Self-efficacy in the Classroom: a Socio-cultural Perspective on the Contributing and Detracting Factors.

Christopher Wall

A thesis submitted to Auckland University of Technology
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Educational Leadership.

2019

School of Education
Faculty of Culture and Society

Abstract

This thesis is an investigation into both self-efficacy and cultural capital in New Zealand classrooms. I believe that there is a useful intersection to be found between these two concepts, and through this thesis I aim to provide teachers and leaders with further knowledge to promote self-efficacy development in their students.

I will argue that a strengths-based approach is critical in acknowledging and validating cultural capital, and providing a platform from which self-efficacy can be fostered. I consider that it is pertinent for educational leaders to consider the self-efficacy development of both their students and teachers, in order to increase agency throughout the school.

Based on my analysis of the literature it would seem that self-efficacy is highly complex, and difficult to quantifiably measure. I will argue in this thesis, that part of this complexity is due to the socio-cultural nature of the construction, and continuance of self-efficacy. Cultural capital is similarly complex and multifaceted with a very broad spectrum of contributing factors. I will also argue that cultural capital, when considered from a deficit perspective can become a type of cultural distance from prevailing norms. This cultural distance can serve to limit self-efficacy development.

A mixed methods approach, situated from a pragmatic research position was adopted to conduct a naturalistic research project. In order to conduct the research I selected two case study schools and one further supplementary school. Initially I surveyed the participants to discover a comparative reference of their levels of self-efficacy. This was followed by in-class observations and semi-structured interviews.

The analysis of the data collected suggests that knowledge of the concept of self-efficacy is not widespread. It also suggests efficacy beliefs in the classroom are potentially interrelated, with a reciprocal relationship between the self-efficacy of teachers and students. The voice of the participants also reinforces the literature that suggests self-efficacy development is more effective in differentiated classrooms.

I believe that increasing the understanding of self-efficacy, combined with deliberate strategies employed by educational leaders to adopt strengths-based and differentiated approaches will ultimately improve outcomes for a broad demographic of students.

Table of Contents

Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signed Date 10/02/2019

List of Figures

List of Tables

Acknowledgements

This thesis is the culmination of a substantial personal and professional journey through which I believe I have been very fortunate to be supported by a number of people. Written during the course of a significant shift in my personal life, the completion of this thesis has not been without considerable challenge. At times I didn't think I was going to make it, but here we are and I am profoundly grateful to have made it here.

This research was approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 11th July 2018, and amended on the 18th October 2018, AUTEC Reference number 18/233.

I would like to express my thanks to my supervisor, Ruth Boyask. This thesis has been enriched by your feedback and guidance. Through your supervision I believe my learning into the key concepts of this thesis has become deeper and more meaningful, I appreciate the extent of your support and advice.

To the participants and schools involved in this research project I am indebted for your generosity of time and responses provided. Thank you for participating in this research project and enabling the completion of this thesis.

The ability to immerse myself in the process of researching and writing this thesis was made possible in part due to the study leave scholarship I received from TeachNZ. Without this scholarship finding the time and energy to dedicate to this thesis would have been challenging. As part of this, I would like to acknowledge the Board of Trustees of my school for supporting me to take the time away from school to complete this study award.

I would also like to acknowledge the proofreading services of RevisEdit.

Thank you to all my friends, family and colleagues who have provided encouragement, critical voice, welcome distractions and perspective when needed to prevent me from losing myself under a pile of readings.

Finally, perhaps one day my two young girls will pick up and read this thesis, I hope that you know how much I have appreciated all the hugs, smiles, laughs, and sometimes tears that accompanied the journey of this thesis. I love you both very much.

Chapter One - Introduction

Introduction

This thesis is an exploration and examination of self-efficacy in the classroom. I have investigated how self-efficacy is constructed and maintained, what influences it may have on student and teacher engagement and achievement, and what can be done by teachers and leaders to improve it. While undertaking this research, I have considered that self-efficacy is socio-culturally constructed. Utilising this lens, the concepts of cultural capital and cultural distance have emerged as central themes. I consider that cultural capital primarily originates outside of the classroom and is carried into school with students and teachers, while cultural distance is what can occur within the classroom as a result of the discord of established capital with classroom culture. I suggest that familiarity with prevailing classroom culture and practices resulting in a lack of cultural distance is advantageous to efficacy beliefs for some students. Finally, I will argue for increased understanding of the concept of self-efficacy in schools and pose ways in which teachers and educational leaders can offer increased opportunities to achieve this and foster efficacy beliefs in their contexts.

This chapter initially establishes where the research originated from and provides a rationale for the relevance of the research; this includes a brief description of the two key concepts, firstly self-efficacy and secondly cultural capital and cultural distance. The chapter concludes with the research aim and questions that focus the research, then an outline of the presentation of the remainder of this thesis.

The beginnings of a research project

My reflections on self-efficacy as a teacher

As a teacher, I have worked for the past eight years in a vibrant, heterogeneous and diversifying school. A multitude of languages, such as Mandarin, Hindi, Arabic, Japanese, Vietnamese and Samoan, can be heard as you walk through the school, and it is common to have an interpreter translating your teaching to New Zealand Sign language for hearing impaired students. Students will often gravitate to the various social communities that can be found in the school including sporting cliques, such as the rugby boys or the hockey girls; various clubs, the science club or interact club; or the less formal groups such as the students who play card games at any opportunity, or those who seem to spend all their time talking about and looking at performance cars. The annual International Week has become the largest event on the school calendar celebrating language, dance, music, food and fashion. The school's cultural diversity is made possible in part due to the breadth of ethnicities represented at the school, with New Zealand's dominant ethnic group of European/Pākehā only occupying 13.5% of the student population (Ministry of Education,

2018a). While ethnicity can be used as a proxy for culture, throughout this thesis, culture is considered from a broader perspective. This has been particularly informed by the work of Inglis (2005) and is considered a whole way of life, including values, beliefs, norms, perceptions, dispositions and behaviours. This definition will be further considered in Chapter Two of this thesis.

The culturally diverse student body brings with it a number of challenges, most commonly in catering for the needs of such a mixed audience. I have observed the struggles that these students have encountered as they have been faced with a foreign language, educational practices and assessments. From my observations, I began to draw my own conclusions that motivation was in part, if not considerably influenced by the students' perceptions as to whether they could complete a task. I began to explore the idea of self-efficacy as part of my professional responsibilities to support the development of student self-management. As part of the school's focus to implement independent learning, I began to consider that the disengagement being witnessed and the lack of success by some students during independent learning times may be underpinned by a lack of self-efficacy.

My reflections on self-efficacy as a leader

My experiences as a teacher were then complemented by my experiences as an educational leader while seeking to find an understanding as to why teachers found it easier to teach one class compared to another. In my professional discussions, it seemed that teachers could not necessarily quantify what was happening, but were aware that something was different. Comments like 'my line one class is just easier to teach than my line five, I'm not sure why it is just the vibe of the class' or 'the rowdy class and the quiet class' seemed to suggest that there was an unmeasured 'vibe' occurring that was influencing teacher confidence and delivery. The idea of teacher efficacy began to become more frequent in my research and appraisal discussions with other teachers. I began to consider the reciprocal nature of socio-cultural influence that students and teachers might have on one another.

My personal reflections on self-efficacy

My experiences as a teacher differ from my own personal schooling experience. Finding schooling a predominantly easy and understandable process, I had little experience of challenges associated with cultural distance. Ticking all the commonly mentioned boxes of privilege: white, middle-classed, able-bodied, heterosexual and male it was not until I began to move towards the last one, middle-aged, that I began to realise the depth of privilege that I have been afforded in both my education and beyond. I feel fortunate that I travelled and placed myself in positions of cultural discomfort, that began to unravel my previously held assumptions and initiated an understanding of cultural capital. It was not, however, until I embarked on postgraduate study at Auckland University of Technology (AUT) that I

truly began to appreciate the breadth of the gaps in my knowledge and understanding of both cultural capital and privilege. I discovered the question "in what ways does my identity . . . *interrupt* my ability to see other perspectives?" (Santamaría & Santamaría, 2013, p. 6). This made me review both my professional and personal position, and I realised that it was likely that I had an aptitude for homosociability, selecting relationships that felt both familiar and safe (Grummell, Devine, & Lynch, 2009). Investigating my own lens through which I perceive the world has made me more aware of my "diversity competences" (Iles & Hayers, 1997, p. 110), and this thesis is another step to help further expand my capacity in intercultural leadership.

These three key experiences provided the impetus to initiate further study in both self-efficacy and cultural capital and provide the platform from which I based my initial thinking. These two key concepts are central to this research and are both substantial topics in their own right. In order to limit the scope of this thesis, the discussion is centred around the intersection of these two concepts. To further hone the focus, I have selected to center this research on secondary students, in particular, junior secondary students of New Zealand, school years 9 and 10. Junior secondary students were selected as they generally move together between classes and therefore it was possible to make comparisons with the same group of students across different teachers. In the following paragraphs, I will expand on the two key concepts providing further background for the establishment of this thesis.

The two main concepts - Efficacy and Capital

Why student, teacher and collective efficacy?

Throughout my investigation into self-efficacy, I have realised that much of the literature regarding self-efficacy is in part or wholly influenced by the work of Albert Bandura, who has been at the forefront of self-efficacy research since his 1977 article "Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change" (Bandura, 1977a). Bandura defines perceived self-efficacy as belief "in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). The ability to self-reflect and perceive one's capability is interwound with self-concept and therefore I believe an investigation into self-efficacy must also consider the determinants of self-concept.

What contributes to self-concept is further discussed in Chapter Two. In the literature I explored, there is generally consensus that self-efficacy is at least a contributor to self-concept and argued by some, for example, Bong and Skaalvik (2003) to be the "most important building block in one's self-concept" (p. 11). It has been suggested by a number of authors (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Relich, Debus, & Walker, 1986; B. J. Zimmerman, 2000) that improving self-efficacy, as a component of self-concept, can contribute to increases in

student performance. Bandura (1997) proposes that increases in self-efficacy will lead to improvements in motivation and engagement, resulting in increased levels of student achievement.

Complementing the development of self-efficacy in students is the development of teacher efficacy. Numerous benefits to increasing teacher efficacy have been found including: increases in student achievement; higher levels of planning and organisation; an increased willingness to experiment and higher levels of resilience when faced with setbacks (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Higher levels of teacher efficacy have also been found to be one of the "significant predictors of both job satisfaction and job performance" (Judge & Bono, 2001, p. 86). Some researchers have suggested that teacher and student self-efficacy have a reciprocal impact on one another which makes it difficult to consider the concepts in isolation (Meissel & Rubie-Davies, 2016); the combining of these two components is considered by some researchers as collective efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996). Collective efficacy suggests that in a school environment, efficacy is not solely personal, but also a social construct. These concepts will be further explored and defined in Chapter two of this thesis.

Why cultural capital?

The term culture, defined by Thaman (2000) "as a shared way of living of a group of people, which includes their accumulated knowledge and understandings, skills and values, and which is perceived by them to be unique and meaningful" (p. 1) is complex and will be examined in depth in Chapter Two of this thesis. However, most commonly used measures of cultural diversity indicate that New Zealand's teachers are increasingly finding themselves delivering education to a culturally diversifying student body. Data from the 2013 census shows that New Zealand continues to witness ethnic diversification, one of the most commonly used indicators of cultural diversity. Both the Māori and Pasifika population are youthful in nature, and there is a continued trend of growth in the population of Asian peoples (Stats NZ, 2014). In terms of ethnicity, Auckland is the fourth most diverse city in the world, and one-quarter of New Zealanders were born overseas at the time of the 2013 census (Pio, 2016). Ethnicity by itself is a poor measure of cultural diversity as it fails to acknowledge the breadth of difference that is witnessed across individuals belonging to an ethnic classification. However, these statistics do show strong evidence that the demographic of students in New Zealand is undergoing considerable change.

The idea of cultural capital as a process of social and cultural reproduction was proposed by Bourdieu (1977a) in describing the perpetuation of social and class inequalities. For Bourdieu, capital exists in three forms or species: economic capital, cultural capital and social capital (Bourdieu, 1986). These forms of capital are the resources that individuals

possess that enable them to negotiate the fields they operate in. Effectively individuals can trade their capital for finite resources, such as money, property, education or societal positions such as titles of nobility. According to Bourdieu (1986), there are three forms in which cultural capital exists: embodied social traits inherited over time, for example, an accent or an ability to read; objectified, cultural artefacts such as writings or artwork; and institutionalised, referring to the way cultural capital is measured and certified. These three forms of cultural capital can become inherited dispositions, that can aid or hinder individuals to negotiate various settings, such as schools, workplaces and communities. For Bourdieu, the education system was a key component "to the reproduction of the social structure by sanctioning the hereditary transmission of cultural capital" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 245). In Chapters Two and Three, I will argue that socio-economic background, gender, ethnicity, home language and preparation to engage in the schooling system are contributing factors which can act as capital to advantage or disadvantage students in New Zealand schools.

Considering the continued diversification being witnessed by New Zealand schools and the socio-cultural nature of self-efficacy, I believe it is pertinent for educators to consider both self-efficacy and cultural capital in conjunction.

A rationale for this research contributing to the field of Educational Leadership

The increasing perception of pressure for educational change

Teachers and schools are now coming under increasing pressure to broaden their horizons of what is relevant for today's students to offer "transformational learning system[s]" (Timperley, Kaser, & Halbert, 2014, p. 3). Global research initiatives from the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) and the World Economic Forum are calling for skills to enable "adaptive expertise" (Hanna, David, & Francisco, 2010, p. 3), by fostering qualities such as "collaboration, creativity and problem-solving, and character qualities like persistence, curiosity and initiative" (World Economic Forum, 2015, p. 2). As part of the Education Portfolio Work Programme, the Ministry of Education is investigating system-wide reform to address the "needs of the 21st century" (Ministry of Education, 2018b, p. 2). This broad review is likely to result in immediate and long-term change for educators and increase pressure to support the development of a wider set of behavioural attributes.

A narrow day-to-day focus

Encouraging skills, such as collaboration, creativity and problem solving, while developing character qualities of persistence, curiosity and initiative, requires some insight into socio-psychological motivation. In a New Zealand setting, Rubie-Davies et al. (2012) suggest that more could be learnt from further investigation of the socio-psychological factors that impact student performance. Educational research must go beyond "finding better, more

sophisticated, more efficient, or effective means for achieving educational ends"; it must also consider the "aims, ends and purposes of education" (Biesta & Burbules, 2004, p. 109). As a teacher operating in a school environment, I found it easy to overlook the aims, ends and purposes, rather I focussed on day-to-day efficiencies and delivering more effective lessons to my students. Fitzgerald, Youngs and Grootenboer (2003) describe the pressures, either perceived or actual, of bureaucratic control, that result in schools reinforcing the focus on efficiency through a broad range of intra-school accountability processes. At my current school, these manifest as: annual goals, performance management and appraisal, inquiry, professional learning, reflection and course reviews that are a constant reminder of this desire for operational efficiency. As a result, each lesson, day, week, term and year becomes focussed on delivering annual incremental improvement in students' academic outcomes, and it is not until faced with change that a chance to reflect on the aims, ends and purposes is made obvious. Improving day-to-day efficiencies is not going to meet the needs of our 21st-century learners, nor is it going to result in equipping teachers with the skills they need to teach competencies like adaptive expertise.

For educational leaders, the challenge is twofold as to enable improvements in student learning behaviours requires that teachers have the capacity to deliver appropriate instruction to their students. The causality dilemma then arises, as to whether capacity or perception of capacity, is more likely to influence both teacher and student motivation and engagement. Leaders of change will potentially face further challenge and scepticism from teachers who harden themselves to the "constant swings of emphasis in change and innovation" (Hargreaves, 2004, p. 288). The intent of this research is to support both educational leaders and teachers to deepen their understanding of the concepts of self-efficacy and cultural capital and how these relate to engagement, motivation and academic outcomes for students.

The aim of the project and the research questions

Both my personal and professional experiences, combined with my initial reading on self-efficacy and cultural capital has resulted in the aim of this thesis:

> To explore the impacts of both positive and negative self-efficacy in the classroom; in particular, the intersection and interplay of inherited cultural capital with existing and established socio-cultural climates operating in the classroom.

The goal of the research is to provide educational leaders with some insight as to what leadership responses could aid in fostering an environment that promotes the development of self-efficacy in culturally diversifying classrooms. This has resulted in the primary research question:

> How can educational leaders foster an environment that facilitates increased opportunities for teachers and students to develop their self-efficacy in the classroom?

As I explored this primary research question, I found it useful to focus my research on four further questions which contribute to my overarching aim. These questions became my secondary research questions:

- In what ways does classroom culture contribute to self-efficacy?
- In what ways does student self-efficacy contribute to teacher efficacy and vice versa?
- How can existing cultural capital advantage or disadvantage learners?
- Is educational practice and potential cultural distance affecting the self-efficacy of students from different cultural backgrounds?

To investigate these questions I first sought to clarify the key concepts, and explore and determine definitions necessary to ground the research project. I have adopted a pragmatic research approach throughout this process and have utilised naturalistic research methods to explore my research questions. This was primarily oriented towards qualitative research methods with some supplementary quantitative survey data to aid in the transferability of the data collected in this project. I applied and was successful in gaining ethics approval, including an amendment to my initial application, from Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) prior to engaging with any research participants (Appendix A). The participants that took part in the research project were from three Auckland schools and consisted of students, teachers and educational leaders. I found that the existing literature available on both self-efficacy and cultural capital was extensive and positioned between both constructivist and social theories of learning. I have, therefore, argued that I am operating at the intersection of these two positions and the work of the two authors that underpin much of this literature, Bourdieu and Bandura. The presentation of this research is summarised as follows.

Presentation of the thesis

The presentation of this thesis consists of seven chapters that document the process of this research. Chapter One has sought to provide the foundation of this research by establishing the origin of my thinking, resulting in the rationale for this research. To conclude this chapter, I have outlined the research questions that have focussed my investigation. A brief explanation of the remaining chapters is as follows.

Chapter Two clarifies the position of this research and provides justification and definition of both self-efficacy and cultural capital. In order to do this a range of terminology is discussed and defined including, self-concept, self-awareness, self-esteem, culture and habitus. This provides the platform for the remainder of the literature reviewed in this thesis.

Chapter Three reviews literature related to both cultural capital and self-efficacy. Initially, each secondary research question is considered with evidence of both contributing and contradicting literature provided and critiqued. This is then synthesised into a section that seeks to explore the primary research question from the perspective of what interventions educational leaders can make to support their teachers and students.

Chapter Four outlines both the research methods and methodological approaches that were considered and selected to complete the research. Positioning the research in a pragmatic paradigm is justified, utilising both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. The chapter concludes with ethical and cultural considerations that were made throughout the research process.

Chapter Five presents the findings from the participants of the three schools who took part in the research project. Firstly, the survey data from both the teachers and students followed by the observation and interview data. The chapter lays the foundation for the discussion in the following chapter.

Chapter Six connects the research findings with the literature reviewed in Chapter Three. The chapter initially explores the concepts of cultural capital and cultural distance before putting forward an argument for strength-based differentiated instruction based on the research findings. The chapter concludes with a discussion around strategies that educational leaders can utilise in response to the research findings.

Chapter Seven explains the significance of this research project and presents the key findings. The limitations of the study are highlighted prior to recommendations being made for future research.

