachers. The participants included a convenience sample of English teachers currently employed in public schools. The results of the study revealed that students themselves, the act of teaching students, and the prestigious social position for English teachers in Sri Lanka are main motivators for teachers. The main demotivators for the participants included limited facilities for teaching and learning in schools, inefficiency of school administration and zonal education offices, difficulties in obtaining teacher transfers, the discrepancy between the English curriculum and students’ English proficiency, and the poor relationship between colleagues. Overall, results of the study indicated that teacher demotivation was a significant issue in Sri Lankan public schools which needed the immediate attention of the country’s education policy designers and management.

Yuan et al. (2013) conducted a study on incentive pay programs donot affect teacher motivation or reported practices: Results from three randomized studies. They drew on teacher survey responses from randomized experiments exploring three different pay-for-performance programs to examine the extent to which these programs motivated teachers to improve student achievement and the impact of such programs on teachers’ instructions, number of hours worked, job stress and collegiality. The results showed that most teachers did not find their program as motivating. Moreover, the responses suggested that none of the three programs changed teachers’ instruction, increased their number of hours worked or job stress or damaged their collegiality.

Yusof et al. (2013) conducted a study titled power motivation, burnout of teacher and its relationship with student satisfaction: An empirical study at public sector University. The
results showed that power motivation was negatively related to burnout, empowerment had a positive relationship with student satisfaction and burnout had a negative relationship with student satisfaction.

The studies cited above reveal that motivation is an important psychological variable which has been correlated with students’ academic performance (Dutta, 1987; Ofoegbu, 2004), student satisfaction (Yusof et al., 2013), teacher effectiveness and education quality (Akuoko et al., 2012). It has been studied with organizational climate (Dixit, 1971; Coutts, 1997); job satisfaction (Das, 1998; Lee, 1996; Shaheen, 2005; Dehaloo, 2011; Bakshi, 2012); professional development (Schieb and Karabenick, 2011); emotional intelligence (Upadhaya, 2006) and occupational stress (Singh, 2009). Numerous studies have identified motivating and demotivating factors (Kukreti, 1990; Mittal, 1992; Kocabas, 2009; Balyer, 2012; Andersen and Iwanicki, 2013) and intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Bruinsma and Jarsen, 2010; Hildebrarth and Eom, 2011). It was found that extrinsic motivation is no doubt essential but it is intrinsic motivation which matters the most (Brown and Hughes, 2008; Wagner and French, 2010; Hein et al., 2012; Aacha, 2013).

2.5 STUDIES RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT AND MOTIVATION

Etzioni (1968) made use of theories of ‘motivation’ and values in explaining commitment. He found that commitment was independent of direct, ‘selfish’ interests, and of immediate and temporary situational concerns. His study showed that in business organizations the primary mechanism is probably motivation since the organization is economic and incentive oriented. In non-business organizations such as the church, or military, commitment may be very important in affective organizational behaviours, since members’ involvement is often value based.

Patchen (1970) in his study on participation, achievement and involvement on the job stated that the persons highly involved in their job are highly motivated and feel a sense of pride in their work. Highly motivated employees get involved in their job through their efficient performance as a result.

O’ Reilly and Caldwell (1980) studied the relationship between job choices, job satisfaction and commitment. He made distinction between choices based on intrinsic factors and choices based on extrinsic factors. The former included factors like interest in job, opportunity for advancement, responsibility the job provided, own feelings about the job,
whereas the latter included factors like external pressure, advice of others, location of the job and salary. This study was conducted on 100 M.B.A. graduates who were surveyed immediately after accepting job and again six months later. Their study revealed that tenure intentions were directly related to salary and that intrinsic concerns appeared to lead to increased organizational commitment. They concluded that both intrinsic and extrinsic decision factors were positively related to job satisfaction and commitment.

Duval and Carlson (1991) studied teacher effectiveness, teacher motivation and teacher persistence with the central purpose to study the commitment and how these characteristics were manifested in the professional lives of teachers from different periods in time. The results advanced the theory that outstanding teachers evidence commitment and dedication as pre-eminent characteristic of their work ethics or profession. Professional commitment and dedication are not gender specific. Measures of the existence of commitment and dedication included expenses of personal time and personal income. Commitment and dedication are present in mature teachers, suggesting the development quality of this attitude.

Levithan (1993) developed a conceptual framework for the study of professional commitment to social work emphasizing three dimensions of commitment: attitudinal, intentional and behavioural commitment to the profession. An interactive reward-value model of professional commitment, using the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards from work and the values placed on them was developed and tested. The professional commitment of the respondents showed a decline in their levels of attitude-intention and behavioural professional commitment from graduation to five years later. Significant relationships were revealed between the intrinsic reward-values and professional commitment at two years after graduation and between the intrinsic and extrinsic salary/promotion reward-values and professional commitment at five years after graduation were also found to be related to professional commitment three years later.

Raju and Srivastava (1994) studied factors contributing to commitment to the teaching profession in terms of effect, goals and values of the profession. 454 senior secondary school teachers of Delhi were sampled for the study. The constituent variables that discriminated more and less committed teachers were perceived status, expectations of significant reasons, interest in profession, intrinsic motivation, social support, positive group attitudes, perceived advancement and desire to improve skills for professional purpose.
Menzies (1995) investigated teacher commitment in the business, health and technology faculties within three Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology (CAATs) regarding sources, objects, behaviours of and influences on teacher commitment and enquired into the objects and influences on commitment. Results indicated both moral and pragmatic reasons as a source of teacher commitment. A ranking of commitments based on the questionnaire result was: commitment to teaching, student learning, students, professional commitment, extra work commitment and organizational commitment. Active commitment practices were mostly related to commitment to teaching and to students. Teachers were positive about internal commitment and capability beliefs, collegial relations and having a professional, dynamic teaching role and learning climate. Negative influences on commitment were reported as aspects of collegial relations, non-alignment of persons and organizational goals and values, and government financial cutbacks. Immediate leadership, the administration and the behaviour and motivation by many others. Age, length of tenure and gender indicated significant differences for some of the objects and influences on commitment. As employment tenure shortens and the notion of a career changes from a progression up the career ladder within one organization to one involving several moves between organizations over one’s working life, the question of commitment felt by employees becomes more and more important.

Bishay (1996) carried out research on teacher motivation and job satisfaction: A study employing the experience sampling method. He measured levels of job satisfaction and motivation by survey in a sample of 50 teachers. A sample of 12 teachers was then studied using the Experience Sampling Method (ESM). Teachers were randomly beeped by special pagers five times a day for five days and completed surveys on mood and activity for each beep, resulting in 190 reports of teachers’ daily experiences. Conventional survey data corresponded with ESM data. The results showed that job satisfaction and motivation correlated significantly with responsibility levels, gender, subject, age, years of teaching experience and activity.

Lethoko (2003) studied teacher professionalism and motivation in a culture of teaching and learning. In his study of teachers from Gauteng and the Northern Province he listed the following problems which demotivate them to perform their duties as expected: (1) Unsatisfactory salaries; (2) Poor facilities and resources in schools; (3) Ill-disciplined learners; (4) Poor parental collaboration; (5) Crime and violence in schools; (6) Abolishment of corporal punishment and others; (7) Insufficient teacher training; (8) Fear of the
rationalisation and redeployment process; (9) Lack of occupational prestige in teaching; (10) Lack of acknowledgement of teachers' hard work by parents, principals, the department of education and the entire community. On the other hand, teachers also had some shortcomings in their motivation to teach and professional ethos. In this study, the teachers were found lacking in professional characteristics which included the teachers' punctuality to school and to class, regular class attendance, lesson preparation, self-discipline, ability to discipline learners, collaboration with parents and many others.

Adelabu (2005) conducted a study on teacher motivation and incentives in Nigeria. Evidence from research literature, relevant documents and the views of key stakeholders suggested that there was a teacher motivation crisis among primary school teachers in Nigeria. The teachers had poor morale and low levels of work commitment. School buildings were dilapidated, schools were over crowded and reward systems were unsatisfactory. Nevertheless, the study discovered a consistent trend to improve the job morale of Nigerian teachers especially in advent of democratic government in 1999. Development outside the school system such as the increasing trend of globalization, the tendency towards the information driven economy, the increased tempo of private sector participation in education, and the improved federal funding of education have all contributed to an appreciable improvement in teachers’ morale and commitment to work.

Kwok-Wai (2006) conducted a study on in-service teachers’ motives and commitment in teaching. 106 in-service teacher education students of a university in Hong Kong were sampled for the study. Three motive factors were identified accounting for their choice of teaching as a career: intrinsic/altruistic, extrinsic/job condition and influence from others, amongst which, the strongest one is intrinsic/altruistic motive. Four factors influencing teachers’ commitments were found, students’ learning and school development, demands on teaching and school practices, teaching as a career choice and teacher-pupil interaction and attitudes. Further analysis of the commitment factors highlighted the supporting and discouraging elements associated with school heads and collegial support, students’ learning outcomes, behaviour and attitude in learning, parents’ demands and educational policy changes. It was also found that intrinsic/altruistic motive was significantly related to the four commitment factors, suggesting the relative importance of intrinsic/altruistic motive upon teachers’ commitment in teaching.
Tella et al. (2007) studied work motivation, job commitment of library personnel in academic and research libraries in Oyo state in Nigeria. The study found that a correlation exists between perceived motivation, job satisfaction and commitment, although correlation between motivation and commitment was negative. No difference was observed in the perceived motivation of professional and non-professional library personnel. Moreover, it was also found that differences exist in the job satisfaction of library personnel in academic and research libraries and that no relationship exists in the organizational commitment of library personnel based on their years of experience.