Chapter Two - Theoretical Frameworks

Introduction

This chapter provides a foundation for the literature reviewed in Chapter Three of this thesis, by defining both self-efficacy and cultural capital. Initially, this chapter explores my assumptions regarding the nature of learning which underpin my discussions throughout this thesis. The chapter then focuses on defining self-efficacy; in order to do this, I have explored self-concept, including the commonly referenced building blocks of self: self-awareness, which without efficacious decision making would not be possible; and self-esteem which is often linked to high or low levels of self-efficacy. The latter half of the chapter reviews the literature on and proposes a definition of culture. In order to explore and define cultural capital, a discussion of Bourdieu's (1977b) interrelated concept of habitus is provided, and the chapter concludes with the links between both self-efficacy and cultural capital.

My assumptions regarding the nature of learning

Bandura and Bourdieu as a starting point

The following two chapters have emerged from my exploration of both self-efficacy and cultural capital and are based on my evolving assumptions regarding the nature of learning. Much of my initial reading regarding self-efficacy was centred around the work of Bandura (1997), and those who have used his work as the basis for their own investigations into self-efficacy. For Bandura self-efficacy is all-encompassing and determines motivation, engagement and outcomes for individuals. My initial reading regarding cultural capital focussed primarily on the work of Bourdieu (1977b) and those authors who have based their work on his theories. Capital is similarly all-encompassing for Bourdieu and combined with habitus, which is considered the "learned set of preferences or dispositions by which a person orients to the social world" (Edgerton & Roberts, 2014, p. 195), determines both agency and possibility. The work of Bourdieu, a renowned sociologist, is not widely referenced alongside that of Bandura, whose early work, in particular, has been critiqued as a stimuli and response behaviourist or neo behaviourist model. In fact, in one of Bandura's most seminal works, *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control* (1997), which includes an extensive reference list of close to 2,000 entries, Bourdieu's name is not mentioned once. Bandura's work and his contributions to psychology have evolved substantially from a starting point founded in behaviourism, for example, the widely critiqued Bobo Doll experiment (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961), in which he observed the behaviour in children after being exposed to aggressive adult behaviour. 16 years later in 1977, he proposed what was potentially a neo-behaviourist Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977b), which developed into a more social constructivist Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986).

An intersection between constructivist and social theories of learning

Learning as seen from a constructivist viewpoint assumes that the learner makes meaning and constructs mental schemes as they learn (Illeris, 2018). Piaget's (1976) theory of cognitive development proposes that children move through four stages of development building on existing knowledge as they progress through this development. A learner experiences their world and makes meaning, which is often facilitated by a teacher or a more experienced learner. This position on learning is usually considered additive or assimilative to create new or modified knowledge that an individual can recall in various situations. For Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is primarily an assimilative process whereby one's efficacy beliefs are the result of cumulative learning regarding previous goal-oriented achievements. This knowledge will be further reinforced as an individual negotiates additional tasks increasing or diminishing existing efficacy beliefs.

For proponents of social learning theories, such as Vygotsky (2012) and Wenger (2018), the emphasis is placed more heavily on the social interactions between individuals. For example, that of Wenger (2018) who considers "learning as social participation" in communities that determine "what we do, but also who we are and how we interpret what we do" (p. 221). The breadth of involvement in these communities is considerable, and each individual assumes various roles in the communities of which they are a part, including family, school, work, religious and sporting communities. Each community has its own unique culture, or way of life, which must be negotiated by the participants as they contribute to and further develop the community in a reciprocal way. For Bourdieu (1989), the emphasis placed on the social transaction becomes of even more pronounced importance, assuming that individuals are enabled to conduct these transactions based on their existing capital. This process and navigation of communities can be a discordant or harmonious process depending on the level of familiarity the participant has with each community: "when habitus encounters a social world of which it is the product, it is like a "fish in water", it does not feel the weight of the water" (p. 43).

The research that I am conducting is seeking to explore the ability of students and their teachers to negotiate their classroom settings that may or may not be familiar to them and the resultant impact on their self-efficacy. For this reason, I suggest that there is a useful intersection to be found between the sociological work of Bourdieu, and the social constructivist work of Bandura to explore the concept of self-efficacy and cultural capital. It is challenging to consider self-efficacy and cultural capital from either a purely constructivist or social model; each individual's background and experience is unique and will be a blend of: inherited behavioural dispositions, enculturated learnings, conditioned responses, cognitive processes, individually and socially constructed learning. It is from this starting point and assumption that I base the rest of my discussion on these two concepts

and there are a blend of behaviourist, constructivist and social learning theories presented in the remainder of this thesis.

Self-efficacy

Introduction to self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a subjective rather than objective construct, and it is for this reason, I believe that a consistent definition of self-efficacy is somewhat debated in the literature. The work of Bandura (1997) has initiated much of the discussion and research regarding self-efficacy. For Bandura (1986) "perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 94). Bandura's work and definition forms much of the basis of my research; however, since his work was published, much has been done to both illuminate and cloud understanding of self-efficacy. Not only are there a number of somewhat analogous 'self' terms that can cloud understanding of self-efficacy. There are also a number of terms utilising self-efficacy, such as teacher efficacy and collective efficacy, which can increase confusion. For this reason, I will provide a brief description of the most pertinent and how they differ from and contribute to self-efficacy. I will also provide a brief outline of Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (1986) as this clarifies how he proposes self-efficacy is related to the self, behaviour and the environment. At the conclusion of this section, I will offer a definition of self-efficacy as it is conceptualised in this thesis.

Analogous and divergent self terms

The term self-efficacy is frequently referenced in motivation theory literature and is often found alongside or confused in and amongst a number of other self-terms. The most frequently referenced are those of: self-belief, self-confidence, self-awareness, self-esteem and self-concept; these words can be considered by the level of specificity which they provide. Self-belief and self-confidence are more imprecise in their definition, not necessarily being goal-oriented and more intangible in their measurement; however, for the most part, they seem to be used more colloquially as a substitute for self-efficacy. Self-awareness, self-esteem and self-concept, however, are generally agreed to be divergent from self-efficacy; self-concept, in particular, being central to much discussion regarding self-efficacy. Due to the nature of these self-events, Paulick, Großschedl, Harms, and Möller (2017) suggest that self-concept is more "past oriented and stable" while self-efficacy is more "future oriented and malleable" (p. 120). In the following paragraphs, I will explore the notion of self-concept, self-awareness and self-esteem, and how they each relate to self-efficacy.

The concept of self

Self, an everyday term is commonplace in most people's lexicon is used to describe roles, behaviours, preferences and make value judgements. It is a learned attribute, as to have a

concept of self, you must first have knowledge of yourself. An infant entering the world is not born with a sense of self (Harter, 1999); rather it develops this from observations and various external inputs. On the surface, the concept of self can be colloquially simplified to phrases such as, I am me, it is mine, I am myself (Cooley, 1902); however, to define a concept of self is substantially more difficult. Triandis (1989) describes how the intricacies of the term 'self', have been extensively discussed by a range of psychologists, anthropologists and sociologists with oftentimes little consensus. Considering the difficulties reaching a concise explanation, Hattie (2014) utilises a facet analysis to break down the definition of self-concept into its component parts giving alternative terminology to cover the breadth of the definition:

> Our conceptions/self-concepts of our self are cognitive appraisals, expressed in terms of expectations/descriptions/prescriptions, integrated across various dimensions that we attribute to ourselves. The integration is primarily via self-verification/self-consistency/self-complexity/self-enhancement. These attributes may be consistent/inconsistent depending on the type/amount of confirmation/disconfirmation our appraisals received from others/ourselves. (p. 37)

This facet analysis serves in part to demonstrate the difficulties of defining self-concept but provides a position from which it is possible to explore what influences self-concept. Although it would seem that a singular definition of self-concept remains elusive, there does seem to be more agreement on the factors which contribute to a sense of self. Bordens and Horowitz (2017), synthesising a range of literature on self, outline some of the ways that self-concept can be established and maintained: reflected appraisals (Cooley, 1902), social comparisons (Festinger, 1954), and introspection. The breadth of influence that contributes to these three components of self-concept is both substantial and unique to each individual. The process of knowing oneself stems from the ability to be self-aware; Hattie (2014) suggests that "self-concept involves more than the knower and the known, it also relates to the process of knowing" (p. 36). In the following paragraphs, I will expand on each of these components and how they contribute to not only self-concept but also self-efficacy.

Reflected appraisals

Triandis (1989) in reviewing a breadth of literature determines that there is generally consensus that the concept of self is at least in part informed by interaction with other individuals and groups. Cooley's (1902) concept of the looking-glass self formed the basis of much modern thinking on what was later termed by Sullivan (1953) as reflected appraisals; the premise that our views of self are established through what we perceive others see in ourselves. Reflected appraisals can thus initially be easily explored; for example, if a

student believes that their teacher considers themselves 'smart', they are more likely to believe themselves to be 'smart'. However, Leavy (2017) unpacks the dangerous nature of "privilege, power, oppression, and domination" (p. 1) that can result in unforeseen reflected appraisal and negative concepts of self. Leavy argues that we are profoundly influenced by our environment without even necessarily being aware of the environment that we are in. Importantly for self-efficacy, reflected appraisal suggests that if teachers may be able to foster increases in self-efficacy by focussing on student's perceptions of themselves rather than capacity.

Social Comparisons

Social comparisons proposed by Festinger (1954) are considered an innate drive which allows individuals to make sound informed decisions as to whether they are likely to be competitive (Bordens & Horowitz, 2017). Festinger (1954) asserts that social comparisons and competitive behaviour stem from the same socio-psychological process. Festinger goes on to discuss that this comparison is both subjective and objective. In situations where performance is judged in a more ambiguous manner, the perception of one's ability will form the basis of comparison with others. In an educational setting, this can present as students comparing themselves to one another as to whether or not they are 'smart' or 'capable'. While this may be objective; 'my peer ran faster than I did', it can also be more subjective; 'my peers are smarter than me'. This can result in positive motivation but also act to discourage a student if they believe that they cannot keep up. In reviewing an extensive range of literature on the topic of social comparisons in the classroom, Dijkstra, Kuyper, van der Werf, Buunk and van der Zee (2008) suggest that students strongly prefer to compare themselves with peers whom they perceive are performing better than themselves. This can motivate students to improve their own performance, but can also lead to negative self-appraisals and result in a lowering of both academic self-concept and self-efficacy.

Introspection

Introspection is an intrapersonal process that can live solely in reflection on lived experiences and behaviours, but also through empathy, described by Kohut (1959) as a "vicarious introspection" (p.461). Amongst psychologists, there is debate as to the accuracy and therefore the relevance of self-knowledge that results from introspective thinking (Silvia & Gendolla, 2001). There is a broad amount of literature that argues both for and against introspection; however, Armstrong (2002) makes the case, that "without introspection there could be no purposive mental activity", which would result in an inability to "think before we act" (p. 327). Hixon and Swann (1993) suggest that it is the amount of introspection that is critical to its effectiveness, stating that "modest amounts of reflection foster self-insight" (p. 42). Most if not all teachers in New Zealand are familiar with the expectation that they operate as reflective practitioners. Processes, such as

appraisal, attestation, inquiry and observations, all require reflective thought and include some degree of introspective thinking.

Self-awareness and self-esteem

Self-awareness and self-esteem are processes that can evolve once an individual has developed a sense of self-concept and is able to make judgments of themselves. The following paragraphs serve to outline the differences between these two terms and how they relate to self-efficacy.

Self-awareness

The mirror-test work of Gallup (1982) suggests that in order to demonstrate self-awareness an individual must be able to recognise itself in a mirror. Although the techniques of the mirror-test are disputed by some authors (for example, Asendorpf, Warkentin, & Baudonnière, 1996), there is a general acceptance that "self-awareness is what makes it possible to become aware of one's own existence" (Gallup, 1982, p. 242). Much work on self-awareness has been informed by the Objective Self-Awareness (OSA) theory proposed by Duval and Wickland in 1972 (Silvia & Shelley Duval, 2001). This OSA theory proposes that "when attention is directed inward and the individual's consciousness is focused on himself, he is the object of his own consciousness - hence 'objective' self-awareness" (Duval & Wicklund, 1972, p. 2). Such self-awareness allows individuals to then make judgements based on the standards that they created for themselves. Simplistically, this can be demonstrated by the presumed self-awareness that occurs during the mirror-test; that red dot should not be on my forehead, as my forehead usually exists without a red dot. In regards to self-efficacy, self-awareness, therefore, enables an individual to make decisions informed by their own standards and enables judgement around future capacity.

Self-esteem

When seeking to establish what contributes to an individual's sense of self-esteem, a further collection of self terms, such as "self-worth, self-competence, self-respect and self-integrity" (Mone, Baker, & Jeffries, 1995, p. 717), are referenced, resulting in what has been termed a "definitional maze" (Smelser, 1989, p. 9) of self-esteem. Reviewing a range of literature on self-esteem, Miller and Moran (2012) offer a definition for educators that suggests that self-esteem comprises "two interrelated components: self-worth and self-confidence" (p. 41). Essentially this definition suggests that self-esteem is based on judgements of what we are, and what we are capable of doing. Importantly for self-efficacy Bandura (1997) argues that perceptions of self-esteem are "concerned with judgements of self-worth" (p.11), which is distinct from judgements of efficacy. He argues that this is possible due to the judgement of worth that an individual places on an activity; it is possible to be highly inefficacious in an activity yet not have any decrease in self-esteem, due to not placing value on that activity.

Self-efficacy and Social Cognitive Theory

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura (1977a) contends that "efficacy expectations are a major determinant of people's choice of activities, how much effort they will expend, and of how long they will sustain effort in dealing with stressful situations" (p. 194). This sizeable assertion contributes to his Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986), that argues that efficacy expectations contribute to a system of "triadic reciprocal causation" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175), or that self-efficacy "mediate[s] the relationship between knowledge and action" (Pajares, 1996, p. 3). Figure 2.1 provides a visual representation of this relationship.

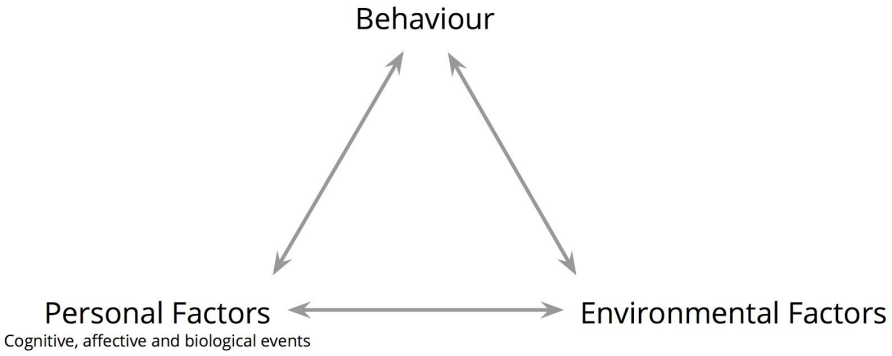


Figure 2.1: Triadic reciprocal nature of human functioning, Social Cognitive Theory model (Pajares, 2002).

For Bandura, Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) balances the overemphasis placed on environmental factors from a behaviourist point of view, as well as limiting the emphasis placed on biological factors and evolutionism (Pajares, 2002). Due to the reciprocal nature proposed by SCT, educators can support students' development in one area, resulting in a positive impact on the other two areas. Self-efficacy is defined by Bandura (1986) as "people's judgements of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391), and has been extensively researched by authors covering a range of domains. Proponents of self-efficacy argue for a broad spectrum of impact, with links postulated between efficacy expectations and: academic achievement (Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1984), career choices (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 2001), academic stress (Zajacova, Lynch, & Espenshade, 2005), amongst many others as diverse as pain tolerance (for example, Litt, 1988). However, Schunk (1991) argues that in itself self-efficacy does not determine performance, and proposes that in an academic setting, motivation and performance are also determined by "skills, outcome expectations, and the perceived value of outcomes" (p. 208).

Components of self-efficacy

The creation and sustaining influences of self-efficacy are considered as broad as the impacts that self-efficacy has on human experience and action. Bandura (1997) suggests

four principal sources of self-efficacy: enactive mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, forms of persuasion, and physiological and affective states; with enactive mastery experiences as the most influential source. Teachers can provide enactive mastery experiences that contribute to a student witnessing their own success and it is this component that is most frequently referenced in much of the literature. Vicarious experiences consists of socially comparative information, such as a one student observing their own performance in relation to others in a test. Forms of persuasion, such as social persuasion, are evidenced in schools as teachers express faith in their students' abilities if they are doubting themselves. Physiological and affective states suggest that students may read their levels of stress in certain situations as such as high stakes testing as "vulnerability to dysfunction" (p. 106). These four sources contribute to most of the literature available on self-efficacy with differing authors arguing for which source is the most influential. I believe when considering these sources of self-efficacy information, it is possible that they are restrictive and limit the emphasis placed on socially constructed knowledge. This is why I argue for an intersection of constructivist and social learning perspectives to consider self-efficacy.

Teacher efficacy and collective efficacy

Teacher efficacy has been defined by different authors as two convergent concepts; it can be seen as the ability to complete allocated tasks (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), or the teacher's belief to influence student outcomes (Wheatley, 2002). Küçükahmet (2000, cited in Çevik, 2017) identifies five factors that influence teachers efficacy: "teacher's personal characteristics, academic competencies, world knowledge, professional attitudes, and professional competence" (p. 339). Efficacy beliefs can be both an individual and a collective construct; if self-efficacy is a goal-oriented construct, collective efficacy assumes that those individuals working towards the same goal are likely to develop a sense of collective efficacy (Bandura, 1997). In a school setting, this can potentially exist across staff members who are striving for improvements in academic outcomes and also between teachers and students who are striving for their individual success. Collective efficacy and teacher efficacy are often considered in conjunction and much research points to a reciprocal relationship between these two concepts.

Self-efficacy as it is conceptualised in this thesis

Based on the above literature and definitions, self-efficacy in this thesis is conceptualised from both a collective and individual position and refers to the perceived capability of individuals and groups to successfully engage in tasks that contribute to desired personal or shared goals.

The ability to evaluate self and make judgements on capacity has been extensively researched by a range of authors. Critique on this research and alternative positions

regarding self-efficacy, collective efficacy and teacher efficacy will be explored further in Chapter Three of this thesis.

Defining culture

A definition of culture

Culture is a word that can mean many different things to different people. Its complexity in part seems to stem from the evolution of the word from historical to more contemporary definitions. Synthesising a range of literature on the various definitions of culture, particularly the work of Raymond Williams (1976), Inglis (2005) offers four common definitions: high culture – the arts, etc.; personal refinement – a cultured person; cultural objects – books, etc.; a whole way of life of a group of people – working class culture, etc. It is the fourth definition, a whole way of life, that will form the basis of my definition of culture. Inglis (2005) then offers up eight aspects that contribute to this definition of culture as a whole way of life:

> 1. Culture comprises the patterns of ideas, values and beliefs common to a particular group of people, their 'characteristic' ways of thinking and feeling.
> 2. The culture of one group differentiates it from other groups, each of which has its 'own' culture.
> 3. Culture contains meanings. Culture is meaningful.
> 4. The ideas, values and beliefs of a group are profoundly implicated in motivating people to act in certain ways.
> 5. The ideas, values and beliefs of a group are embodied in symbols and artefacts.
> 6. Culture is learned.
> 7. Culture is arbitrary.
> 8. Culture and forms of social power are intimately bound up with each other. (p. 7)

This whole way of life refers to an incredibly broad scope of "everyday practices of being, doing, having, saying, seeing, eating, wearing and talking" (Matthewman, 2004, p. ix). It is often the activities that are most taken for granted: foods, forms of transport or even toileting habits, "the most banal externalities of life [that] are expressions of the wider social and cultural order" (Inglis, 2005, p. 3). When faced with various stimuli, the way humans respond is not instinctual but rather influenced by the way they perceive those stimuli based on their enculturated learnings (Inglis, 2005). Niec (1994 cited in Wilson, 2000) gives further substance to the breadth of the definition of culture as "the perception of all human activities, material products, products of thought and imagination, and values as an integrated system which affects the development of the personalities of individuals and social groups" (p. 17).