Kilgallon et al. (2008) described an investigation of Australian early childhood teachers’ sustainment in their profession, focussing on those factors which enhance professional commitment, job satisfaction and occupational motivation. Utilizing qualitative methodology this study also identified key factors early childhood teachers consider crucial to sustaining engagement in teaching, while coping with the daily demands of their work and the implementation of mandate educational change. In particular, this study found early childhood teachers’ students, work colleagues, educational setting and attitudes, beliefs and pedagogical practice contributed to their sustainment, as did their ability to maintain personal well-being and a life-work balance.

Sinclair (2008) presented the findings of a study of student teachers’ motivations to be primary teachers and their commitment to teaching after their first practicum. Results suggested that student teachers are multi-motivated to be teachers. The most common reasons for choosing teaching reflected a positive self-evaluation of their attributes and capabilities to be teachers, to work with children and because of the intellectual stimulation teaching would provide. Motivation and commitment changed to some extent over the first semester of initial teacher education, particularly as a result of the first practicum.

Absar (2009) investigated the work motivation and organizational commitment of university teachers. The study aimed at exploring the relationship and impact of work motivation on the organizational commitment of university teachers. The findings showed that there existed no difference in the work motivation and organizational commitment of university teachers, on the basis of their disciplines and designations. It was also found that assistant and associate professors of professional Science courses differed significantly on normative commitment.
Aacha (2010) investigated the effects of motivation on the performance of primary school teachers in Kimaanya-Kyabakura Division, Masaka district. The study sought to find out whether motivation of teachers had any effect on their morale to perform and the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on the performance of teachers. A district survey research design was adapted where a total sample of 135 respondents was taken. The respondents included teachers, head teachers, school management committee members and the Masaka Municipal Education Officer. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. The findings revealed that despite inadequate motivation, the performance of teachers was good. A significant relationship between intrinsic motivation and performance of teachers was found in primary schools in the district. On the other hand, a positive relationship was also revealed between extrinsic motivation and performance of teachers.

Padmavathy (2010) investigated need of professionalism among teacher educators: Research obsolescence through alertness of innovation. He attempted to construct a continuous reward motivation model to develop a good rapport between the teacher educators and institution concerned boosting their alertness to innovation so as to keep them content with their career, prevent them from stagnation, improve their professional outlook and make their teaching effective.

Tanaka (2010) carried out a study on an exploration of teacher motivation: A case study of basic school teachers in two rural districts in Ghana. The study aimed to investigate how basic school teachers’ perception of teaching as a career was shaped by social and professional environment in rural Ghana. It also intended to explore local realities with respect to the policy and its implementation for basic education. One year field research (2007-8) was conducted by using a mixed methods approach in two deprived districts—one from the North and the other from the South—which were geographically, socio-culturally and economically different. The methods of data collection included survey, ethnographic research, interviews and teacher focus group discussions. The research found that physical disadvantages such as lack of conducive infrastructure, the shortage of teaching and learning materials and poor salaries were factors that contributed to lower commitment to the profession.

Hildebrandt and Eom (2011) examined the motivational factors of teachers who had achieved a national standard of professionalization. Data were collected from 453 National Board Certified Teachers in the U.S. The study identified five motivators: improved teaching,
financial gain, collaborative opportunities, self and external validation. Analysis highlighted differences in the financial gain and external validation motivations depending on the teacher’s age at the time of certification. Results of the study showed multiple motivators for teacher’s professionalization with teachers of different ages motivated by various incentives.

Zhao et al. (2011) explored the relationship among vocational selection motivation, professional identity and job burnout of teachers in secondary schools. 241 teachers in secondary schools were investigated to assess their type of vocational selection motivation, by a self-designed scale, teachers' professional identity scale and teachers' job burnout scale. The findings showed that: 1) Role values predicted emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and intellectual burnout negatively, while the sense of occupational belonging had positive effect on these three variables. Occupational values negatively predicted depersonalization and intellectual burnout, and professional behaviour inclination positively predicted personal accomplishment. 2) Compared with teachers whose vocational selection motivation was intrinsic motivation or compound motivation, those whose vocational selection motivation was a motivation or extrinsic motivation showed lower level of professional identity, worse emotional exhaustion and higher level of depersonalization.