Based on the above literature and definitions, culture in this thesis is conceptualised as the primarily unseen perceptions and dispositions of individuals; that influence thoughts, behaviours, habits and actions; and that have been established, maintained and enhanced through enculturation in various social groupings.

The context of Aotearoa New Zealand and the evolution of the term culture in this country provides some additional challenge to a definition of culture. The term culture in New Zealand has been frequently used as a "political organising tool" (Wilson, 2000, p. 14) and is often primarily associated with ethnic or racial groupings of European, Māori and a number of minority ethnic groupings. This ethnic assimilation of the term culture can be damaging to the breadth of influence that contributes to the definition of culture supplied above. The term ethnicity in New Zealand is increasingly becoming used as an indicator of some of the associated socio-cultural affiliations that can accompany an individual due to their ethnic origin (Khawaja, Boddington, & Didham, 2000); however, in this thesis, ethnicity is considered as a possible indicator of, rather than the defining factor of culture.

Culture in this thesis - Cultural capital and cultural distance

The purpose of this thesis is primarily to investigate self-efficacy and the impact that cultural capital may have on this in a classroom environment. I am, therefore, also interested in the inverse of this capital, which I am considering as cultural distance. Cultural distance in this sense being how far an individual feels distanced from the prevailing practice in the classroom. In a New Zealand setting, mainstream public education has primarily reflected the nature of its employees: mainstream, middle-class, Eurocentric (Lawton, 1992); and generally caters advantageously to English speaking (Phillips, McNaughton, & MacDonald, 2004), middle-classed students (Thrupp, 2016). Students who experience familiarity with these norms are less likely to experience cultural distance in the classroom. Therefore, based on my review of literature further discussed in Chapter Three, I have identified five components of culture that can contribute to cultural distance from the prevailing norm in New Zealand classrooms: socio-economic background, gender, ethnicity, home language and preparation to engage in the schooling system. In New Zealand, decile is a readily accessible, however somewhat broad indicator of community affluence; I have chosen to use decile as a general indicator of socio-economic background, while recognising the limitation that this is a very surface level indicator. When identifying the cultural distance of research participants, the other four components were established through surveying the initial stages of the fieldwork.

Defining Cultural Capital

Bourdieu's habitus and capital

For Bourdieu, the notion of both habitus and capital was primarily concerned with explaining the reproduction and continuation of society and power relations; this reproduction of social life could occur either knowingly and willingly, unintentionally or beyond the control of those affected (Calhoun, 1993). This reproduction occurs whether or not reproduction is the intent and occurs continuously. Similarly to self-concept, habitus denotes a way of viewing the world based on experiential learning but "decentralises the self, making it opposite to conscious action and will-power" (Skeggs, 2013, p. 83). For Bourdieu, habitus is all-encompassing and can be "understood as a system of lasting, transposable dispositions which, integrating all past experiences, functions at every moment as a matrix of perceptions, appreciations, and actions" (Bourdieu, 1977b, p. 82).

Bourdieu's habitus is not a fixed construct but rather an "open system of dispositions" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 133) that is continually evolving through lived experiences. Calhoun (1993) describes that this lived experience comes primarily from day-to-day events that are met by approval or disapproval, success or failure, reinforcing or subtly modifying their perception; most lived experiences tend to reinforce rather than modify existing constructs. Capital for Bourdieu is the currency that generates and sustains habitus; forms of capital include scholastic, economic and cultural capital (Burke, 2015). For students graduating from school, they must trade this capital for opportunities, such as jobs, and are increasingly finding themselves relying on cultural capital as scholastic, economic and social capital become increasingly similar across individuals (Tomlinson, 2007 cited in Burke, 2015).

Li (2015) describes how habitus explains how individuals with similar lived experiences often share similar social outcomes, due to their attitudes and behaviours being defined by their experience. For Bourdieu (1986), the formation of habitus and the resultant social inertia for children begins at a young age influenced by both parents and education. The "cultural capital previously invested by the family" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 244) acts as a platform from which schools, acting as a "central generative space" (Stahl, 2015, p. 22), construct and reinforce habitus, both directly through teaching, and indirectly through social experience.

Perceptions of what is possible "shape their aspirations according to concrete indices of the accessible and the inaccessible" (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 64). Through both societal learning and formal education, students learn or are sometimes told what is possible for them to achieve. This reinforcement means that schools can become a mechanism that results in the dominant classes reproducing social outcomes; the only requirement is that the system is maintained so that the dominant class only have to "let the system they dominate take its

own course in order to exercise their domination" (Bourdieu, 1977b, p. 190). This system level continuation of social outcomes may provide some insight into those "priority learners . . . who have been identified as historically not experiencing success in the New Zealand school system" (Education Review Office, 2012, p. 4). The Education Review Office (2012) identifies these priority learners as "many Māori and Pacific learners, those from low socio-economic backgrounds and students with special education needs" (p. 4). Kennedy (2015) states that “one of the greatest repercussions of educational inequality is the perpetuation of further disparities across a range of socioeconomic contexts” (p. 171). The reinforced and embedded nature of habitus suggests that educators who are looking to reform the lack of success experienced by some learners, must redress generations of reinforced learning and assimilative practice. When considering habitus in conjunction with self-efficacy, it would appear to create shifts in efficacy, individuals must unlearn deeply held beliefs and reinforced cultural capital to reimagine what is both accessible and possible.

Summary

This chapter has provided background for the key concepts covered in the remainder of this thesis and defined both self-efficacy and culture as they have been conceptualised in this research. In order to provide this background, I have explored the idea of self-concept and habitus as components and antecedents of my two key themes. The chapter also seeks to provide justification for a focus on self-efficacy rather than self-concept due to it being a more future-oriented and malleable concept. In the following chapter, I will review literature related to my research questions and provide both complementary and critical voice to the ideas of self-efficacy and cultural capital.

Chapter Three - Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter seeks to explore the existing literature to address my primary research question:

> How can educational leaders foster an environment that facilitates increased opportunities for teachers and students to develop their self-efficacy in the classroom?

When considering self-efficacy from a socio-cultural perspective, the breadth of factors that can contribute to answering this question is substantial and multifaceted. The socio-cultural environment of the classroom and the cultural practices that operate within that environment cannot be considered in isolation. Students and teachers play a substantial role in the construction and continuation of both the socio-cultural and socio-emotional climate of the classroom. However, educational leaders, Boards of Trustees, parents, communities and policymakers also influence both practice and culture. Therefore, the influences on classroom culture must be considered from a system-wide level, down to individual school practices, through to the microclimate of the relationships between individuals in the classroom, and to the precursors of capital that influence students' ability to engage with school. Due to this thesis being focussed on intraschool educational leadership, the following literature review focuses on fostering the self-efficacy of students and their teachers through deliberate school leadership rather than investigating system-level reform.

In order to investigate my primary research question, I found that I needed to explore four secondary questions that were more concerned with the establishment and continuation of self-efficacy. These questions were:

- In what ways does classroom culture contribute to self-efficacy?
- In what ways does student self-efficacy contribute to teacher efficacy and vice versa?
- How can existing cultural capital advantage or disadvantage learners?
- Is educational practice and potential cultural distance affecting the self-efficacy of students from different cultural backgrounds?

While considering these research questions, I found that a number of similar themes emerged from the literature. I found that I could broadly group these themes into two similar categories which I have chosen to present in two sections. The first section details

the precursors and impacts of cultural capital and self-efficacy, and is primarily in response to the secondary research questions. This section focuses on the efficacy beliefs of students and their teachers, and is presented in chronological order of a student's establishment of capital, then early and schooling experiences. This starts with a discussion of cultural capital and current educational disparities in New Zealand, then moves to a student's preparation to enter school and early school experiences. Classroom practice is then considered from both the student and teacher's perspective, prior to a discussion regarding perceptions of cultural capital by their teachers, including both deficit and agentic thinking.

In the second section of this literature review, the focus shifts to the responses that educational leaders can make to both cultural capital and self-efficacy, with a view to fostering an environment that promotes increases in self-efficacy. This discussion is designed in part to synthesise the findings explored through Section One from the four secondary research questions, and provide a review more closely aligned with the primary research question. This section starts with combatting deficit thinking and promoting both teacher agency and efficacy. The chapter then explores collective efficacy, focussing primarily on collective teacher efficacy rather than collective student efficacy, then moves on to a discussion regarding generalisations of efficacy beliefs. The chapter then concludes with a summary of key findings and themes. Both contributing and contradicting literature has been reviewed and synthesised throughout the chapter to provide a thorough analysis of the topic.

Section One - Precursors and impacts of cultural capital and self-efficacy

Introduction

This section of the literature review focuses on the establishment, reinforcement and modification of efficacy beliefs which are in part influenced by cultural capital. It is envisaged that this section provides a platform from which both cultural capital and self-efficacy can be considered from an educational leader's perspective in Section Two.

Cultural Capital and Educational Disparities

Educational disparities in New Zealand and their relation to self-efficacy

The Ministry of Education (2014) clearly articulates the vision for the education system in New Zealand, focussing on improved social outcomes for all:

> Education increases the range of life choices and opportunities open to New Zealanders. Better educated people are more likely to be healthy, prosperous and satisfied with their lives. Higher educational achievement leads to higher employment rates and higher average income levels, as well as increased productivity and a more competitive economy. The more qualified people are, the more likely they are to be in paid work and to earn more. A range of social indicators are positively associated with higher levels of education, including levels of volunteering and civic engagement. (p. 8)

Despite this premise, New Zealand is still faced with substantial disparities in social, economic and political areas. These disparities are witnessed throughout ethnic groupings, genders, sexual orientations, socioeconomic standings, mental and physical disabilities and geographic locations to name the most frequently referenced. For example, based on data from the June quarter of 2018, despite improvements, a substantial wage gap of 9.2% is still facing New Zealand women (Stats NZ, 2018b); 20% of households hold 70% of the net worth (Stats NZ, 2018c), and disabled people are three times less likely to be in work (Stats NZ, 2018a). Bishop, Berryman, Cavanagh and Teddy (2009) outline that compared to New Zealand Europeans, Māori witness higher levels of: illness, unemployment, lower paid employment, higher levels of poverty and lower educational outcomes. Decades of educational reform have sought to address disparities with a particular focus on Māori achievement but "for the large proportion of Māori students who attend mainstream schools, there has been little if any shift in these disparities since they were first statistically identified over 40 years ago" (Bishop et al., 2009, p. 2). The following paragraphs seek to investigate whether the disparities witnessed in New Zealand are influenced by student and teacher efficacy beliefs, as they operate in a predominantly Eurocentric system.

Research on self-efficacy and cultural capital in New Zealand schools is less abundant than overseas examples; however in a study on goal orientation and self-efficacy, Meissel and

Rubie-Davies (2016) found that self-efficacy levels were linked to achievement in New Zealand European, Māori and Pasifika students. In this study, levels of self-efficacy were found to have a more substantial impact on Māori and Pasifika students than their New Zealand European peers, indicating that for students experiencing the highest levels of societal disparity, self-efficacy was of increased relevance. Meissel and Rubie-Davies go on to draw potential links with self-efficacy levels and teacher expectations, suggesting that teacher expectations can have a more significant impact on Māori and Pasifika students. I believe that it is useful to broaden the focus from that of ethnicity to consider wider implications of cultural capital and potentially cultural distance to explore whether students feel connected or disconnected from their schooling.

Pre-parental establishment of cultural capital and impact on self-efficacy

Inheritance of self-efficacy, nature versus nurture

Whether or not cultural difference inherited through ethnicity plays a role in determining self-efficacy of learners is debated in the literature. Much of the debate focuses around differences in collectivist and individualist cultures, possibly because this is a somewhat easily identifiable trait compared to other cultural differences. In a New Zealand setting, Māori, Pasifika and Asian students are generally considered to be from collectivist backgrounds, while New Zealand European students more often reflect individualist traits (Meissel & Rubie-Davies, 2016). These differences stem from the generalised differences of the perception of self-concept amongst different cultures. In a Western view, the self is generally considered coterminous with the body, which stands in contrast to group, family or collective views of the self, such as some African and Asian views (Triandis, 1989). Considering this difference, it might be possible to assume that the individualistic nature of self-efficacy would be less of a motivating factor for students who come from social groups that place more value on collectivism. This thinking would be in-line with research conducted by Eaton and Dembo (1997) who found that self-efficacy was a far less motivating factor for Asian students.

In order to examine and compare cross-cultural differences, Oettingen (1995) utilises Hofstede's (1980) widely critiqued cultural dimensions: collectivist/individualist, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity/femininity. Oettingen argues that in spite of differences in the dispositions of individuals, for example, those from individualistic compared to collectivist backgrounds, they will still attain a sense of self-efficacy; however, the conduit to the establishment of that self-efficacy might be different. Students from both individualist and collectivist backgrounds will have personal goals; it is however, the nature of these goals that will likely differ. For example, a student from an individualist background may have goals of self-enhancement; and a student from a collectivist background may have goals that contribute to the group's enhancement. This links to

research that self-efficacy is a universal construct despite cross-cultural differences due to ethnicity (Scholz, Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002).

Whether self-efficacy is a heritable trait or the result of lived experience is less debated in the literature; however, some different viewpoints exist. Much of the literature supports Bandura's (1997) view that asserts that self-efficacy stems from lived experiences; however, there are alternative viewpoints that suggest that self-efficacy stems primarily from genetic background. In a study of the self-efficacy of twins, Waaktaar and Torgersen (2013) suggest that up to 75% of self-efficacy information comes from "additive genetic factors" (p. 657); while mitigating this somewhat, stating that when twins are reared together they "may overestimate the effect of genetic influences and underestimate shared environmental influences" (p. 657). This research is grounded in the belief that self-efficacy is not goal-oriented and specific to a scenario, rather the authors consider it to be a more generalised behavioural trait and therefore possible to be genetically inherited. This piece of research was one of the few that I could find that posited the heritability of self-efficacy and I would argue that there is currently not enough evidence available to consider this a focus for educators. Based on the research that I have reviewed, I would suggest that it is possible that the results of this research could be explained through learned experience rather than genetic makeup, as efficacious parents are more likely to model behaviours that promote self-efficacy development in their children. Generalisations of self-efficacy are also widely debated in the literature and I will provide further analysis of this in Section Two of this chapter.

Cultural capital and self-efficacy in initial schooling

By the time a student enters secondary school in New Zealand, they will have had a substantial breadth of socio-cultural influence on their beliefs of efficacy. The influential people in their lives, such as parents, caregivers, siblings, family, friends, and peers, will have helped to mould the way in which they see the world. Community associations, such as church groups, sports teams or friendship groups may have begun to further define values and beliefs. Cultural norms and everyday practices such as school routines, and societal rules and expectations, will start to have become embedded in a student's way of life. The following paragraphs focus on how preparation to enter school, early learning experiences, ongoing schooling and wider socio-cultural influences can impact a student's self-efficacy.

The role of parents and siblings in the establishment of efficacy beliefs

Schunk and Meece (2006) suggest that parents contribute to self-efficacy in a number of ways: encouragement through challenging environments; setting high but attainable goals; being positive role models; providing mastery experiences; and fostering resilience when faced with challenges. This relationship is suggested by Schunk and Miller (2002) to be of a

reciprocal nature, as parents are more likely to be responsive to their offspring when they exhibit curiosity. For young children, high levels of dependence on their parents increases the level of influence that parental involvement has on self-efficacy. It is possible that the experiences that parents provide, that increase self-efficacy in the early stages of life, can influence the future development of self-efficacy regardless of changes in the home environment (Bradley, Caldwell, & Rock, 1988). Capability judgements become more explicit as children develop language; parents provide verbal feedback, encouragement and praise can foster, or in the case of overprotective parents, limit the development of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; van Ingen et al., 2015). In the home environment, siblings provide further opportunities for children to judge their capabilities; this is most pronounced for children with older siblings who are close in age to themselves (Bandura, 1997). Siblings are effectively the first peers that children have who can provide comparative information on levels of efficacy.

The role of cultural capital on initial schooling experiences

Much of the research associated with cultural capital is linked to early years of schooling. I believe this is because students' induction to the schooling system can most clearly illustrate contrasts in inherited cultural capital to the prevailing practice. In reference to self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) asserts that those "students who come well-prepared cognitively and motivationally learn quickly and are adequately served by the prevailing educational practices" (p.175). This preparation to enter school is the result of early experiences and influences from parents, siblings, families and communities and can have a lasting impact on future successes. In a longitudinal study of cultural capital related to literacy in New Zealand schools, Tunmer, Chapman and Prochnow (2006) suggest that the ongoing disadvantage to students is an example of the "Matthew (rich get richer and the poor get poorer) effect" (p. 184). The Matthew effect is difficult to overcome, and despite strategies employed to try and support those who are struggling, students are often left playing catch up (Penno, Wilkinson, & Moore, 2002). For secondary educators, this further amplifies the challenge of improving self-efficacy beliefs as students schooling enculturation will be well embedded by the time they reach secondary school.

When faced with learning complex skills over extended periods of time, students rely on their "cognitive entry behaviours" which utilise their "existing knowledge, skills and strategies" (Tunmer et al., 2006, p. 186). These cognitive entry behaviours result in students being more or less able to access and engage with new information needed to learn new skills. The example given by Tunmer, Chapman and Prochnow (2006) is that of learning to read, and the varied nature of literacy-based skills and experiences which students have when they enter school. Some authors have suggested that the literacy environment of the students' home and preschool years has a substantial influence on the cognitive entry behaviours of students learning to read (Hart & Risley, 2003; Nicholson, 1999). Contributing

links to low literacy levels have been made with: socio-economic background of students, parental formal education and literacy levels, parental efficacy when providing support, and time pressures due to parental work commitments (Tunmer et al., 2006). Tunmer, Chapman and Prochnow go on to define that this preparedness for reading comprehension can be considered as "literate cultural capital" (p. 187), suggesting that this capital had a substantial influence on the students ongoing reading achievement in future years. These indicators include preschool education, socio-economic background, and literacy-based support based on home language, and contribute to the indicators I am utilising to explore cultural distance.

Students who find themselves presented with unfamiliar tasks on their arrival at school may face compounding challenges if their parents are unable to provide appropriate support. A United States study linking parental involvement and cultural capital to identified achievement differences, suggests that parents were most likely to be involved when "parents whose culture and lifestyle were most likely to be congruent with the school's culture" (J. Lee & Bowen, 2006, p. 210). This aligns with Bourdieu's (1977b) expectation of social reproduction and adds further challenge to students already struggling to keep up due to the Matthew effect.

Links between cultural capital and self-efficacy

Cultural capital is likely to influence self-efficacy due to the dispositions that individuals have when faced with new tasks. Continuing the example in the previous paragraph, a student who encounters familiar literacy tasks when they begin school is more likely to have mastery experiences which will reinforce or establish efficacy in reading. Initial successes or difficulties, and the resultant alienation or engagement that a student experiences in school, is likely to have compounding influences on future efficacy levels.

The idea that cultural capital influences self-efficacy, while more obscure, is evident in literature in a range of educational domains; some examples are provided in the following sentences. For example, Hatlevik, Guðmundsdóttir and Loi (2015) suggest that cultural capital is one of the components that leads to digital competence, partly through influences on self-efficacy. Schunk and Mullen (2012) suggest that the dropout rates of students in U.S. high schools are substantially influenced by underachievement caused by low levels of academic motivation. Utilising Bandura's (1986) SCT, Schunk and Mullen propose that students "act in accordance with their beliefs about their capabilities and the expected outcomes of their actions" (p. 220), and suggest that due to SCT there is a reciprocal relationship between cultural capital and self-efficacy. Some authors, for example, Morrow (1999) have suggested that the relationship might have some level of reciprocity to it, and that self-efficacy can help to support increases in social capital in adults, although there is less evidence of this in adolescents. There are however, a number of studies that suggest

that students are able to adapt to the "structure of constraints and opportunities in the course of their educational careers" (Barone, 2006, p. 1052).

Efficacy in the classroom

Within the walls of the classroom, three primary interactions inform efficacy development. The most widely referenced of these is the role of the teacher, influencing the efficacy beliefs of their students. Secondly, there are a number of studies that consider the role that peers have on each others' efficacy beliefs. Finally, the role that the students have on the efficacy beliefs of their teachers appears to be more obscure with less literature to be found referencing this interaction. The extent to which each of these interactions influences the efficacy beliefs of both teachers and students will likely vary depending on both context and prior experiences, and will be further discussed in the following paragraphs.

Teacher efficacy and its contribution to classroom culture and student self-efficacy

In every class, the teacher and students exist in a symbiotic relationship that is in constant flux. Depending on the experience and ability of the teacher, the resulting classroom culture might be more informed by the cohort of the students or by an adaptive, responsive and skilled teacher. Synthesising a range of literature, Shaukat and Iqbal (2012) propose highly efficacious teachers tend to attempt more ideas, are more determined when faced with challenges, are less critical when offering feedback, are more enthusiastic about teaching, and devote more time to their students learning. This would suggest that teacher efficacy is likely to have a significant impact on student self-efficacy and performance. There is a substantial amount of literature that reinforces this assumption and demonstrates that teacher efficacy is likely to influence student self-efficacy (Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988), academic performance (Muijs & Reynolds, 2015), motivation (Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989) and engagement (van Uden, Ritzen, & Pieters, 2013) amongst others.

The importance of the teacher on student outcomes is recognised by many authors; for example, Hattie (2008) asserts that "it is the difference in the teachers that make the difference in student learning" (p. 236). The responsive teacher who can foster efficacy beliefs in their students within the class may also support development outside of the classroom resulting in compounding positive outcomes for the students. Bergin (1987 cited in Bandura, 1997) suggests that students are more likely to engage in supplementary learning if their self-instructional efficacy is high.

The success teachers have in creating an environment that aids efficacy development is in part dependant on the systems of comparison that operate in the class. The judgements that students make on their cognitive capabilities will often stem from either social or self-comparisons, the latter offering benefits for self-efficacy development (Bandura, 1997).

In order to promote an environment that encourages self-comparisons, teachers can offer differentiated and personalised learning to each student and focus on self-improvement. Schunk and Miller (2002) expand on this and suggest five ways in which teachers can promote self-efficacy development in their classrooms: "proximal and specific learning goals, strategy instruction and strategy verbalisation, social models, performance and attributional feedback, and performance-contingent rewards" (p. 41). It has been suggested that complementing an environment of self-comparisons, with collaborative rather than competitive learning modes, can further promote efficacy development (Johnson, 1981). I believe that this is one of the key areas of focus that teachers and leaders need to consider in order to improve the self-efficacy of students. Subtle changes in pedagogy and assessment process that contribute to lessening the focus on peer comparisons are likely to have immediate and positive change for students.

When students successfully complete personalised learning tasks they can benefit from “affective self-reactions” (Bandura, 1997, p. 219) that fulfil and motivate the students to aim for loftier goals. Pajares (1996) suggests that the interpretation of past results will alter both their self-belief and their perceived environment which has a compounding impact on their self-efficacy. As they attain success in goals that they perceive as valuable, they experience personal satisfaction and enjoyment in both physical and intellectual activities (Locke & Latham, 1990; McAuley, Wraith, & Duncan, 1991). While the idea that self-efficacy can help to build further efficacy, the inverse is also true that “inefficacy feeds on itself” (Bandura, 1997, p. 175). This is of particular concern for teachers who are trying to redress disparities due to the Matthew Effect mentioned earlier.

Peer contribution to classroom culture and student self-efficacy

Depending on the nature of the classroom described above, peers can either support or hinder the development of efficacy. The role of peers and their significance on an individual’s learning has in some cases been suggested to be the primary source of learning for students (Biddulph, Biddulph, & Biddulph, 2003). Bandura (1997) identifies that “peers can operate as a potent force” (p. 234) in the establishment and reinforcement of intellectual self-efficacy, and operates through three mediums: comparative information, instructive function and interpersonal affiliations. For secondary educators, this becomes more prevalent, for Bandura goes on to argue that this influence grows more profound as children grow older. This is due to children becoming less dependent on their parents and having more involvement with a wider range of peer groupings. In the early years of secondary school, students are faced with a substantial change from being in the same environment most of the year with one teacher and the same group of peers to having multiple teachers, classrooms and peer groups. The shift from primary school experiences such as: individual attention, mastery-oriented experiences and skill acquisition results in a

lessening of perceptions of general efficacy, to more specific domain-based perceptions of efficacy (Schunk & Miller, 2002).

Of the three mediums above, comparative information operates in much the same way as Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory, as described in Chapter Two, and is both a formal, through teacher appraisal, and informal, through student observation and discussion. Bandura (1997) suggests that "monolithic lines" (p. 234) of education, where students are forced to conform to certain ways of demonstrating knowledge, are more likely to result in students informing their efficacious beliefs through comparative information. The second medium, instructive function, describes the process of both direct tutelage and indirect modelling that occurs in educational settings. Students can gain more efficacy from observing their peers' modelling skills than their teachers due to the closer perception of similarity to their peers than their teacher (Schunk & Hanson, 1985). This modelling can also result in reinforcement or change in beliefs of existing social comparison perceptions. Thirdly, self-efficacy beliefs can influence interpersonal affiliations which can have a reciprocal influence on future efficacy beliefs. Selection of preferred peer affiliations may be influenced by perceptions of efficacy and once established these affiliations may either favourably or negatively influence: "attitudes, achievement standards, sociocognitive skills conducive to intellectual pursuits" (Bandura, 1997, p. 235).

Considering the changing nature of efficacy beliefs from primary to secondary school, combined with students placing more emphasis on the role of their teacher in defining their self-efficacy, I would suggest that students' initial experiences of secondary school may be of heightened importance for their ongoing self-efficacy development. Teachers and leaders may find that focussing their efforts on induction, self-comparisons and early experiences of success will have lasting positive impacts on students' self-efficacy beliefs.

How student self-efficacy influences teacher efficacy

There is some evidence that there is reciprocity to be found in the relationship between teacher and student efficacy beliefs; for example, Anderson Greene and Loewen (1988), Bandura (1997), Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007). Most of the research undertaken however, has focussed on the top down impact of teacher efficacy on student self-efficacy rather than the inverse effect. Bandura's (1986) SCT as described in Chapter Two, specifically the reciprocal triadic nature of SCT, gives some insight as to how the environment created by efficacy beliefs may influence both teacher behaviour and their cognitive process. If the assumption is made for example, that students with high levels of self-efficacy are likely to have higher academic results, a teacher is more likely to believe that their pedagogy is supporting student learning, hence increasing their teacher efficacy. This can occur both within a classroom; for example, teachers who feel they are more able to improve student outcomes may invest more effort in their teaching (Tschannen-Moran &

Hoy, 2001); and throughout the school, for example, low academic results across the school can lower a collective sense of teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

In order to find further evidence of the reciprocal nature of the relationship between student and teacher, I found it necessary to review literature broader than that of specifically self-efficacy. One such example is that of Skinner and Belmont (1993) who investigate the reciprocal nature of motivation in the classroom, and in a New Zealand context, the concept of ako (Pere, 1982) promotes reciprocal learning relationships. Skinner and Belmont (1993) found that "positive student engagement elicits positive teacher behaviours" (p. 578) which results in a compounding cycle of engagement and disengagement. The authors stress the importance of early intervention as they suggest that if left to run their own course, teachers are likely to magnify initial levels of engagement both positive and negative. The reciprocal nature of teaching and learning through the concept of ako is ubiquitous in New Zealand educational policy documents, for example, Ka Hikitia (Ministry of Education, 2013). The concept of ako is fundamental to Māori pedagogy and considers that teaching and learning are the same process (Hemara, 2000). I would suggest that in an environment in which ako was fostered, student self-efficacy and teacher efficacy may develop concurrently.

It is possible that the relationship between higher student self-efficacy and teacher efficacy might be due to increases in positive perceptions of student ability. It is suggested by van Uden, Ritzen and Pieters (2013) that more efficacious teachers have a more optimistic outlook on their teaching, and are therefore, more likely to view student engagement positively than their less efficacious peers. It would seem that more research into the bottom-up influence of self-efficacy on teacher efficacy might provide some clarity as to whether a reciprocal relationship exists.

Two additional aspects that may contribute to efficacy beliefs in the classroom

Tall poppy syndrome

In a New Zealand context, some conclusions have been made that the tall poppy syndrome adds an extra layer of confusion when trying to measure the self-efficacy of students. It is suggested by Meissel and Rubie-Davies (2016), that some of the data indicating low self-efficacy of both New Zealand European and also Māori students, is partly skewed by this phenomenon. It would seem that the fear of being a seen as a tall poppy amongst peers is enough to either lessen how much a student is willing to confess to having high self-efficacy, or concerningly for educators, limit the development of self-efficacy. Australian research by Burnett and Mandel (2010) indicates that older students prefer effort rather than ability related feedback, possibly to lessen the likelihood of being a tall poppy in the class. While research into a tall poppy syndrome seems to be an emergent and quite

limited field, the colloquial use of the term is likely to be familiar to many New Zealanders and potentially warrants further consideration in regard to self-efficacy.

Big Fish Little Pond Effect

The big-fish-little-pond effect (BFLPE) as posed by Marsh (1987) may have some bearing on student perceptions of efficacy. This effect suggests that student's academic self-concept is influenced by their perception of their peers, and that this varies on the peer group in which the student exists. The BFLPE suggests that it is more beneficial for a student to be a big fish in a little pond, believing themselves to have higher levels of capability than their peers. Little fish in big ponds are likely to perceive themselves as less able than their peers which may result in reinforcement of beliefs of inefficacy and a negative self-fulfilling cycle. Roy, Guay and Valois (2015) suggest that to mitigate the effects of BFLPE, teachers can employ differentiated support to students providing teaching that matching the needs of the learners. They found that for low achieving students the implications of differentiated teaching can have a positive effect on academic outcomes. Linking this with the previously mentioned research regarding increases in student self-efficacy due to personalised learning (Schunk & Miller, 2002), suggests that for low achieving students, differentiated instruction can have a compounding and positive influence on their academic outcomes.

Precursors and impacts of cultural capital and self-efficacy summary

Educational disparities are one of the components of a broad spectrum of disparities facing a number of minority groups both in New Zealand and globally. Research in particular from Meissel and Rubie-Davies (2016) indicates that there is some difference in self-efficacy beliefs in New Zealand's most commonly referenced ethnic groups. I am looking to expand on the findings of this research and consider a broader umbrella of culture than just that of ethnicity. I am particularly interested in whether cultural capital has an impact on whether a student feels connected or disconnected from their schooling. While there is some argument made, for example by Waaktaar and Torgersen (2013), that self-efficacy stems from genetic background, it is my position that self-efficacy is a learned and subjective construct. My argument continues that this subjective process is formed through social interactions and is initially heavily influenced by parents, siblings, peers and teachers. Learned cultural dispositions then become one of the key items of capital that a student can trade or utilise to access resource through their schooling journey and either reinforce or erode self-efficacy.

There is limited research specifically linking cultural capital to self-efficacy; however, I would argue that Bandura's (1986) SCT does acknowledge, at least in part, the contribution of culture to cognitive process. One of the aims of this research project is to therefore explore the intersection of these two key concepts. I have reviewed and

considered numerous examples of research that promote high levels of self-efficacy in teachers and I could not find any evidence that high levels of teacher efficacy contribute to diminished outcomes for students. The benefits of high levels of teacher efficacy are broad, and I would assert that a focus on improving teacher efficacy is of considerable importance to educational leaders. While not specifically oriented towards teacher efficacy, I have found numerous examples of literature emphasising the role of social factors that contribute to learning. In the classroom, fostering relationships that contribute positively to efficacy beliefs will benefit both teachers and students. There is limited research postulating a reciprocal relationship of the efficacy beliefs of students on their teachers. However, I would argue that the research conducted by Schunk and Miller (2002), that proposes a reciprocal relationship between parent and child efficacy beliefs, provides a platform from which this can be further investigated.

Section Two - Educational leadership responses to cultural capital and self-efficacy

Introduction

Section One of this Chapter focussed on the establishment, continuation and embedding of cultural capital and self-efficacy. The focus of this section shifts to literature related to educational leaders' responses to both these concepts and poses ways in which positive shifts can be made for students. There are two main concepts presented in this section, firstly I have provided a discussion on deficit thinking, agency and self-efficacy. I suggest that this is of utmost importance for educational leaders seeking to improve self-efficacy in diverse student bodies. Secondly, I have reviewed recent literature that investigates collective teacher efficacy and generalisations of efficacy. Collective teacher efficacy has been recently promoted as having a substantial effect size on improving student outcomes and I have, therefore, included how this relates to this thesis. There is also some voice in literature, both recent and historical suggesting that self-efficacy should be considered as a more generalised behavioural trait, rather than from a goal-oriented and therefore domain-specific perspective. I have included a review of this literature as it will likely impact the appropriateness and effectiveness of certain leadership responses.

Deficit thinking, agency and self-efficacy

As outlined in Section One despite system-wide attempts to address educational disparities, widespread differences in both opportunities and outcomes exist for students in New Zealand. In the following paragraphs, I will propose that potentially transformational leadership is necessary to deliver systemic change to address inequality. In the literature that I have reviewed, I believe that two recurring ideas offer insight into how this can be addressed to improve self-efficacy of students and teachers. The first of these is countering deficit thinking, the second being removing the denial of difference or diversity. For educational leaders this becomes a complex problem as Macias (2013) argues that "a perpetual focus on deficits and gaps has caused us to expect deficiency" (p. 18).

Deficit thinking due to perceptions of cultural capital

The disparities that exist in academic outcomes for students with varying capital can contribute to preconceptions of aptitude and ability; this is most often negatively represented as deficit thinking. Deficit thinking is not a new occurrence; Menchaca (1997) suggests that the origins of educational deficit thinking stem from the 1600s a time when the first African slaves were arriving in British North America and people of colour were treated as "biologically or culturally inferior to Caucasians" (p. 13). Neither is deficit thinking limited to indigenous peoples, with more traction being gained by other marginalised student groups "based on race, class, gender, language status and sexual orientation" (Valencia, 2010, p. 138). Deficit thinking is "typically unintentional" (Martin, Smith, & Williams, 2018, p. 87), with students being described as "lacking the academic, cultural and

moral resources necessary to succeed in what is presumed to be a fair and open society" (Smit, 2012, p. 370).

In order to combat deficit thinking, teachers and educational leaders are faced with overcoming sometimes profoundly held personal and professional beliefs. Rejection of deficit thinking and the fostering of agentic thinking is fundamental to the success of historically marginalised groups in New Zealand (Bishop et al., 2009). Bishop et al. (2009) suggest that this repositioning allows teachers to use the power of their own agency to implement change for those students who need it most. In effect agentic thinking is seeking to increase teacher efficacy, as according to Bandura (1997) "efficacy constitute[s] the key factor of human agency" (p. 3). One of the most referenced and successful programmes in New Zealand seeking to improve teacher practice and agency is that of Te Kotahitanga (Bishop, Berryman, Wearmouth, Peter, & Clapham, 2012). Te Kotahitanga seeks to support "teachers to implement a culturally responsive, relationship-based pedagogy" in order to support Māori students in mainstream schools (Bishop et al., 2012, p. 695). Focussing on supporting teachers to have more positive and productive relationships with their students, the Te Kotahitanga Effective Teaching Profile (Bishop & Berryman, 2009) promotes agentic thinking that all students can achieve no matter what their circumstances are. The importance of leadership is to foster teacher efficacy, which is outlined by Meyer et al. (2010) to be central to the success of Te Kotahitanga.

Denial of difference

A complicating factor when it comes to addressing established preconceptions of the ability of students based on their cultural capital is the denial of recognition of difference. This denial was observed by Turner, Rubie-Davies and Webber (2015) when investigating teacher expectations and the achievement gap in New Zealand, as "denial of ethnicity" (p. 65). Teachers can feel uncomfortable when confronted with race-based discussions and can then avoid the topic for fear of being misconstrued as racist (Howard & del Rosario, 2000). Howard and del Rosario (2000) go on to suggest teachers who are "colorblind or assimilationist" and fail to acknowledge the capital that students bring to the classroom commit "one of the most ardent forms of instructional racism" (p.132). Knowledge created in these classrooms becomes "an objective phenomenon that does not have a bearing on social construction related to different racial or cultural contexts" (Howard & del Rosario, 2000, p. 133). Turner, Rubie-Davies and Webber (2015) suggest that the reluctance of teachers to discuss these challenging issues may result in resistance to engage with initiatives designed to promote Māori achievement, such as Te Kotahitanga.

Combatting deficit thinking - A strengths-based approach to improve teacher efficacy

An educational leadership approach to redress educational disparities and promote social justice from a strength and success-based position is proposed by Santamaría and

Santamaría (2013) as Applied Critical Leadership. Applied Critical Leadership argues for empowering individuals within the schools' community by recognising the unique strengths that leaders have due to their own identity in seeing alternative positions. This reconceptualisation of leadership asserts that "diverse identities and experiences are viewed *as commodities rather than liabilities*" (Santamaría & Santamaría, 2013, p. 9, emphasis in original). Regarding outcomes for teachers and students, the differences in existing cultural capital are irrelevant; what is crucial is the agentic thinking that comes from accepting all existing capital as positive and responding with strengths-based strategies. Based on both the literature and the findings presented in Chapter Five I believe that increasing agentic thinking will be made possible by educational leaders implementing strategies to increase teachers' efficacy; fostering the belief they can support all their students because of their cultural capital, rather than in spite of it.