Ackerina (2013) determined if individuals who were professionally committed to careers in public education possessed public service motivation. The participants in this study were a sample of convenience selected through their enrolment in graduate education programmes within three East Coast universities. The sample was stratified into three groups based on their education roles as teachers, aspiring leaders, and school district administrators. Based on the 258 education sector participants, the majority were Caucasian, female, and under the age of 30. All respondents held at least a bachelor’s degree and the majority held up to ten years tenure in education. The findings concluded that education professionals possessed public service motivation and were professionally committed to their careers. In addition, results indicated that school district administrators possessed higher levels of public service motivation than teachers. Furthermore, demographic characteristics indicated that educators who were older, more experienced, and highly educated possessed higher levels of PSM. Perhaps the most critical discovery was that when comparing education professionals to their public administration counterparts, educators possessed higher levels of public service motivation.
In the afore mentioned studies, it was found that job satisfaction and motivation were positively correlated (Bishay, 1996); both extrinsic and intrinsic factors were positively correlated to professional commitment (Kwok Wai, 2006). However, negative correlation was found between motivation and commitment of library personnel (Tella et al., 2007). Researches have reported multiple motivating factors for teachers’ professionalization with teachers of different ages motivated by various incentives (Aacha, 2010; Hildebrendt and Eom, 2011).

### 2.6 STUDIES RELATED TO SELF-EFFICACY AND MOTIVATION

**Bandura and Schunk (1981)** tested the hypothesis that *self-motivation through proximal goal-setting serves as an effective mechanism for cultivating competencies, self-percepts of efficacy and intrinsic interest*. Children who were disinterested in mathematical tasks pursued a programme of self-directed learning under conditions involving either proximal sub goals, distal goals, or no goals. It was found that under proximal subgoals, children progressed rapidly and developed a sense of personal efficacy and intrinsic interest in arithmetic activities. Distal goals had no demonstrable effects. Perceived self-efficacy was positively related to accuracy of mathematical performance and to intrinsic interest in arithmetic activities.

**Woolfolk and Hoy (1990)** examined the structure and meaning of efficacy for a sample of 182 prospective teachers and related efficacy to belief about control and motivation the two independent dimensions of teaching efficacy (TE) and personal efficacy (PE) usually for these prospective teachers. Both TE and PE were significantly correlated with bureaucratic orientation, but in opposite directions neither TE nor PE was related to motivational style; only TE was related to pupils control ideology. Canonical correlations, however, revealed more complex relationships. Personal efficacy was positively related to a control orientation that reject teacher control of students but accepts the schools control of teachers. The interaction of TE and PE made unique contributions to prediction of pupils control ideology and bureaucratic orientation.

**Bandura (1993)** reviewed the diverse ways in which *perceived self-efficacy contributed to cognitive development and functioning*. Perceived self-efficacy exerted its influence through four major processes. There were three different levels at which perceived self-efficacy operated as an important contributor to academic development. Students’ beliefs in their efficacy to regulate their own learning and to master academic activities determined
their aspirations, level of motivation and academic accomplishments. Teachers’ beliefs in their personal efficacy to motivate and promote learning affected the types of learning environments they created and the level of academic progress their students achieved. Faculties’ beliefs in their collective instructional efficacy contributed significantly to their schools’ level of academic achievement. Student body characteristics influenced school-level achievement more strongly by altering faculties’ beliefs in their collective efficacy than through direct effects on school achievement.

**Ginns and Watters (1996)** investigated into the experiences of novice teachers to study changes in their self-efficacy and belief about teaching. The main objective of this study was to explore the experiences of two novice elementary school teachers for factors related to self-efficacy and motivation to teach Science. The experiences were analyzed for evidence of 1) successful performance, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal as contributions to the development of Science teaching self-efficacy and 2) links between self-efficacy and the nature and style of Science and other programmes implemented by each novice teacher. The design was based on qualitative measures using semi-structured interviews conducted at the mid-point and at the end of each subjects’ first year of elementary school teaching. It was found that the subjects benefitted from involvement in a co-operative teaching situation and from a school environment with a supportive principal. Induction programmes that provide this kind of support enable novice teachers to implement worthwhile programmes. Teachers who have experienced success and have high levels of self-efficacy should be mentors for novice teachers.

**Van Meter (2000)** in their qualitative investigation explored possible phenomena and change forces influencing three educators to remain highly motivated during the latter portion of their teaching careers. The primary research question examined the possible events, philosophies, attitudes, or choices that shape these motivational mind-frames. Three exemplary teachers were purposefully chosen from a field of eleven energized candidates. Through a series of classroom observations and interview sessions, the life histories of these educators were audio-recorded and professionally transcribed to ensure accuracy. The results included eight a priori, literature-based motivational forms, which were expected to emerge from the data. These included three forms of flow, self-efficacy, two forms of self-esteem, goal-setting, and responsiveness to change forces. In addition, nine grounded-theory motivational factors surfaced repeatedly during the interviews. Highlighted among these were: continual learning, focus on student needs, and strength in the face of adversity. These
eighteen motivational factors, exhibited by the participants, fell under three major themes: the personal self, the professional self, and a bridging of the personal and professional self.