A number of studies strongly advocate for a focus on teacher efficacy to improve outcomes for students and teachers. For example, research undertaken by Coladarci (1992) suggests that teacher efficacy and the role that educational leaders play in developing that efficacy is secondary only to class size in terms of promoting a commitment to teaching amongst staff. For teachers, the breadth of influence on their efficacy beliefs is broad: they will be teaching multiple classes with a range of diverse students, will likely be part of some collective staff groups, partake in professional development programmes, and be supported by a number of school leaders. It is suggested by Coladarci (1992) that leaders can engender increases in teacher efficacy by promoting positive "instructional leadership, school advocacy, decision making, and relations with students and staff" (p.333). Through these methods, the role of educational leaders is to build a strong sense of purpose and a belief in both individual and collective ability to overcome obstacles (Bandura, 1997).

For teachers who are newly qualified or returning to teaching from an extended absence, a number of studies suggest that a focus on improving teacher efficacy is of particular importance. For example, the significance of the experience in both preservice and the early years of teaching has been postulated to have an indelible influence on the efficacy beliefs of teachers (Hoy & Spero, 2005). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) reinforce this view and suggest that efficacy beliefs are most pliable in early years of learning; therefore, the cumulative effects of efficacy reinforcement can result in stayed beliefs that can be challenging to modify. For educational leaders seeking to promote teacher efficacy in their schools, I would suggest that the importance of induction and mentoring programmes for new teachers is of significant importance.

Collective teacher efficacy and generalisations of efficacy

As briefly mentioned earlier in this chapter and in Chapter Two, the concept of collective teacher efficacy, and arguments for a generalised view on self-efficacy, will have an impact

on which strategies educational leaders will find most effective to improve efficacy beliefs in their schools. Both concepts have a breadth of literature available in both support and opposition, and in the following paragraphs I will provide a summary of this and how each relates to this thesis.

Collective teacher efficacy

Secondary teachers operate in an environment that requires collaboration and collectivism to ensure student success; most students will have multiple teachers for each year level they complete and therefore benefit from increases in collective responsibility. Combining the concepts of both student self-efficacy and teacher efficacy results in the organisational concept of collective efficacy. Teachers within a school can have a sense of collective efficacy, as can a group of students. Collective efficacy according to Bandura (1997) is a goal dependent construct and would thus result only if teachers and students are striving for the same common goal; for example, student academic success, or if a group of students are working on a collaborative project. Collective efficacy is finding increased traction in literature as a powerful component in determining: organisational trust, staff and student engagement, school improvements and longevity of staff remaining in the profession (Çevik, 2017; Gray & Summers, 2016). Recent research presented by Hattie (2015) suggests that collective teacher efficacy has an effect size of d=1.57 on student achievement; this effect size is up to three times that of more commonly referenced strategies, such as scaffolding and classroom management.

The impact of collective efficacy on student outcomes

It has been suggested that collective efficacy is either related to, or the antecedent of collective responsibility in research completed by Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001); and by Guskey (1998) as merely the tense in which each phrase is used. Collective responsibility for student outcomes, both collective and individual, organisational and personal, is likely to result in increased engagement from students and higher levels of learning (V. E. Lee & Smith, 1996). There is recent research that has been conducted in the United States that suggests that a sense of collective efficacy may have links to smaller achievement gaps for students of Black and White backgrounds (Goddard, Skrla, & Salloum, 2017). The impact that educational leaders have on a sense of collective efficacy can, therefore, have a substantial impact on student outcomes and staff performance and satisfaction. Educational leaders can more effectively promote educational reform and innovation, and ease the burden on teachers if high levels of efficacy exist in staff. Teachers are reluctant to engage with such reform or innovation if there is a perception of risk (Le Fevre, 2014), and are more likely to be prepared and willing to engage if educational leaders have fostered an environment of collective efficacy in staff (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008).

Fostering collective efficacy

I would suggest that the sizeable effect size postulated by Hattie (2015), combined with the increasing volume of supporting research, results in collective teacher efficacy becoming an inescapable concept that educational leaders will be obligated to engage with. However, given the breadth of influence and potentially enduring nature of enculturated efficacy beliefs, the challenge for educational leaders is to find strategies that can foster a sense of collective efficacy. Goddard, Skrla and Salloum (2017) suggest that leaders can foster a sense of collective efficacy in two ways, firstly by facilitating collaboration and creating opportunities for peer observation, and secondly by maintaining a constant desire for instructional improvement. Critically for peer observations, their findings suggested that observing other teachers who were role modelling with actual students was far more likely to engender a sense of collective efficacy. These observations would likely contribute to a sense of efficacy by providing vicarious experiences for the teachers involved. Based on Bandura's (1997) work, it is likely that enactive mastery experiences, such as teachers successfully implementing proven strategies; forms of persuasion, such as networking experiences with other high performing schools or teachers; and supporting affective states, such as providing staff support to deal with stress, will also contribute to increasing collective efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004).

Intragroup differences of collective efficacy

When considering collective efficacy, leaders must be mindful that all members of a group do not necessarily share the same perception of efficacy (Hipp, 2016). Bandura (1997) suggests that collective efficacy is "best characterized by a representative value for the beliefs of its members and the degree of variability or consensus around that central belief" (p. 479). He goes on to state that in an educational context, teachers face different challenges based on the nature of the students that they teach, and this will result in differing perspectives on collective efficacy and is likely to be domain-specific. It is possible that individuals might have high levels of personal efficacy which may not translate to high levels of collective efficacy. This is due to the effectiveness of being able to work with other members of the group (Bandura, 2000), and therefore differs from personal efficacy constructs.

Leading change in schools, the impact of transformational leadership on collective efficacy

There seems to be somewhat contradictory evidence to be found in various research that transformational leadership can have a positive or negative effect on collective teacher efficacy. In research conducted by Ninković and Knežević Florić (2016), transformational leadership is suggested to have a positive influence on collective teacher efficacy; particularly, two of the behaviours of transformational leadership identified by Leithwood and Sun (2012), setting direction and developing people. This is somewhat contrary to the position of Prelli (2016) who presents research that suggests that transformational

leadership behaviours are likely to have a negative correlation to collective teacher efficacy, if existing levels of efficacy are high. Prelli goes on to suggest that the behaviours and actions of leaders must relate to the existing level of efficacy in the various teams found in schools. In the case of low collective efficacy levels, transformational leadership behaviours and actions, such as "modeling, creating norms to promote culture, working with the school community to determine and steward a common vision, and provide support for all staff" (Prelli, 2016, p. 178) can improve collective efficacy. Based on this research it would seem that a leader looking to make a change in efficacious teams is likely to find increased resistance from teachers and will need to proceed with increased caution.

Collective leadership efficacy

Teams of leaders similarly to teachers will form beliefs about their collective efficacy, in research conducted by Leithwood and Jantzi (2008), it is suggested that a sense of collective efficacy rather than individual efficacy amongst leaders is more likely to impact student learning positively. It has been suggested by Chen and Bliese (2002) that organisational conditions are likely to have a significant effect on this collective efficacy, which seems to be reinforced by the work of Leithwood and Jantzi. Increases in collective leadership efficacy are likely if the members of the team believe that they are collectively efficient and effective in working towards shared goals. Supporting leadership team development is a substantial topic in itself and I believe beyond the scope of this thesis; however, the work of Belbin (2010) on individual roles in teams, Lencioni's (2010) work on team dysfunction and Sheard and Kakabadse's (2004) transformation process for teams, provide a useful platform for further investigation into this topic.

Generalisations of efficacy, are self-efficacy and collective efficacy beliefs transferrable?

Self-efficacy is predominantly considered in the literature as domain-specific (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996); however, there is some evidence that suggests that increases in self-efficacy in one area can influence efficacy perceptions in other domains (Schunk & Miller, 2002). For Bandura (1997), transferal of efficacy will occur in situations similar to those in which efficacy already exists. For other authors though, self-efficacy is a much more general construct and far more situationally transferrable (Grether, Sowislo, & Wiese, 2018). Judge, Erez and Bono (1998) promote the concept of generalised self-efficacy, which they define as an "individuals' perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations" (p. 170) and is, therefore, not contextually oriented. The research completed by Chen, Gully and Eden (2001) suggests that general self-efficacy is an indicator of both motivation and performance in a wide variety of situations. This research was conducted in workplace environments with adult participants and may, therefore, be somewhat reinforced by the breadth of situational awareness that had been accumulated as a result of wider experience of "diverse life domains" (Grether et al., 2018, p. 132), and may be more pertinent for teachers than their students.

If collective efficacy was considered as a more general construct, such as Chen, Gully and Eden (2001) propose for self-efficacy, then it would determine that collective efficacy was also less domain-specific and more transferable. This would have implications for the strategies that would be useful, and perhaps the ability of educational leaders to foster a sense of collective efficacy. Chen, Gully and Eden suggest that general self-efficacy is far more resistant to "ephemeral influences" (p. 63) than specific self-efficacy. I would suggest, therefore, that if collective efficacy is the result of aggregated previous experience, as is suggested for general self-efficacy, both teachers and educational leaders would wield far less immediate influence over their ability to improve perceptions of collective efficacy.

Whether or not efficacy beliefs are generalised and transferable seems to be poised for further research. While argued emphatically by domain-specific authors and generalised authors alike, it seems that currently, educational leaders will need to cope with the ambiguity of whether efficacy is generalised and adjust their strategies accordingly. I believe that improving domain efficacy is likely to be beneficial to collective teacher efficacy regardless of whether the efficacy beliefs become transferable across domains for the individual. However, educational leaders need to be aware of the differences that are likely to exist across different teams, despite the possibility of individuals being in a range of teams. Individual efficacy does not necessarily result in collective efficacy, nor does collective efficacy necessarily promote individual efficacy. In this situation, the strength of the leader is in identifying whether it is more beneficial to promote a sense of individual or collective efficacy and employing appropriate transformational leadership strategies.

Educational leadership responses to cultural capital and self-efficacy summary

Continuing from Section One, this section has focussed on leadership interventions that are likely to support increases in self-efficacy in students and teachers. I believe that deficit thinking is potentially one of the most destructive processes that can undermine cultural capital and diminish self-efficacy. As described by Martin, Smith and Williams (2018), I would suggest the typically unintentional nature of deficit thinking is of particular concern. Teachers are unlikely to realise that they are operating in a deficit mindset and will continue to do so unless something makes them change their practice. Combining deficit thinking with the denial of difference is likely to result in stayed beliefs that are difficult to modify. In order to shift thinking from a deficit to agentic position, I have argued that teachers and leaders must adopt a strengths-based educational approach. Increasing teacher efficacy is one of the strategies that can be employed to support this. By fostering teacher efficacy, leaders will enable teachers to believe that they have the capacity to support a wider audience of students in their classes. I would argue that critical to a strengths-based

mindset is that teachers believe that they can support students because of their cultural capital, rather than in spite of it.

I would argue that increases in individual teacher efficacy are then likely to contribute to the broader concept of collective efficacy. Research indicates, particularly that completed recently by Hattie (2015), that collective efficacy has a substantial impact on student academic success. Aligned with the work of Bandura (1997), I perceive collective efficacy is a goal-oriented construct. For this reason, I believe that to foster collective efficacy, educational leaders must first clearly articulate the goals that teachers are working towards collectively. Research indicates that leaders must step lightly when considering transformational change to improve collective efficacy as their efforts may be met with resistance and be detrimental to efficacious teams. They also need to be aware of differences in individual perceptions of collective efficacy and consider that not all members will hold the same beliefs regarding the organisation's efficacy. Leaders must differentiate their support to ensure that the needs of individual teachers are met, and an overall sense of collective efficacy is fostered.

Finally, whether efficacy beliefs are domain-specific or generalisable is debated in the literature I have reviewed. There is no evidence to be found that self-efficacy beliefs are not domain-specific; however, there is some evidence to be found that suggests self-efficacy is not generalisable. While I would tend towards a domain-specific orientation, there does seem to be convincing arguments for both positions. I would suggest that if educational leaders start with a domain-specific approach to fostering self-efficacy the impact they make will still be positive even if self-efficacy is found to be more of a general construct.

Summary

This chapter has sought to explore literature that contributes to my research questions and to discover themes and patterns across these questions. I have provided evidence of both contributing and contradictory research to all of the research questions to ensure that as many arguments both for and against each topic were considered. The importance of increasing self-efficacy for all students and in particular Māori and Pasifika may help to address some of the educational disparities currently facing our learners in New Zealand. It would seem likely that a reciprocal relationship exists across efficacy beliefs in the school and that students, teachers and leaders are continually contributing to each other's individual and collective efficacy beliefs. The challenge for educational leaders is recognising and responding to the changing demands of their teachers and students, and provide leadership responses appropriate to foster increases in efficacy beliefs. The following chapter sets out the research methods and methodology utilised to conduct this

research project to explore my primary research question; how can educational leaders foster an environment that facilitates increased opportunities for teachers and students to develop their self-efficacy in the classroom?

Chapter Four - Research Methodology and Methods

Introduction

This chapter begins with a discussion of methodological approaches appropriate to investigate my research aims. A blended naturalistic approach is outlined and justified based on a pragmatic research position. The multiple data collection methods chosen including surveying, observing and interviewing are then described, prior to an outline and exemplification of the selected analysis procedures. The implications of both the methodology and methods are then considered and critiqued from an ethical position. The chapter concludes with the associated cultural considerations taken into account during this research project.

Methodological approach

Ontology and epistemology

At the outset of my thinking regarding self-efficacy, and from the ideation phase of this research project, I discovered that thinking about socio-cultural education phenomena made me question my beliefs about knowledge and the nature of reality. This led me down a path of philosophical reflection, exploring both ontology and epistemology. Whether or not reality can be quantifiably measured, or is rather qualitatively perceived, has vexed both materialist and idealist philosophers, primarily due to the rise of the "mechanical worldview of modern science" (Biesta & Burbules, 2004, p. 19). Modern science and the experimental method brought with it a desire to create absolute truths, which resulted in the popularising of the positivist position that reality must be objective, both observable and measurable. The quest for measurable certainties resulted in human experience, imagination and emotion, becoming "inadequate methods of attaining knowledge" (Bleazby, 2013, p. 10). Researchers seeking to provide substance to the reality constructed in the human mind proposed alternative positions resulting in the paradigm wars of the 1970s and 1980s (Gage, 1989).

In an effort to define multiple interpretations of reality, a range of epistemological perspectives or "worldviews" (Creswell, 2013, p. 5) have been proposed, and have since been both vehemently defended and refuted. The positioning of researchers in both the educational field and beyond ranges from positivist, through to post-positivist, interpretive, constructivist, critical and eventually postmodernist (Merriam, 2009). Each of these paradigms interprets reality differently and positions the researcher somewhere along a continuum that ranges from objective to subjective. Dancy (1991) proposed that the role of modern philosophers is to find answers and truth to these effectively non-compatible positions. This is a substantially contrasting position to that of Quine, who argued for a

more pragmatic and naturalistic approach (Morris, 2015) that refuted two diametrically opposed realities.

Research paradigms

Far before the rise of the paradigm wars that continued through to the 2000s (Wellington, 2015), Dewey amongst other philosophers, proposed a pragmatic position that suggested reality be considered from a transactional nature (Biesta & Burbules, 2004). In proposing pragmatism, Dewey was responding to the inability to reconcile modern science with "common sense", stating of the former that it "has stripped the world of the qualities which made it beautiful and congenial to men [*sic*]" (Biesta & Burbules, 2004, p. 17). Critically Dewey was seeking to undo the problems created by various interpretations of reality that arose in an effort to provide certainties of knowledge.

This pragmatic position asserts that reality is created at the intersection, or transaction, of the mind (subjective) and matter (objective). Dewey (1929, cited in Biesta & Burbules, 2004) describes this transactional framework, stating that "causes become means and effects become consequences, and thereby things [have] meaning" (p. 47). Knowledge is, therefore, an experiential process, that requires a process of action between the individual and the environment. The resultant knowledge is constantly evolving, as it becomes "contextual, that the structure of the context is determined by the local interactions at that time and place, and that these are always transitory" (Garrison, 1994, p. 13). From this position, Merriam (2009) describes that the creation of knowledge is "socially constructed; that is, there is no single, observable reality" (p. 8). A social construction of reality is further defined by Creswell (2013) who states that the lives of individuals are "formed through interaction with others (hence social constructivism) and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives" (p 21).

Self-efficacy operates primarily as an introspective mental process, but as outlined in the previous chapter, self-efficacy cannot exist without historical action with the material world. It is my belief, therefore, that self-efficacy does not reside strictly in the subjective realm, nor does it reside in the objective realm; it occurs at the transaction of these two realities. Self-efficacy is somewhat observable, measurable and relational, but is also highly individualistic and dependent on a broad range of often invisible and immeasurable factors. Values and beliefs that remain predominantly unseen were expected to be present in research participants. However, it is presumed there is some level of quantifiability and transferability across individuals when considering consistent external inputs. A pragmatic research approach allows for exploration of self-efficacy from a practical and balanced position.

Naturalistic research - A blended approach

While some authors consider research paradigms to be polar and incompatible opposites, others are more flexible in their approach and application of methods. Applying a binary approach to educational research is considered by a range of authors (Hammersley, 1995; Wellington, 2015), to limit the ability of the researcher to access an adequate range of data collection methods. Both Salkind (2010) and Wellington (2015) describe an approach that allows for a mix of paradigms as naturalistic research, allowing the researcher to access a broader range of data collection methods, both subjective and objective. A naturalistic research approach is considered appropriate to a pragmatic research paradigm, as it allows for the researcher to experience the "transaction of organism and the environment" (Biesta & Burbules, 2004, p. 51). Naturalistic research allows the researcher to be present in the environment being researched, with the participants either aware or unaware of the presence of the researcher. This naturalistic approach, therefore, enables the researcher to assume a pragmatic position being immersed and experiencing the world of the participants and likely evolving with it during the course of the research. It involves mostly qualitative research methods, while allowing a blend with quantitative methods. No manipulation of the environment is intended through naturalistic research, although the presence of the researcher will have some influence in a classroom environment.

Observation is a key component of naturalistic research and is, therefore, suited to examining behavioural interactions in and amongst research participants. Being immersed and experiencing the environment being researched "is a means of penetrating continually further into the heart of nature" (Dewey, 1925, p. 5) and allows the researcher to understand reality from the perspective of the participants. While it was not realistic to conduct an ethnographic investigation due to time constraints, utilising a pragmatic and naturalistic approach I have positioned the observations through an ethnographic lens. I conducted the observations from inside the classroom and attempted to remain as impartial as possible while witnessing the interactions of the participants from differing perspectives. Suitably for the purposes of this research, a naturalistic approach allows for some organic evolution of the observation process and data collection. The evolutionary component of naturalistic research allows for the pragmatic assumption that reality is both "dynamic and self-evolving" (Dewey, 1903 cited in Biesta & Burbules, 2004, p. 52); the reality, in this case, being the unique and continually evolving socio-cultural climate of the classroom.

Complicating the decision to undertake naturalistic research, is the concern regarding transferability to other situations. This is because naturalistic research can be considered unique to a particular context, which results in questions regarding the worthiness and validity of the data. It is suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2017) that providing this transferability is not the role of the researcher; rather it

is important to provide clear data and transparency of collection techniques, so that the reader can choose whether or not the data is transferable.

Research methods and sampling

Three research methods were chosen to conduct a naturalistic case study. Multiple methods were selected to enable a thorough exploration at a micro level, while encouraging some level of transferability on a macro level. Initially, two schools were selected to participate in this research project, one a decile three school (school LD), the other a decile seven school (school HD), both are co-educational schools in the Auckland region. School LD contributed two teacher and three student participants to the data presented, while school HD contributed three teacher and five student participants. These schools were initially selected based on their broad ethnic diversity, similar to my own school. This allowed for generalised comparisons of data from students of differing socio-economic backgrounds. One case study class was chosen from each school and was limited to junior classes only. Junior classes were chosen to allow me to observe the same group of students in multiple environments. A minimum of two teachers were selected for each case study class.

Due to a limited number of participants volunteering for the project in the two case study schools, the surveying results were quite narrow. To complement this data, I chose to conduct the survey component at my own school in an anonymous format. This school is a decile seven, co-educational school in the Auckland region. This school contributed 47 student responses and 14 teacher responses. It was decided to collect this data from students over the age of 16 years only, as this enabled them to give their own consent to participate. This sampling was chosen to allow for some level of transferability while maintaining a narrow scope suitable for a master's thesis.

Surveying

Initially, research participants were invited to complete a survey to ascertain an indication of their cultural capital and provide a summary of their self-efficacy. Research participants were then separated into three primary groups: teachers, focus students and periphery students. The intent was to then select focus students of varying levels of self-efficacy; this was not possible due to the limited number of student participants. Six focus students were chosen from the eight student participants. Surveying can be criticised for providing shallow data, but when used in this manner, it can be useful for rapidly attaining some base data, that allows for further insight into the topic (Wellington, 2015).

Observing

Observations of the participants were then conducted. These observations were conducted from an ethnographic lens, aiming to identify and categorise behavioural interactions

between the participants. These interactions were considered to be either reinforcing, supporting or reducing the development of self-efficacy in participants. From this point, the participants contributed to the research in differing ways. The observations were centred on focus students and their interactions with the teachers and periphery students.

Observations can be conducted from various positions, each having differing impacts on the data being collected. An observer will be positioned at some point between either participant or an unseen observer (Wellington, 2015). Positioned as a participant, the observer is likely to impart considerable impact on the environment being observed; while an unseen observer is able to impart a neutral impact on participants. Neutral impact would be desirable, but would be difficult to achieve, unless historical data was collected and viewed from an observational position. For this research project, occupying a position of an unseen observer was considered to offer little benefit, when compared to the difficulties faced collecting data. The observations were, therefore, completed placing the researcher in the environment, while trying to maintain as much neutrality as possible.

Interviewing

Both the teacher participants and some of the focus students were then interviewed to allow further explorations from the "interviewee's point of view" (Bryman, 2015, p. 470). The interviews were based around questions that sought to provide clarity on the "thoughts, values, prejudices, perceptions, views, feelings and perspectives" (Wellington, 2015, p. 137) of the participants. The interviews were conducted as semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews were chosen to allow for a more fluid approach to the interview and to allow the participant to tell their story. Telling stories is a process that allows participants to make meaning of their experiences and detail what is important to them (Seidman, 2013). Interviewing was completed at the conclusion of surveying and observations, to allow for some level of familiarity with the research and hopefully encourage participants to feel more relaxed to discuss their stories freely.

Data collection and analysis

Initial Survey

All participants in the research project were requested to complete the initial survey (Appendix B). It was necessary to survey all participants to allow for comparative analysis of self-efficacy and therefore select the focus students. The survey was made up of two components: the first seeking an indication of cultural capital, the second a comparative level of self-efficacy.

Based on their responses, student and teacher participants were then categorised using two grouping methods: the first was an indication of cultural capital, the second was perceived self-efficacy. All participants were considered as having a high level of cultural

capital, but for this research, the important factor was, did that cultural capital align with the culture that they were faced with at school? Participants were, therefore, classified into three groups, indicating how distant their cultural capital may place them from the prevailing Eurocentric classroom culture. The resultant cultural distance groupings applied were: low cultural distance (LCD), moderate cultural distance (MCD) and high cultural distance (HCD). Table 4.1 shows how participants were classified into the three groups depending on their responses to survey questions. In order to gauge familiarity with the existing cultural norms operating in the classroom, I asked the students and teachers different questions. I asked students whether they had attended preschool in New Zealand as this gave some indication to the length of time they had witnessed prevailing cultural practice. Teachers were asked to indicate their years of teaching experience to provide evidence of familiarity with classroom practices and procedures.

Table 4.1
Classification of student and teacher cultural distance

Cultural distance classification:	LCD	MCD	HCD
Survey Questions:			
How many years have you been teaching (teachers only)	8+	4-8	2-4
Ethnicity NZ European	●		
English first language	●	●	
English only is spoken at home	●		
Attended Kindergarten or Preschool in New Zealand (students only)	●	●	

Participants were also categorised into three further groups based on their self-efficacy responses. These groupings were structured similarly to the cultural distance groupings: low self-efficacy (LSE), moderate self-efficacy (MSE) and high self-efficacy (HSE). Table 4.2 shows each question was given a score based on the response of the participant; four points was considered high.

Table 4.2
Scoring of responses self-efficacy survey responses

Possible survey responses:	Not at all true	Barely true	Moderately true	Exactly true
Typical self-efficacy survey question:				
I can learn what is being taught in class this year				
Score per question:	1	2	3	4

For the student participants, a total of 13 questions were asked, giving a total response score possible of 52. Teachers were asked 10 questions, giving a total score possible of 40. The participants were classified into the three groups using the scoring shown in table 4.3.

Table 4.3
Classification of students' self-efficacy

Self-efficacy classification:	LSE	MSE	HSE
Total student self-efficacy score:	<26	26-39	>39
Total teacher self-efficacy score	<20	20-30	>30

A typical participant might, therefore, be tagged as HCD and LSE, and these tags were applied during both observations and interviews to classify the data. From these classifications, three student participants from each case study class were selected as focus students. To be selected as a focus student, their survey responses needed to be either or HCD and LSE, MCD and MSE, LCD and HSE. The students with the closest response to the median in each category were selected. From this point student and teacher data was considered and analysed from separate perspectives.

The self-efficacy component of the student survey was adapted from a self-efficacy questionnaire created by Gaumer Erickson and Noonan (2018). This questionnaire has been tested using Cronbach's coefficient alpha and is considered highly reliable (13 items; α= .900), based on data collected from a sample group of over 1370 high school students (Gaumer Erickson, Soukup, Noonan, & McGurn, 2018). The teacher survey was adapted from a questionnaire created by Schwarzer, Schmitz and Daytner (1999). This survey was reduced from a 27 question survey that was administered to approximately 300 German teachers, to 10 questions and was found to have a Cronbach's alpha of between .76 and .82 (Schwarzer et al., 1999). The adaptations made to both surveys were minor and only necessary to make the vocabulary used in the survey relevant for a New Zealand context.

Observations

The observation component of the case study focused on how the students and teachers interacted with one another. These observations sought to identify: behaviours, situations, scenarios and ultimately culture, that both reinforced and reduced self-efficacy. To help focus observations, I utilised six elements proposed by Merriam (2009) that seek to provide breadth of coverage while limiting the potential for attempting to observe everything in an environment. These elements were the physical setting, the participants, activities and interactions, conversation, subtle factors and the researcher's behaviour.

The observations of teachers and students were conducted concurrently and were based on focus students only. Observations were conducted over one school week of classes. One observation was completed for each focus student, in each session. A total of 16

observation sessions were recorded and analysed. I completed and recorded 48 individual observations of the research participants. A typical observation is included in Appendix C.

Observations were analysed initially for patterns of behaviour for each focus student, with both their peers and their teachers. These patterns of behaviour were then analysed across the focus students looking for similarities and differences in the interactions.

Semi-structured interviews

Concluding the data collection process was 11 semi-structured interviews that were conducted with both teacher (5 interviews) and student (6 interviews) participants. These questions for these interviews were created to further explore the observations and are included in Appendix D. Similarly to the observations, these interviews were analysed for similarities and themes; typical analysis is included in Appendix E.

Reliability and validity

Conducting a naturalistic case study, that is predominantly investigated utilising qualitative research methods, and aims to create unique socially constructed data, provides challenges of transferability. From differing paradigms, a researcher would aim to provide evidence of reliability and validity to satisfy this desire for transferability. Creswell and Miller (2000) illustrate these challenges by demonstrating the breadth of words offered by authors seeking to provide transferability: “authenticity, goodness, verisimilitude, adequacy, trustworthiness, plausibility, validity, validation and credibility” (p. 124). The breadth of vocabulary available to establish validity in the qualitative field stems from the difficulty in providing absolute truths from subjective data (Kvale, 1995).

Cho and Trent (2006) suggest that a “conception of validity that is appropriate is dependent upon the inquiry paradigms” (p. 319). In the case of pragmatism then, an alternative measure is required to deliver both reliability and validity. Kvale (1995) explains that when considering qualitative data the conception is not based solely on methodology, but rather the researcher’s person, process and their ethical integrity. To this end, I have articulated the position from where this research originated from, including my preconceptions and personal positioning prior to instigation of this project. I have illustrated the process through which I conducted the research and investigation of the literature, disclosing any bias or inclination through which I viewed both. I have also clarified the method through which I have drawn my conclusions and highlighted the assumptions through which these conclusions have been made. By providing my own position throughout this thesis, I have attempted to provide an honest and thorough account of not only the process of the research but also my both my subjective and objective positions as a researcher.

Trustworthiness and credibility

In order to provide credibility to this research project, I have sought to engage with a practice of trustworthiness throughout the research. Cho and Trent (2006) term this as "validity as a process" (p. 327) which encompasses the purpose, research questions and acts of research. In order to achieve this, Creswell and Miller (2000) provide nine "validity procedures" (p. 126), depending on which paradigm the research is conducted. Relevant procedures to this research project are: disconfirming evidence, researcher reflexivity, prolonged engagement in the field, thick rich description and peer debriefing. In the following paragraphs, I will detail how I have sought to increase the trustworthiness and credibility of this research project utilising these procedures.

Disconfirming evidence

From the outset of the research project and while investigating existing literature on self-efficacy, I sought negative evidence to dispel any beliefs I had regarding self-efficacy. In Miles and Huberman's (1994) seminal text on qualitative research, they describe the difficulties in framing a mindset to look for disconfirming evidence due to "people's pattern-making proclivities" (p. 271). In order to seek disconfirming evidence regarding self-efficacy behaviours, I reviewed as much breadth of literature as possible and presented this in an objective summary in Chapter Two of this thesis. Evidence of outlier explanations was evident throughout this process and was cause for revision of some of my initially held assumptions of self-efficacy.

Researcher reflexivity

Throughout the ideation, investigation, synthesis and reporting stages of this research project, it has been important to "self-disclose [my] assumptions, beliefs and biases" (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 127). I have discovered that my role as an educational researcher has been in contrast, and at times in conflict, with my role as a teacher and educational leader. I have had to question my motivations, behaviours and thought process and question whether I am responding as a teacher, leader or researcher.

Much of the data collection is based on behavioural observations of participants. When conducting observational research, it is likely that the researcher will impart some level of interpretation due to their perception of behavioural interactions. If the researcher is drawing conclusions as to why a participant is exhibiting a certain behaviour, then Cohen et al. (2017) outline that the researcher is making value judgements based on their own experiences and interpretations, rather than that of the participants. The researcher is also not aware of all the external and therefore unobservable factors, that will be influencing the observed behavioural interactions; perhaps a participant just came from a stressful meeting, or maybe they missed lunch. This can result in the researcher becoming "hermetically sealed" from the outside world and result in "narrowly micro-sociological

perspectives" (Cohen et al., 2017, p. 24). To this end, I sought to observe only what was visible, including interviewing to limit my assumptions. I sought to expand the breadth of knowledge by using multiple data collection as much as was realistically possible for a research project and thesis of this size.

While observing and also interviewing, I had to make myself aware of the position that I was operating in. In the past, I have conducted both observations and interviews from the position of a teacher and leader. It was, therefore, necessary to take steps to avoid lapsing into my historical position. I established an observation protocol and observation templates, that acted as continuous visual prompts, to remind me to observe what was visible and limit my own interpretation. To complement this, I deemed that it was necessary to conduct interviews, to aid in my understanding of the components less visible. This allowed me to focus on observing the participants and allowed them to fill in the blanks that would have been created through observation alone.

Prolonged engagement in the field

Considering the potential scope of work realistic for a master's thesis, conducting prolonged engagement in the field is a challenging validity procedure to satisfy. It would not have been possible to satisfy Fetterman's (2010) belief that "working with people day in and day out for long periods of time is what gives ethnographic research its validity and vitality" (p. 46). I have attempted however, to conduct this research through an ethnographic lens while accepting that my preferred approach, an ethnographic case study, was not possible under these circumstances. The research questions posed could potentially have been answered through surveying and interviewing, but I believe the data presented, is enriched by the time I spent in the field observing the behavioural interactions of the research participants.

Thick rich descriptions

Denzin (1989, cited in Creswell & Miller, 2000) terms thick descriptions as "deep, dense, detailed accounts" (p. 128). By selected a mixed methods approach I sought to provide more in-depth findings that would not have been possible utilising only one method. By including a range of observational accounts and interview transcriptions in the presentation of the research findings, I have tried to provide the reader with an in-depth narrative of the behaviours and experiences of the participants. This allows the reader to make their own decisions and judgements about the transferability and applicability of the findings to other situations. A limitation of this study is that the survey component does not illustrate depth to the participant's responses. I would suggest that the survey responses indicate some interesting trends that could be further explored in future research to provide richer descriptions as to what may be influencing these trends.

Peer debriefing

Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Creswell & Miller, 2000) propose that peer debriefing and review provides the researcher with alternative ideas and a further lens through which the project can be viewed, by someone with critical distance from the research. I have been fortunate throughout this thesis to have a number of critical voices to challenge my thinking and further inform my research, methodology, data analysis and presentation of findings. Within AUT I have received informative critical feedback from my supervisor, internal reviews, Research Ethics Advisor and AUTEC Faculty Representative. As part of the approval process for my methodology, I also sought and received approval from AUTEC to complete my research. These informal and formal reviews of my work have been invaluable in refining my thinking and adding further credibility to my research.

Ethical considerations and limitations

Key Ethical Principles

Underpinning ethical considerations for educational research is an ethical and morally sound belief in the purpose of education itself. As a teacher and a novice researcher, my first foray into formal educational research initiated a process of self-reflection deeper than the ethical considerations of data gathering and presentation. Without a standpoint on the position and purpose of education, I felt ill-placed to make a judgement on the ethical soundness of a research project. As outlined by Noddings (2018) "the basic components of education described by Plato have remained at the heart of liberal education for more than 2,000 years" (p. 10). Plato's functionalist view of education is concerned with producing a continuation of citizens that "meet the needs of the state" (p. 20). A more progressive humanistic view of education might be that it contributes to the betterment of society. The difference between this idea of continuation or betterment is stated by Lopez-Alvarado (2016), "dogs and horses can be trained, people may be trained, but only persons can be educated. Education, as opposed to training, is intended at making people more human" (p. 4). As a newly registered teacher I believe I was fortunate to have been enculturated into the vision and values of my current school, that calls for personalised learning opportunities that meet each student's needs. My moral position and hence ethical values are based around the expectation phrased by Dewey (1897) that "only true education comes through the stimulation of the child's powers" (p. 77). The underlying purpose of my educational research is to further aid students in developing their own capacity; in this case, their sense of self-efficacy.

An ethical approach to data collection is paramount in a research project, but an ethical approach to intent, design, reporting and ultimately practice must take precedence over any competing priorities. Nisbet (2005) argues that an educational researcher is no longer an academic theorist, nor an expert consultant but rather more commonly, a reflective practitioner. This research project evolved from my own practice as a teacher and informal

research processes within my classes; it was important for me to, therefore, take a mental step from the position of a reflective teacher to a reflective researcher. As the research project progressed I became far more aware of the position of power a researcher holds and the influence that I can wield not only over the research participants but potentially the wider community (Mutch, 2013).

Partnership, participation and protection

Operating in a New Zealand context, commitment to the Treaty of Waitangi is fundamental to ethical considerations I have made and the manner in which I have conducted this research. The principles of partnership, participation and protection were particularly important not only when working with participants but underpin the approach to the whole thesis. At the outset of this process I engaged with the ethical protocols established by AUTEC; these guided my thinking and shaped the nature of the research project. Much of this consideration was focussed on engaging ethically with research participants; however, the presentation of the data and my own position throughout the research project were also of primary importance. As some of the research participants were students who were younger than 16 years of age, I paid particular attention to gaining their informed assent and parental consent by developing age appropriate information sheets and being available to answer questions they had regarding the process and the research. An example of the information sheet is attached in Appendix F. I made sure that all research participants were aware that they could withdraw from the project at any stage and that their data would remain confidential throughout the collection and presentation of this thesis. Due to my physical position within the classroom during most of this research, it was of utmost importance to protect the confidentiality of both the teacher and student participants. While conducting fieldwork, I limited my time at the schools to the observation times only to avoid being recognised by other teachers or students and kept a low profile within the classrooms. I tried to limit the amount of time that each participant needed to invest in the project by conducting observations prior to interviewing so that I could ask meaningful, concise questions. At the completion of the fieldwork, the participants were all thanked for their involvement and offered a small koha as an acknowledgment of their contribution to the project.

Utilising predominantly qualitative data collection techniques while conducting a naturalistic case study, demanded that I became a participant in the research process. The social construction of knowledge that underpins this research results in an inevitable but desirable partnership between all those involved. This brings with it concerns however, regarding the intimate proximity that the researcher finds themselves to the participants. In this situation, researchers can: apply their own values to the participants, be expected to advocate for the participants, face extended ethical concerns and face issues surrounding reflexivity (Cohen et al., 2017). Therefore, not only must the researcher accept that they are

part of the world they are researching, but they will also influence that world. It is expected that the relationship between teacher, student and researcher will benefit all participants, through increased opportunities to reflect and develop practice. The teacher participants will have the opportunity to gain a deeper understanding of their pedagogy and personal self-efficacy. The student participants will gain some understanding of a probably unknown term to them, self-efficacy, and potentially have increased opportunities to further develop their capacity in this area. The opportunities for myself as a researcher include completing my Master of Educational Leadership, an opportunity for deeper reflection and understanding of educational research practices, and further understanding of self-efficacy which will inform my future teaching and leadership.

Cultural considerations and limitations

As part of this thesis, I am seeking to explore differences in efficacy beliefs that have been informed by culture. As will be seen in the research findings, the data indicates that self-efficacy scores vary across some of the markers I have selected to illustrate cultural distance. The concept of perceiving culture as a capital asset rather than a deficit or cultural distance is central to this thesis and at no point do I intend to make the assumption that any contributor to cultural capital limits the capacity of any individual's self-efficacy. I do not wish the findings of this research to provide any voice to stereotyping or deficit thinking; for example, regarding ethnicity which I have included as one indicator of cultural distance. I believe it is important to stress this point as unfortunately, in a New Zealand context, education for the most vulnerable, including for Māori has had a "long history of [...] assimilative policies and practices" (McCarthy, 1997, p. 30). The model of education that continues to prevail in New Zealand is "skills-based, economy-focused and inflexibly structured" (Furness, Nikora, Hodgetts, & Robertson, 2016, p. 77). This inflexibility and a push for educational efficiencies can result in both victim blaming and deficit thinking. Deficit thinking locates the blame of school failure on students and their families and suggests that they are not engaging with the model of school that is successful for other students. In describing deficit thinking, Valencia (1997) suggests that in recent years a resurgence of embedded practice is occurring in the United States. I believe it would not take a substantial search in New Zealand to find teachers who believe that "students who fail in school do so because of alleged internal deficiencies" (Valencia, 1997, p. xi). A distance in social, cultural or physical attributes from the prevailing school system could, therefore, be considered as a cultural deficit, rather than cultural capital.