**Hongyun et al. (2004)** studied *teachers’ collective efficacy and self-efficacy as moderators of the impact of work stress*. The data was collected from 1299 teachers representing 28 elementary schools, the moderating effects of teachers’ self-efficacy and collective efficacy on the relations of work stress with job satisfaction, internal motivation and resignation tendency were tested. The results revealed that (1) teachers' self-efficacy significantly moderated the effects of work stress on job satisfaction and internal motivation: the greater the teachers' self-efficacy, the weaker the negative effect of work stress. Also the random slopes' variances of work stress on job satisfaction, internal motivation and resignation tendency were significant. (2) teachers' collective efficacy, as a school level contextual characteristic, significantly moderated the effects of work stress on internal motivation and resignation tendency. For teachers in higher collective efficacy schools, the negative effect of work stress on internal motivation was less than for teachers in lower collective efficacy schools; and the effect of stress on resignation tendency was stronger in lower collective efficacy schools than in higher collective efficacy schools.

**Martin (2004)** studied *the role of positive psychology in enhancing satisfaction, motivation and productivity in the workplace*. In his research he examined teachers’ perceptions of their students’ motivation and engagement and their enjoyment of and confidence in teaching the cognitive dimension of self-efficacy was also considered. Male teachers reported significantly higher student motivation and engagement than female teachers (though effect sizes were small) and primary school teachers reported significantly higher student motivation and engagement than high school teachers (effect sizes were moderate).

**Hardre’ et al. (2006)** investigated the *relationships between teachers’ self-reported classroom goal structures, instructional self-perceptions, teaching efficacy and perceptions of students’ motivation in a developing East Asian nation*. Participants were 404 teachers across subject areas in 14 high schools. The following teacher perceptions correlated strongly with perceptions of student motivation; learning goal orientations; student ability; instrumentality of instruction and high teaching self-efficacy. Among these related factors, learning goals and ability emerged as the strongest predictors of perceived student motivation. Teachers interviewed reported that their students’ motivation was primarily
extrinsic and performance oriented, influenced by external factors, predominantly examination pressure and social expectations.

**Lohman (2006)** used a survey research design to examine *factors influencing the engagement of public school teachers in informal learning activities*. The findings showed that teachers relied to a greater degree on interactive than on independent informal learning activities. Three environmental factors restrained teachers from engaging in informal learning activities: lack of time, lack of proximity to colleagues' work areas, and insufficient funds. In addition, seven personal characteristics enhanced teachers' motivation to engage in informal learning: initiative, self-efficacy, love of learning, interest in the profession, commitment to professional development, a nurturing personality, and an outgoing personality.

**Bhattacharya (2007)** in her study tried to find out *whether motivational orientation and self-regulatory strategies to learn have a cross cultural significance*. The study investigated 143 pre-service teachers from India and 200 pre-service teachers from U.S. It studied the relationship and difference between motivation and self-regulatory strategies in academic learning across countries, and the contribution of each to the prediction of achievement. The results indicated that intrinsic goal orientation, self-efficacy, and rehearsal predicted academic achievement in U.S while self-efficacy and peer learning predicted academic achievement in India.

**Chowdhary and Shahabuddin (2007)** examined how *self-efficacy, motivation and academic performance interact among students enrolled in an introductory marketing course in a private university of Bangladesh*. It was found that there were positive correlations between self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy and extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation and performance, and extrinsic motivation and performance.

**Orhan (2008)** using a pre-experimental method explored *pre-service computer teachers' perception of motivation and response to an instruction based on self-regulated learning strategies*. Data were collected through the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire developed by Pintrich and others (1993) and the Teacher Self-efficacy Scale developed by Akkoyunlu and others (2005). Frequency, percentage distribution, t-test analysis were used in analyzing data. During the semester, self-regulated strategies were integrated into the Teaching Practice Course. As a result of this study, after
the one semester course, students perceived themselves as being more motivated on the course as well as perceiving a higher level of teacher self-efficacy as a computer teacher.

**Rao (2008)** studied *relationship between teacher value behaviour, teacher motivation and teacher self-efficacy among junior college lecturers in Vizianagaram district of Andhra Pradesh*. Significant difference was found between teachers of high and low teacher value behaviour in respect of all the dimensions of teacher motivation. Similarly, significant difference was found between teachers of high and low teacher value behaviour in respect of their teacher self-efficacy. Significant difference was found between the teachers of high and low teacher motivation in respect of their teacher self-efficacy.

**Nilsen (2009)** conducted an action research project on *student’s academic behaviour through motivation, self-efficacy and value-expectation*. He came to the conclusion that following actions are important to influence the three factors: Let students experience success; emphasize student well-being and confidence; increase motivation and enthusiasm among lecturers; more learning by doing; make students more aware of value of content in the syllabus.