Although in New Zealand there has been increased awareness of victim blaming since contemporary voice was provided by Ryan (1976), for Māori students "there has been little if any shift in [educational] disparities since they were first statistically identified over 40 years ago" (Bishop et al., 2009, p. 2). As a researcher operating in New Zealand's bicultural setting, I believe part of the responsibility is to promote equitable outcomes for all students

but particularly for Māori. While I have applied and been successful in gaining permission from AUTEC to conduct this research, multiple New Zealand authors (Bishop, 1996; Furness et al., 2016) argue that if this is the sole ethical consideration, the researcher has failed to provide an adequate ethical justification for their work. Furness et al. (2016) go on to state, that in order to be ethically justified, researchers must "engage with [indigenous research ethics] literature and adopt a critically reflexive response" (p. 85). As part of the literature review, I have included a section addressing Māori concerns and considerations when addressing self-efficacy.

In order to support a wider audience of teachers and their students, we need to question the system provided, rather than look for disadvantage within the students, families and communities. Valencia (2010) suggests a number of ways of promoting social justice, but most pertinent to this research project is considered what he terms, avoiding falling into "equity traps" (McKenzie & Scheurich cited in, Valencia, 2010, p. 135). The critical equity trap in this scenario dictates that certain students have endogenous deficits that prevent them from learning, rather than the deficits lying with the school and system.

Throughout this thesis, I have remained focused on providing strengths-based argument and regarding inherited cultural dispositions, as cultural capital, as opposed to cultural disadvantages. I have sought to remain as transparent as possible with not only the findings of my research, but also in the ideation, construction and delivery of this thesis, to both participants and the reader, to allow for justification of my approach and methodology. This research intends to shed light on the nature of the school, rather than the students, and promote shifting attitudes and practice in both teachers and leaders.

Summary

This chapter has described and provided justification for the research methodology chosen to complete this project. A balanced naturalistic approach was implemented to allow for rich deep data, while balancing time and workload constraints. The three methods of data collection were described and justified, including examples of how the data was analysed to look for patterns in both cultural distance and self-efficacy. Due to the methodology and methods selected, I have endeavoured to provide a detailed account, of how I have sought to establish trustworthiness and credibility. Ethical considerations and cultural considerations have been acknowledged as critical to the intent and nature in which the project could be interpreted. In the following chapter, I will present and discuss the findings of the data collection methods utilised.

Chapter Five - Research Findings

Introduction

This chapter sets out the findings from my two case study schools. To protect the confidentiality of both the schools and the research participants, pseudonyms have been used for the presentation of all data. In order to present this data as succinctly as possible, I have chosen to identify and present each participant as a four-letter code. The first two letters designate the school, the low decile school is coded as 'LD', while the high decile school is coded as 'HD'. The third letter identifies if the participant is a teacher 'T' or student 'S'. The fourth letter differentiates the individual participants. Therefore the code LDTA, would be teacher 'A' from the low decile school. Initially, a summary of the schools and research participants is presented, prior to the presentation of the research data. Two further abbreviations for self-efficacy and cultural distance are used throughout this chapter: low self-efficacy (LSE), moderate self-efficacy (MSE), high self-efficacy (HSE); and low cultural distance (LCD), moderate cultural distance (MCD), high cultural distance (HDC).

Self-efficacy scores are based on the aggregated scores from the surveys completed by the teachers and students. If a participant scored less than a 50% positive response they were designated LSE, 50% - 70% was designated MSE, and greater than 70% designated HSE. There is a slight variation to these percentage scores due to the teacher and student survey containing a differing amount of questions. Cultural distance is considered as a measure of the variation of cultural capital from the classroom norm and scored as shown in Table 4.1 in Chapter Four.

The data is presented in two main sections; the first focuses on the survey data which is both aggregated and summarised. Comparisons are made between participants who exhibited high, moderate and low self-efficacy, to those having high, moderate and low cultural distance. I have included some data from the interviews within the survey section to help further illuminate some of the statistics. The second section presents the findings of both the observations and interviews. This chapter seeks primarily to present the data in a summarised manner, links with literature, discussion and implications will be made in the following chapter.

Section One - Survey data

Introduction

The survey data was collected using Google Forms. The survey data is presented in two sections, the first presents the findings from the student survey data, the second presents the teacher survey data. In each section, data from both case study schools and the anonymous survey data is presented concurrently. The initial analysis focuses more on

generalised comparisons between self-efficacy and cultural distance, prior to further analysis based on the responses to individual questions.

Student survey data

Students who completed the survey were from three Auckland schools (*N* = 55). Two of these schools were the case study schools (*n* = 8), the third was utilised only to collect a more extensive amount of anonymous survey data (*n* = 47). These responses are considered concurrently and presented as follows.

Demographics and overall trends

Tables 5.1 and 5.2 demonstrate the overall responses of student participants. Table 5.1 summarises the demographic data collected from participants, while Table 5.2 presents the aggregated scores of the self-efficacy responses collected.

Table 5.1

Student demographic data

Gender	Percentage of participants
Female / Wahine	52.7 %
Male / Tāne	43.6 %
Gender Diverse	3.6 %
Ethnicity	
Māori	1.8 %
European	14.5 %
Pacific Peoples	5.5 %
Asian	52.7 %
Middle Eastern/Latin American/African	5.5 %
Other Ethnicity	18.2 %
Prefer not to answer	1.8 %
Did you attend Kindergarten or Preschool in New Zealand?	
Yes	63.6 %
No	36.4 %
Is English your first language?	
Yes	72.7 %
No	27.3 %
What languages are spoken in your home?	

English	29.1 %
English and another language	33.7 %
Not English	38.2 %
Cultural distance (created from the above data)	
Low Cultural Distance (LCD)	27.7%
Moderate Cultural Distance (MCD)	55.3%
High Cultural Distance (HCD)	17.0%

A notable demographic feature of this data is the high number of students who have languages other than English spoken in their home at 71.9%. Combining this with only 14.5% of students identifying as European suggests that this is a more diverse student body than is witnessed nationally. While home language data is not readily available, Ministry of Education (2018a) data indicates that nationally, 49.1% of students identify as European. The total percentage of participating students witnessing MCD and HCD is 72.3%, which I expect is disproportionate to national data. This is due to one of my four indicators of cultural distance being if the participants identified as being non-European.

Table 5.2

Student survey questions and aggregated positive response

Survey Questions	Aggregated self-efficacy score
Q8 - I believe hard work pays off	90.9 %
Q2 - I can figure out anything if I try hard enough.	87.3 %
Q10 - My ability grows with effort.	86.8 %
Q1 - I can learn what is being taught in class this year.	85.9 %
Q3 - If I practised every day, I could develop just about any skill.	85.5 %
Q11 - I believe that the brain can be developed like a muscle.	85.5 %
Q4 - Once I've decided to accomplish something that's important to me, I keep trying to accomplish it, even if it is harder than I thought.	85.0 %
Q13 - I can improve my level of ability considerably.	83.6 %
Q12 - I think that no matter who you are, you can significantly change your level of talent.	83.2 %
Q7 - I will succeed in my education after I leave school.	80.9 %
Q5 - I am confident that I will achieve the goals that I set for myself.	75.5 %
Q7 - I will succeed in whatever career path I choose.	75.0 %
Q6 - When I'm struggling to accomplish something difficult, I	65.0 %

focus on my progress instead of feeling discouraged.

Table 5.2 illustrates the range of responses that were given for each question. The most positively answered question (Q8) scored 25.1% more than the least positively answered question (Q6). Due to the question six, *when I'm struggling to accomplish something difficult, I focus on my progress instead of feeling discouraged*, scoring a comparatively low aggregated score of 65%, I further analysed the nature of the student responses to this question.

Only six students of all participants agreed that this was 'exactly true', and of those six, five were identified as having MCD. The only other student who answered 'exactly true' was an LCD student and one of the interviewees (LDSC), he was notably self-reliant in a number of his interview responses. When faced with a challenge LDSC suggested he "usually [sought help from] the people who are sitting close to me rather than the teacher . . . then I'll go to the teacher, if the teacher doesn't know I'll just google". HDSB, an MCD student responded that when faced with a challenge he was usually able to respond successfully and drew on the strength of his peer and family support to "see things with an open mind, so I just go for it and just see how things play out, adapt to the situation". These survey and interview responses may suggest that students who respond positively to this question, such as those who experience MCD, are more used to responding to challenges independently. In Chapter Six, I will further explore this idea and consider that perhaps students who have had to increase their self-reliance to be successful due to their cultural distance, are more likely to focus on their progress than the task outcome.

Student survey and aggregated self-efficacy scores

The following section displays the demographic data in various ways, and the corresponding aggregated self-efficacy score for each dataset. Firstly Table 5.3 presents aggregated self-efficacy scores compared to cultural distance.

Table 5.3

Student cultural distance (HCD, MCD, LCD) and aggregated self-efficacy score, also the percentage of responses for low, moderate and high self-efficacy (LSE, MSE and HSE)

Cultural Distance	**Aggregated self-efficacy score**	LSE	MSE	HSE
HCD	76.0 %	12.5 %	25.0 %	62.5 %
MCD	82.6 %	0 %	23.5 %	76.5 %
LCD	85.1 %	0 %	87.7 %	92.3 %

This data indicates that HCD students are more likely to have lower self-efficacy than their MCD and LCD peers. Notably, of the students surveyed, none of the participants who responded as having either low or moderate cultural distance had low self-efficacy scores.

Further investigation of this data led me to analyse what aspects of cultural distance were most likely to influence the aggregated self-efficacy scores. In Table 5.4 below the demographic data is shown with corresponding aggregated self-efficacy scores. I have chosen to present the ethnicity data as either European or Non-European. This was partly due to the small sample size not being large enough to show trends in individual ethnicities, but also due to the focus being on whether distance from the prevailing Eurocentric classroom practice was impacting self-efficacy scores.

Table 5.4
Student demographic data and aggregated self-efficacy score

Ethnicity	Aggregated self-efficacy score
European	87.0 %
Non-European	81.4 %
Gender	
Female / Wahine	83.2 %
Male / Tāne	81.1 %
Gender Diverse	80.8 %
Did you attend Kindergarten or Preschool in New Zealand?	
Yes	82.5 %
No	81.7 %
Is English your first language?	
Yes	83.9 %
No	77.7 %
What language is spoken in your home?	
English and, English + another language	85.3 %
Other	77.2 %

The data in Table 5.4 suggests that certain factors may be contributing more to self-efficacy scores than others. Gender and preparation for schooling, in either a New Zealand preschool or kindergarten, show the least pronounced difference in aggregated self-efficacy scores. Ethnicity and language are recorded as having a higher level of difference, the most notable of these is whether or not English is used in the home environment, which is recorded as having an 8.1% difference. These differences in the data

indicate that the measures utilised to discern cultural distance in this thesis may warrant further research to see if these data trends continue in a larger population of students. Due to the methodology employed, I was not able to explore the influencing factors that contributed to these scores; future research may consider interviewing students about the specific components identified in this data.

Teacher survey data

Teachers who completed the survey were from three Auckland schools (*N* = 19). Two of these schools were the case study schools (*n* = 5), the third was utilised only to collect a more extensive amount of anonymous survey data (*n* = 14). These responses are considered concurrently and presented as follows.

Demographics and overall trends

Tables 5.5 and 5.6 demonstrate the overall responses of teacher participants. Table 5.5 summarises the demographic data collected from participants, while Table 5.6 presents the aggregated scores of the self-efficacy responses collected. Unlike the student data, I have chosen to display the responses to the demographic questions as the number of participants rather than the percentage due to the small size of the sample.

Table 5.5
Teacher demographic data

Gender	Number of participants (percentage)
Female / Wahine	9 (47.4%)
Male / Tāne	10 (52.6%)
Gender Diverse	-
Prefer not to answer	-
Ethnicity	
Māori	2 (10.5%)
European	8 (42.1%)
Pacific Peoples	1 (5.3%)
Asian	3 (15.8%)
Middle Eastern/Latin American/African	-
Other Ethnicity	4 (21.0%)
Prefer not to answer	1 (5.3%)
How many years have you been teaching?	
< 2 years	3 (15.8%)

2 - 8 years	5 (26.3%)
8 + years	8 (42.1%)
Prefer not to answer	3 (15.8%)
Is English your first language?	
Yes	18 (94.7%)
No	1 (5.3%)
What languages are spoken in your home?	
English	13 (68.4%)
Another language	6 (31.6%)
Cultural distance (created from the above data)	
Low Cultural Distance (LCD)	-
Moderate Cultural Distance (MCD)	8 (42.1%)
High Cultural Distance (HCD)	11 (57.9%)

The demographic data collected from teachers indicates some notable differences from national data, this is most noticeable in the gender and ethnicity statistics. Ministry of Education (2018a) data indicates that compared to national statistics, male teachers are overrepresented (52.9% compared to 37.7% nationally), along with Asian teachers (15.8% compared to 3.4% nationally). This combined with the relatively high percentage of teachers speaking a language other than English in their homes (31.6%) may skew the data towards an increased number of teachers experiencing moderate cultural distance, than would be found in national statistics.

Table 5.6

Teacher survey questions and aggregated positive response

Survey Questions	Aggregated self-efficacy score
Q7 - If I try hard enough, I know that I can exert a positive influence on both the personal and academic development of my students.	82.9%
Q4 - I am convinced that, as time goes by, I will continue to become more capable of helping to address my students' needs.	82.9%
Q9 - I know that I can motivate my students to participate in innovative projects.	80.3%
Q10 - I know that I can carry out innovative projects even when I am opposed by sceptical colleagues.	80.3%
Q5- Even if I get disrupted while teaching, I am confident that I can maintain my composure and continue to teach well.	78.9%
Q8 - I am convinced that I can develop creative ways to cope	78.9%

with system constraints (such as budget cuts and other administrative problems) and continue to teach well.	
Q3 - When I try really hard, I am able to reach even the most difficult students.	77.6%
Q2 - I know that I can maintain a positive relationship with parents even when tensions arise.	77.6%
Q6 - I am confident in my ability to be responsive to my students' needs even if I am having a bad day.	76.3%
Q1 - I am convinced that I am able to successfully teach all relevant subject content to even the most difficult students.	68.4%

As can be seen from Table 5.6, the responses from the teacher participants have less variance than that of student data with only 14.5% separating the most positively responded question to the least. This data indicates that when attempting to improve teacher efficacy, there may be a less exaggerated benefit from focussing on certain aspects of self-efficacy compared to students. At 82.9% the two most positively responded questions, question seven and question four, were noticeably lower than the highest aggregated student response (90.9%), indicating perhaps that teachers have provided more moderate overall responses than students.

Further investigation into the nature of the responses for question one, *I am convinced that I am able to successfully teach all relevant subject content to even the most difficult students*, revealed some interesting results. The greatest differential in this data was a 26.9% difference between female (84.4% positive response) and male (57.5% positive response) teachers. There was a 13.1% difference between MCD (59.4% positive response) compared to LCD (72.5% positive response) teachers, while teachers with moderate experience (2 - 8 years, 81.3% positive response) responded 9.4% more positively than their more experienced peers (8+ years, 71.9% positive response). While I acknowledge that the sample size for these data is small, the differences in responses due to gender, cultural distance and experience may be an area worth considering in future studies.

Teacher survey and aggregated self-efficacy scores

The following section displays the demographic data in various ways, and the corresponding aggregated self-efficacy score for each dataset. Firstly Table 5.7 presents aggregated self-efficacy scores compared to cultural distance.

Table 5.7

Teacher cultural distance (HCD, MCD, LCD) and aggregated self-efficacy score, also the percentage of responses for low, moderate and high self-efficacy (LSE, MSE and HSE)

Cultural Distance	**Aggregated self-efficacy Score**	LSE	MSE	HSE
HCD	-	-	-	-
MCD (8 teachers)	67.2%	2	1	5
LCD (11 teachers)	86.6%	-	1	10

Within the data collected there were no responses from teachers witnessing HCD. This data indicates that MCD teachers are more likely to have lower self-efficacy than their LCD peers. None of the teachers experiencing LCD responded with LSE scores, while two teachers who witnessed MCD had LSE scores.

Similar to the student data, I further analysed this data to discover which aspects of cultural distance were most likely to influence the aggregated self-efficacy scores. In Table 5.8 below the demographic data is shown with corresponding aggregated self-efficacy scores. I have chosen to present the ethnicity data as either European or Non-European. This is due to the sample size being small and not large enough to show trends in individual ethnicities.

Table 5.8

Teacher demographic data and aggregated self-efficacy score

Ethnicity	Aggregated self-efficacy score
European	83.1%
Non-European	73.0%
Gender	
Female / Wahine	85.6%
Male / Tāne	72.0%
Gender Diverse	-
How many years have you been teaching?	
< 2 years	61.7%
2 - 8 years	85.0%
8+ years	85.3%
What language is spoken in your home?	
English	84.2 %
Another language	74.0 %

The data in Table 5.8 suggests a number of differences in the aggregated self-efficacy scores of participants. This data may be skewed due to the small sample size. However, there does appear to be noticeable differences in responses due to ethnicity, gender, years of experience and home language. Perhaps unsurprisingly the most significant difference is to be found in years of experience. Teachers with less than two years of experience scored 23.5% less than their more experienced peers (2+ years). Similar to the student data, there is a 10.2% (compared to 8.1% for students) difference in self-efficacy scores for those teachers whose home language is other than English. I was, however, surprised that male teachers scored 13.6% lower than their female peers. Further exploration will be needed with a larger sample size to see if there are links that can be made with the cultural distance identifiers proposed in this thesis and self-efficacy scores.

Survey data summary

A number of differences were found in the responses of both student and teacher participants. For students, gender and kindergarten or preschool played little difference in their self-efficacy scores, while for teachers, gender and years of experience, both seem to contribute to differences in self-efficacy. There were some similarities in the data, particularly in the cultural distance aggregated self-efficacy scores and home language scores. From the data presented I would argue that cultural distance as conceptualised in this thesis does have some correlation to self-efficacy scores. While more extensive criteria to define cultural distance will be necessary, factors such as language use, ethnicity and years of experience (for teachers) may provide a starting point for future research.

Section Two - Observations and interviews

Introduction

I conducted a total of 16 classroom observations and 11 semi-structured interviews. Of these observations, eight were conducted at each school, while five interviews were conducted at the low decile school and six at the high decile school. Five interviews were with teachers, and six were with students. I conducted the observations after collecting and analysing the survey data and prior to the interviews. The participants, their self-efficacy scores and their cultural distance are shown in Table 5.9 below.