**Yan (2009)** reviewed present research on *student de-motivation, analyzed teacher motivation from macro-context and micro-context and put forward suggestions in getting rid of de-motivation*. Macro-contextual influences referred to the general work echoes prevalent at the social level—both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Micro-contextual influences included organizational climate of the particular institution. General expectation regarding student potential, the school’s reward contingencies and feedback system; the school’s leadership and decision making structure. Five general factors lead to teacher de-motivation stress, restricted autonomy, insufficient self-efficacy, lack of intellectual challenge and inadequate career structure.

**Dehaloo (2011)** investigated *the motivation and job satisfaction of teachers in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu-Natal*. The research design was a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design. During the quantitative phase, a structured questionnaire was completed by 100 respondents from 5 secondary schools. The qualitative phase involved a phenomenological study in which 16 teachers from the same schools were interviewed. The research found that teachers generally exhibited high self efficacies. Teachers with positive self efficacies were more satisfied with their physical environments and their schools’
cultures than the others. However, teachers of different age groups agreed that the physical working conditions at rural schools were not conducive to effective teaching and learning. Parental involvement in school matters was restricted due to poverty and illiteracy. These factors served to lower teacher motivation and job satisfaction. In addition, teachers believed that school policies needed to be revised and interpersonal relations made constructive if teacher motivation and job satisfaction were to be raised. It was also found that male teachers were more satisfied with policies, interpersonal relationships and school organisations. African teachers were happier than Indian teachers with policies and the nature of the work. Teachers with 26 and more years of experience were less negative about their physical environments. Qualifications also made a difference: teachers with certificates only were the least satisfied with their physical environments, school organisation and structure. Most importantly, teachers who were given the opportunity to demonstrate their potential to be successful, were significantly more satisfied with work related issues.

Schieb and Karabenick (2011) conducted a study on teacher motivation and professional development: a guide to resources Math and Science partnership- motivation assessment program. Over 250 resources relevant to teacher motivation and professional development were identified and categorised. General trends showed the importance of teacher self-efficacy, the need for collaboration, intrinsic rewards, teacher autonomy, administrative support and education policy.

Ford (2012) examined the factors that impact urban teachers’ efficacy and their ability to motivate urban students within their classroom. 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. Factors such as 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.

Mansfield et al. (2012) carried out a study, goals for teaching: Towards a framework for examining motivation of graduating teachers. A convenience sample of 218 graduating student teachers from two universities in Western Australia was drawn for the study. Participants had completed either a four year Bachelor of Education degree or a one year Post-Graduate Diploma of Education. Most (n=128) participants were qualified to teach in
primary schools, 66 participants were qualified to teach in secondary schools and the remainder (n=24) were qualified for early childhood and special education. The findings showed that graduating teachers had multiple goals for their future teaching careers. The distribution of goals showed that the graduating teachers nominated significantly more person-environment consequences than within person consequences. With regard to the dimension of within person consequences, cognitive goals like understanding, positive self evaluations and intellectual creativity were significantly more nominated than affective goals that focus on physical and emotional well being. With regard to the dimension of person environment consequences, there was no significant difference between nominations of social relationship goals and task goals, although the category of task goals did have the most nominations.

Kumazawa (2013) studied self concept and teaching motivation of four novice secondary schools English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers from Japan. Analysis of interview data showed that the conflicts between the young teachers’ different possible selves negatively affected their motivation in their early days of teaching. However, such conflicts led to self reflection which helped them to reshape their self concepts and regain their motivation.

Related studies on self-efficacy and motivation showed that self-motivation through goal-setting cultivates self-efficacy beliefs. Positive correlation was found between self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation (Bandura and Schunk, 1981; Hongyun et al., 2004), self-efficacy and extrinsic motivation (Chowdhary and Shahbuddin, 2007), self-efficacy among teachers was positively realted to accuracy of performance and intrinsic interest (Bandura and Schunk, 1981). It also contributed to cognitive development and functioning. A study on self-concept and teaching motivation revealed that conflicts among new teachers negatively affected their motivation. However, such conflicts led to self-reflection which helped them to regain their motivation (Kumazawa, 2013).

2.7 AN OVERVIEW

In the related studies on professional commitment, the associated variables taken were job satisfaction and adjustment (Goyal, 1980; Shann, 1988; Burrows, 1996; Kaur 2005); responsibility feelings and adjustment (Vashistha, 1980); personal factors (Kang, 1982); socio-economic background (Wadhawan, 1980); organizational climate (Rana, 1981; Rosenholtz 1989; Chauhan, 1995; Uysal, 2013); mobility patterns (Bisaria, 1991); differential
incentive policies (Firestone and Pennel, 1993); professional support (Singh and Billingsley, 1998); burnout (Kudva 1999); stay-back (Hung and Liu, 1999); occupational stress (Priyadarshani, 2004; Elitharp, 2006; Liu and Lin, 2008; Pai et al., 2012); academic optimism (Kurz, 2006); professed and practised disciplinary orientations and emotional maturity (Jhujj, 2008), teaching competency (Srivastava and Pratibha, 2009); emotional intelligence and locus of control (Iordanaglou, 2007; Kaur, 2009); leadership behaviour (Tabbodi, 2009); educational aspirations (Talawar and Kumar, 2010) and organizational justice (Malmir et al., 2013).

Many researchers studied professional commitment under various other names like responsibility feelings (Vashistha, 1980); professionalization (Wadhawan, 1980; Sengupta, 1990); job involvement (Ahmed, 1986); professional attitudes (Tapodhan, 1991); accountability and professional culture (Narang, 1992); professional values and professional growth (John, 1994); and professional responsibility and teaching attitude (Chauhan, 1995).

Going through the related studies one finds that the problem of professional commitment in one form or the other has been attracting investigators from the seventies of the twentieth century. In the early years the focus was on organizational commitment but during the last twenty years professional commitment has been greedily grabbing the attention of researchers. In most of the studies professional commitment has been kept as the dependent variable and it has been studied in relation to variables influencing or impinging upon it. The subjects of these studies have been mostly working teachers at various school levels. However, there have been some studies in which even teacher educators were the subjects (Marker, 1975; Goyal, 1980; Kohli, 2005; Sood and Anand, 2010). A few studies had teacher-trainees as subjects (Grossman, 1976; Shishupal, 2001). Special education teachers, vocational counsellors and supervisors have also been sampled for the studies (Kang, 1982; Elitharp, 2006; Liu and Lin, 2008; Riehl and Sipple, 1996). The perusal of related studies also shows that professional commitment of college and university teachers has remained a phobia for researchers.

A few studies raised the issue of relationship and compatibility between professional commitment and organizational commitment (Thornton, 1970; Ciriello, 1987; Lamastro, 1995; Riehl and Sipple, 1996; Mc Aulay, 1999; Punia, 2000; Henkin and Holliman, 2009). Overall, the results showed compatibility between professional and organizational commitment; positive relationship between organizational climate and professional commitment on the
basis of gender and location. Mixed results were found on the basis of teaching experience. Factors sustaining and enhancing commitment have been identified (Rosenholtz, 1989; Wellis 1993; Raju and Srivastava, 1993; Punia, 2000; Maheshwari, 2005) and also causes for decline in commitment (Joffres and Haughey, 2001; Day et al., 2005). Some researchers have come out with construction and standardization of commitment scales (Kohli, 2005; Maheshwari, 2005; Jhujj, 2008). Suggestions have been provided regarding ways and means which can be used to enhance commitment among teachers.

Most of the studies have concentrated on finding the level of self-efficacy in teachers as well as students. At other times it has been studied with attitudes regarding innovations (Guskey, 1988); job satisfaction (Lee et al., 1991; Jadhav and Pujar, 2013); organizational commitment (Reames and Spencer, 1998); burnout (Brouwer and Tomic, 2000) (Evers et al., 2002); Schwarzer and Hallum, 2008); educational reforms (Wheatley, 2001); organizational climate (Hodge, 2003); attribution (Liang et al., 2005); stress (Zajacova et al., 2005; Betoret, 2006); emotional intelligence (Salami, 2007); instructional strategies (Eslami and Fatahi, 2008); leadership style (Griffin, 2009); emphasis on higher order thinking (Davies, 2010); teacher value behaviour (Rao, 2008; Suryanarayana et al., 2010) and emotions (Brigido et al., 2012).

A number of studies have constructed and validated a variety of self-efficacy scales (Gibson and Dembo, 1984; Schwarzer et al., 1999; Schmitz and Schwarzer, 2000; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Friedman and Kass, 2002; Bandura, 2005; Di Fabio, 2006).

A few studies have explored relationships between the different dimensions of self-efficacy (Hoy and Woolfolk, 1993; Soodak and Podell, 1996; Friedman and Kass, 2002). Comparative studies have been taken up at various levels like between pre-service and in-service teachers (Campbell, 1996); between novice and experienced teachers (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2006); between teachers across countries (Sridhar and Badiei, 2008; Malinen et al., 2013) between different types of schools (Sridhar and Razavi, 2008). Relationship of self-efficacy has also been studied with a number of disciplines like Science and Maths. Lately, a few studies have explored factors related to self-efficacy (Guo et al., 2011; Siwattu, 2011; Cho and Shim, 2013).

Overall, results have reported high self-efficacy. Self efficacy has been found to be major predictor of goal choice (Locke et al., 1984). Good organizational climate developed
self-efficacy (Lee et al., 1991); high self-efficacy led to instructional innovation and thus improved academic performance of the students (Guskey, 1988). Self-efficacy was reported to have negative relationship with burn out (Evers et al., 2002).

The above mentioned studies show that work motivation and student motivation have been researched with great enthusiasm. Motivation has been studied with organizational climate (Dixit, 1971; Coutts, 1997); competency and personality (Sathya Giri Rajan, 1985); pupil achievement (Dutta, 1987); job satisfaction (Das, 1988; Lee, 1996; Shaheen, 2005; Bakshi, 2012); job performance (Yaakub and Elias, 1999; Shaari et al., 2002); emotional intelligence (Upadhaya, 2006); sources of motivation and demotivation (Kiziltepe, 2008); occupational stress (Singh, 2009); gender differences in motivational beliefs of professional students (Shelly, 2012); education quality (Akuoko et al., 2012) and student satisfaction (Yusof et al., 2013). A large number of studies have identified motivating and demotivating factors (Kukreti; 1990; Mittal, 1992) and intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Bruinsma and Jansen, 2010; Hildebrandt and Eom, 2011). It was found that extrinsic motivation is no doubt essential but it is intrinsic motivation which matters the most (Balasubrahmanyam, 2005; Kiziltepe, 2008; Hein et al., 2012; Aacha, 2013). A few cross cultural studies were also carried out (Bhattacharya, 2007; Klassen et al., 2008; Klassen et al., 2011; Hein et al., 2012).

There have been studies about the relationship between professional commitment and self-efficacy. Most of them have tried to predict professional commitment on the basis of self-efficacy (Coladarci, 1992; Ware and Kitsantas, 2007; Chan et al., 2008).

Some studies have used theories of motivation in explaining commitment (Etzioni, 1968; Ryan and Deci, 2000; Riley, 2002). Direct relationship has been seen between work motivation and organizational commitment (Absar, 2009; Hildebrandt and Eom, 2011). It was found that both extrinsic and intrinsic factors were positively related to professional commitment. (O’ Reilly and Caldwell, 1980; Levithan, 1993; Raju and Srivastava, 1994; Kwok-Wai, 2006). Negative relationship between motivation and commitment was reported (Tella et al., 2007). The above variables were studied on the basis of gender, subject, age, and years of teaching experience (O’Reilly and Caldwell, 1980; Brown and Hughes, 2008; Shelly, 2012; Akuoko et al., 2012).

Studies on self-efficacy and motivation concluded positive correlations between self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation (Bandura and Schunk, 1981; Hongyun et al., 2004); self-efficacy and extrinsic motivation (Chowdhary and Shahabuddin, 2007). Significant
difference was found between the teachers of high and low teacher motivation in respect of their teacher self-efficacy (Rao, 2008). In Japan, a study of self-concept and teaching motivation showed that conflicts in novice teachers affected their motivation in early days. However, such conflicts led to self-reflection which helped them to reshape their self-concepts and regain their motivation (Kumazawa, 2013).

From the studies above it has become clear that most of the studies on self-efficacy have been conducted abroad and relatively it has remained untouched by Indian investigators. It has also been seen that it has not been directly studied with professional commitment. Moreover, such a study has not taken place on the teachers of Punjab. Regarding the variable of motivation a large number of studies have been on achievement motivation of students. There has been little to see in the form of empirical findings on the relationship between professional commitment and motivation where teachers have been respondents. Most of the studies on teacher motivation have concentrated around the factors increasing or decreasing motivation. The investigator found a dearth of studies in the field of self-efficacy and teacher motivation as related to professional commitment and hence, decided to approach the subject.

The contents of the review warranted this investigator to plunge for the research venture as stated below: **Professional Commitment of Secondary School Teachers of Punjab in Relation to Self Efficacy and Motivation.**

### 2.9 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

For the present study the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is no significant difference between the professional commitment of male and female secondary school teachers of Punjab.
2. There is no significant difference between the professional commitment of rural and urban secondary school teachers.
3. There is a significant difference in the professional commitment of secondary school teachers on the basis of the length of their teaching experience.
4. There is no significant difference between the self-efficacy of male and female secondary school teachers of Punjab.
5. There is no significant difference between the self-efficacy of rural and urban secondary school teachers.
6. There is a significant difference in the self-efficacy of secondary school teachers on the basis of length of their teaching experience.
7. There is no significant difference between the motivation of male and female secondary school teachers of Punjab.

8. There is no significant difference between the motivation of rural and urban secondary school teachers.

9. There is a significant difference in the motivation of secondary school teachers on the basis of length of their teaching experience.

10. There is a significant relationship between professional commitment and self-efficacy of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

11. There is a significant relationship between professional commitment and motivation of secondary school teachers of Punjab.

12. Self-efficacy and motivation significantly predict the professional commitment of secondary school teachers of Punjab.