Table 5.9

Participants including their aggregated self-efficacy score and cultural distance

Participant	**Aggregated self-efficacy Score**	LCD	MCD	HCD
LDTA	82.5% (HSE)	●		
LDTB	85.0% (HSE)		●	
HDTA	100% (HSE)	●		
HDTB	87.5% (HSE)		●	

HDTC	90.0% (HSE)	●		
LDSA	98.0% (HSE)	●		
LDSB	90.8% (HSE)	●		
LDSC	90.4% (HSE)	●		
HDSA	90.4% (HSE)		●	
HDSB	63.5% (MSE)		●	
HDSC	90.4% (HSE)			●

As can be seen from Table 5.9 all but one of the students (HDSB) interviewed responded with high levels of self-efficacy. All the student participants from the LD school were witnessing LCD, while the students at the HD were more varied. None of the teacher participants interviewed were witnessing HCD.

The observations were particularly useful in identifying patterns of behaviour and interactions between the participants that allowed for a more informed interview process. Initially, I recorded observable data, then reviewed the observations at the end of each session to look for themes and patterns; a typical observation summary is shown in Appendix C. I found that I had a more familiar relationship, particularly with the teachers after observing the classes, and was more able to relate to the participants' experiences. I believe that the observations in part, therefore, allowed me to gain more trust from the participants and ask more meaningful questions. During the observations at the two schools, a number of themes emerged that I then further explored through the interviews. I conducted the interviews individually then analysed and compared the transcriptions to look for patterns, similarities and differences; a typical interview transcription is shown in Appendix E. The remainder of this chapter presents the themes that I discovered and explored with the research participants and summarises both the observational and interview data.

A note regarding the language used in interviews

When I initially met with the teacher participants, I checked to see what questions they had regarding the project, at both schools the teachers asked questions about the nature of self-efficacy and what the project was all about. While this was prior to collecting any data, I believe it is important to make a note of this as it indicated to me that the term self-efficacy was not a term the teachers were completely familiar with. I presumed that if the teachers did not fully understand the term, the students would most likely be even more confused. I realised at this point, I would need to be careful in the language that I selected as I collected the data to avoid the potential for disorientation due to terminology. At the outset of all the student interviews, I included the statement, "I am not researching your ability to complete a task, I am interested only in whether or not you *believe* you can complete a task".

Similarly, when interviewing the teachers, I initiated the discussion with the statement, "I am interested in whether or not you *believe* you can make a difference to student learning". Whenever I specifically asked about self-efficacy, I included a statement such as "do you *believe that you have more capacity* to engage with certain students". During the interviews, it was noticeable that the term self-efficacy was not something any of the participants volunteered, more vernacular for both students and teachers were terms such as: scaffolding, self-confidence, resilience, engagement, support, relationships, success, and these were used to describe behaviours and interactions occurring in the classroom. This lack of familiarity with the term self-efficacy is further explored in Chapter Six.

A network of efficacy

Early in my observation process, I began to notice the regularity in which participants interacted with other members of the class; I noticed this behaviour in both the teacher and student participants. Initially, I recorded this data as summarised below in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10

Typical interactions recorded between teacher and students (School LD, Observation 7, LDTB)

Student	Interactions with teacher
Student K	3
Student D	3
Student A	7
Student M	3
Student L	1
Student T	7
Student E	2
Total	26

This data shows that a total of 26 interactions took place between teacher LDTB and seven students during a one-hour lesson. These interactions ranged from small, such as saying hello; to more substantial, such as explaining a question. I did not rank these interactions in regard to quality or time, rather I considered these as representative of the number of students that the teacher engaged with during a session. I recorded similar data across the classes I observed, ranging from five students, up to 12 students depending on the session and teacher. The individual students stayed relatively consistent in each class that the teacher had; for example, for Students A and T from Table 5.10 generally had the most interactions with LDTB. This led me to consider that certain students in the class may hold a

more pronounced influence over their teacher's efficacy beliefs, due to their more frequent interactions.

I also began to consider this from a student's perspective, that they may have more frequent and preferential relationships in the class that may influence their efficacy beliefs. The student participants, unless instructed by the teacher sat in the same place with the same peer group in each session. These peer groups were consistent across the classes observed, for example for HDSB and HDSC beside each other in HDTA, HDTB and HDTC's classes. For each member of the class then, including the teacher, I began to consider that a familiar and frequent network of interactions may be the primary source of socially constructed self-efficacy for each member. As I explored this in the interviews, particularly with teachers, this seemed to be more of a subconscious process but something that did influence efficacy beliefs.

A network of efficacy - Teacher responses

While it was hard to link this directly to contributing to beliefs of efficacy, the responses from teachers and students did indicate that they were aware of the information gained from frequent and familiar interactions. I asked the teacher participants about whether certain students had more influence over their belief that they were delivering good teaching. For example, I asked, "do you notice that if that a certain student group is quiet and on task do you then feel that everyone is more likely to be on task?" I then asked, "Does that make you feel like you have done a good job delivering the instruction for that topic?" When I asked the teacher participants about this concept, I noticed the substantial pause they took to consider this question prior to answering, other than HDTB who immediately responded "yeah, hugely" and went on to say:

> It's quite noticeable, I don't do it deliberately, but once you have been teaching them for a little while, you notice that if you have done something correctly or incorrectly, kids will speak up in support or let you know if it's not. (HDTB)

The responses I gained from the other teachers suggested that while this might be informing their efficacy, they may not have been aware of it before I asked. For example, initially, LDTB responded, "I've never thought about it" and it was only when we further explored the concept that he stated "it's probably subconscious, you check and they are onto it. They are always the loose ends I'm trying to tie up". This was a similar response to LDTA who thought about the different groups they recognised in the class and said: "I guess that is true, if they are quiet I know that everyone is on task".

HDTA gave the response that most suggested this was influencing her perceptions of efficacy stating "if I have got [student name] engaged, then I have probably got the whole

class, if she is really engaged then I know I'm smashing it, I've nailed that". While HDTC suggested that "if my high performers were asking me a bunch of questions then I would need to think about how I delivered the task - straight back to the drawing board, if they are confused, everyone is confused". I believe that from these responses, it is likely that teachers are drawing some, if not most, of their efficacy information in a class setting from certain students. Whether this is conscious or subconscious, I would suggest that these students may have a disproportionate amount of influence compared to their peers on their teacher's efficacy.

A network of efficacy - Student responses

The responses gathered from student participants showed a similar pattern of preference of interactions when faced with challenges. The responses were varied but usually indicated a graduated response depending on the situation. HDSC's response suggested that he would choose whom to interact with depending on the level of risk of embarrassment "it depends how hard it is, if it's too easy and I ask my friends it's kind of embarrassing, then I'd have to ask the teacher". While HDSA said "definitely my peers first, if it's something I'm sure my friends won't know, I will go ask the teacher. If I'm doing solo work I will ask the teacher". LDSB preferred support from her peers due to the nature of the interaction "I mainly [ask] friends [for support] because I feel like teachers just summarise the question rather than telling us how to solve it". Other students preferred going directly to the teacher, such as LDSA, "I kinda go with the teacher most of the time, it depends on the person, there are a few friends I would go to, but not so many". Based on these responses, I would suggest that for students', efficacy information is more frequently garnered from preferential relationships, that may or may not be with their teachers.

A network of efficacy - Key findings

For the participants that I observed and interviewed, it would seem likely that efficacy beliefs are likely to be informed more frequently by a small number of familiar primary relationships. I expect this will be complemented by less frequent interactions with a broader source of secondary relationships. For high school students in junior classes, who more frequently move together between subjects, this might be more consistent across classes and result in a smaller number of relationships; while I expect that senior students, who have differing peer groups in each class, may have a far broader spectrum of efficacy sources. Based on this assumption, I would expect that interventions that might offer increases in self-efficacy for some teachers or students may result in far less impact for others if it is not impacting their primary sources of efficacy information.

Reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs

In the literature I have reviewed I found it more difficult to find evidence of reciprocity in the relationship between teacher and student efficacy beliefs. Much of the existing

research shows links between high levels of teacher efficacy contributing to student self-efficacy, but I found little to suggest that this relationship is reciprocal. As part of the observations and interviews, I sought to investigate whether student self-efficacy had an impact on teacher efficacy. While it is not possible to establish a causal relationship between these concepts utilising the methodology that I employed, the responses elicited from the teachers suggest that this might be worth further investigation in future research. The questions I asked explored whether teachers found some students easier to engage with than others, combined with what the behaviours that these students were exhibiting that made them 'easier to teach'.

Reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs - The energy of the class

I initiated this discussion by asking the teachers what made it easier for them to believe that they could engage with students. Responding to this question the teachers were initially vague and focussed on more intangible concepts such as "there's quite an energy about them" (LDTB), "you feed off the energy in the class" (HDTC), "sometimes it's a cultural issue" (LDTA), or spoke about whether the students "wanted support" (LDTA) or "kept trying" (HDTA). I then asked them more specifically whether they thought that the student's self-efficacy was having any impact on these beliefs about engagement. The participants' responses suggest that student self-efficacy is having some impact on their own self-efficacy or at least, their resilience. When asked whether students' existing self-efficacy was likely to influence his feelings of efficacy LDTB stated "absolutely, and I think it releases them into this mindset or a way of portraying themselves as someone who is capable or willing".

LDTA discussed certain students having negative perceptions about the subject when they arrived new to the school such as "they've just got it in their head, I think [subject name] is a bit like that, I can't do [subject name], I've never done [subject name], I can't do it". This resulted in LDTA feeling like she was less able to engage with those students due to their lack of self-efficacy and resulted in feelings of helplessness, "there's nothing that's going to fix that, so no matter how much support I offer, they're like nup".

HDTA responded with the highest self-efficacy score compared to the other teachers and her responses to my questions were notable in the level of resilience she had when dealing with challenging students:

> I get to a point where I feel I've done X and Z and I'm not going to give my Y unless they try. My cut off is only with that activity, as soon as we move on to the next activity the students are getting my X, Y and Z. (HDTA)

HDTA added that if she could engage the more challenging students, she felt that she was "smashing it". We also discussed the poor results of a recent test HDTA had conducted, "I was lucky when the [subject] teacher had the same thing. I was glad they had another class with the same grade distribution". I found this comment interesting as it suggests that relationships with other teachers and the peer comparisons that are possible when comparing tests could impact levels of self-efficacy.

Reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs - The importance of relationships

For HDTB, both relationships and familiarity with the student were central to feelings of teacher efficacy "because of that inability to communicate well with that individual, I don't know if I'm doing a good job or not, or how I could do a better job to serve that student". Similarly for HDTC strong relationships with students enabled increased feelings of teacher efficacy:

> If you stay with the same class for multiple years, you know their personality, they are not just coming in to sit down and be taught something, the relationship is a lot stronger. It means you can get people who usually don't work together to work together because they know each other. (HDTC)

HDTB commented that the students that she found most challenging were the ones whom she had "zero prior knowledge of who they are as individuals". Not only were teacher-student relationships important for HDTB and HDTC but student peer relationships also had an impact on their perceptions of efficacy. Both made similar comments that suggested that if student collaboration was occurring, they knew they had done a good job.

Reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs - Key findings

Similarly to questions regarding a network of efficacy, the responses from teachers were initially unclear and suggested that they had not made a connection between their self-efficacy and that of their students. While teachers' answers were initially focussed on intangible attributes, such as the energy of the class, it became apparent that for varying reasons teachers' efficacy may be influenced by student self-efficacy. This stemmed mostly from perceptions of engagement with the teacher, either due to more prior knowledge, or more familiar relationships with their teacher. Only one teacher suggested that her self-efficacy was potentially connected to students' ability in test results compared to other teachers. Perhaps this is because teachers generally have infrequent opportunities to make these results comparisons compared to the daily social interactions they have with their students. I believe that strategies to increase the ability of teachers to interact and form relationships with a wider audience of students in their classes, combined with fostering resiliency when faced with challenging students is likely to result in increases of teacher

efficacy due to reciprocal efficacy relationships in the class, this will be further discussed in Chapter Six.

Differentiated instruction to support self-efficacy

Both the student and teacher participants highlighted the value of providing students with differentiated instruction based on their needs. While I did not specifically ask the students or teachers about differentiated support and self-efficacy, their responses stemmed from questions about what made it easier or harder for them to engage in the class.

Differentiated instruction to support self-efficacy - Student responses

Students' responses focussed on describing teachers who were able to give them the flexibility and independence but provided appropriate scaffolding when they got stuck. LDSA preferred a teacher who "explained everything to us and making sure it's set out, [so they're] not doing too much, so we have that kind of freedom", similar to LDSC who preferred independent work that was initiated from a "clear starting point". LDSB appreciated a teacher who understood and supported her time management, "understanding our situation, which gives us room to breathe, but when they don't know they just give us heaps of things, so it's really hard".

HDSA and HDSC had similar responses and indicated that if new tasks were linked to their prior knowledge they were more confident in completing the task. HDSC stated, "the tasks, even if they are hard, as long it's not something completely unfamiliar, they need to explain it, otherwise we will be kind of screwed". HDSB's response was more related to whether the task fit with his future aspirations "if it's something a skill that is necessary for me to use in life, I think I would have more determination or drive to complete it". In order to deliver tasks that cater to the various needs of students, teachers need to find a balance between allowing the students' independence to explore, while maintaining initial and ongoing support for those that need it. LDSA's response was particularly illustrative of this, suggesting that teachers who "explain it too much [make task completion more challenging], like constantly being there and explaining it too much, and we don't have enough time to go through it on our own".

Differentiated instruction to support self-efficacy - Teacher responses

Teachers similarly recognised that differentiated instruction was necessary to meet the needs of their students. LDTA highlighted how differentiated instruction encouraged increased self-comparisons rather than peer comparisons:

> The bottom needed scaffolding, and they would often get to this work, but I just had to deliver it so differently, . . . so I'm just not going to get them to compare to each other, so you're doing this topic, and you're doing this topic. (LDTA)

By delivering differentiated instruction, teachers acknowledged that students gained more rapid and frequent success, “they feel really good about themselves, and it gives them a boost, an injection building their self-confidence . . . if you don't give them these early signs or tastes of success, they do drag their feet a bit” (LDTB). To experience success students might not need quantifiable results, but rather an acknowledgement of their progress, for example, HDTB stated that “If you praise them more, you get more out of them”.

I was aware during the interviews, however, that the responses of the teachers I interviewed may have been reflective of their relatively high levels of experience. All had completed at least six years of teaching and were quite comfortable with differentiated instruction. This was illustrated to me in HDTA’s response:

> I recognise the differences in the students, that is nothing to do with me . . . I’m much more comfortable with having multiple learning outcomes at the same time, it’s a whole lot slower, and it might not look like we are producing much more, but I’m comfortable with not spoon feeding them. (HDTA)

The potential workload in establishing differentiated teaching for newly qualified teachers was summarised by HDTC: “if you are trying to do it from scratch that’s a lot of weekends gone, working out what you want them to know and how to get them there is a whole lot of work”. For a less experienced or newly qualified teacher, the idea of differentiated instruction might seem far more challenging and difficult to accomplish. These teachers may need increased levels of support to develop alternative measures of student success rather than summative achievement results. LDTB also illustrated a pitfall of differentiated instruction discovering that “even though I gave them the ownership, not all of them wanted to do it”; on reflection he realised that the differentiation offered, did not cater to the needs of certain students and that he offered independence rather than differentiation.

Differentiated instruction to support self-efficacy - Key findings

The responses from the teachers and students suggest that differentiated instruction was an important component in their engagement and success. The student responses suggested that they believed tasks were easier if they aligned with how they preferred to learn; for example, highly scaffolded or independently. The teachers identified that they believed they could elicit engagement from a wider audience of students by providing differentiated instruction. The difficulties faced by teachers in providing differentiated instruction were highlighted as both slowing down perceived progress and increased workload, particularly for inexperienced teachers.

Impacts of leadership on efficacy beliefs

Of the five staff interviewed, two held leadership positions. I asked all five staff about their perceptions of leadership impacts on the efficacy beliefs of staff and students by asking "in the collective groups you belong to, for example, departments, inquiry groups, how is your self-efficacy fostered? How are your school leaders supporting your belief that you can be an effective practitioner?". Both of the case study schools have had a change of principal within the last 10 years, and four of the five teachers had experienced leadership under the old and new principal. I was interested in exploring whether the changes in leadership had resulted in the development or erosion of teacher efficacy. The responses of the two staff who held leadership positions within the school (LDTA and HDTA), were notably different from that of those who did not (LDTB, HDTB and HDTC). LDTA and HDTA both referenced the role of the principal and senior leadership at the school, whereas for LDTB, HDTB and HDTC there was no mention of either.

Impacts of leadership on efficacy beliefs - LD school

Both teachers at the LD school acknowledged that the school had undergone considerable change in recent years. When interviewing LDTB, the responses given indicated that for him the role that school leaders played in the development of efficacy beliefs, was far less tangible than that of LDTA. Despite changes in leadership staffing, LDTB considered that changes in the school were primarily the result of a changing student body, "younger people moved into the senior roles, I don't know if they did things differently . . . the students are different, they are just more respectful". For LDTA however, the role of leaders was of primary importance to the changes at the school. Perhaps due to her leadership position, she experienced closer proximity and contact to leaders and was, therefore, more aware of their role in delivering change to the school.

LDTA suggested that it took three to four years for the impact that the principal made to filter down to the students. For her, the increase in professional trust was central to increased collegiality, and positive relationships in the school "[Principal] will let you if you have an idea, run with that, to really work with what you want . . . relationships are 100% the most important thing". For both LDTA and LDTB strong and collaborative professional relationships increased their perception that they were able to deliver better teaching without explicitly acknowledging increases in their teacher efficacy. The collective efficacy for both these teachers was high and contributed to their enjoyment of working at the school. LDTA responded "it's cool, it just gets better, it just gets better and better", while LDTB said, "it's great, I talk about possibly leaving, but it's actually a really nice place to work, it's everything you want being a teacher".

Impacts of leadership on efficacy beliefs - HD school

The responses of teachers at the HD school were similarly differentiated based on their proximity to leadership. HDTA's response to my questioning was structured entirely around the school leaders and how their systems and process influenced her teaching and leadership. For HDTA, having an inspiring leader who had a clear vision which was articulated clearly to staff made a real difference to her motivation: "intrinsic, big, we can change the world, I'm highly motivated by that, I'm not motivated by leaders who don't have that, or they make decisions that contradict each other. I can get quickly frustrated". HDTA expanded on this to say that when "professional trust is high and that increases my motivation, my efficacy . . . I can be super honest with what I think". The key concern raised by HDTA was regarding what she perceived as unnecessary change to effective teams that may be detrimental to teacher efficacy, "you have got to back your horse and decide who is your best candidate".

For HDTB and HDTC who did not hold leadership roles, their responses focussed directly on student achievement and less about the nature of leaders. For HDTB, leadership that increased her efficacy was allowing her to make better cross-curricular links, "in order to get there I have to have learning from other subjects, then I know I am doing a good job". HDTC somewhat echoed this response, "I think it's better for your teaching practice to draw on the strengths of others than staying in your own curriculum and doing what you have always done". Leadership that supported HDTB and HDTC to improve their efficacy focussed on increasing opportunities for collaboration, in particular, cross-curricular collaboration with other staff. Both of these staff acknowledged the need for high-quality professional relationships in order to achieve these goals.

Impacts of leadership on efficacy beliefs - Key findings

The teachers that I interviewed all suggested that collegiality, professional trust and collaboration were central to their ability to better do their job. I got the feeling from all interviewees that teachers want success; they just need the environment to create it. The responses that I gained suggest that leaders who focus on building better relationships between their staff are likely to contribute to an improved sense of collective efficacy. While teachers were quick to point out the benefit of differentiated instruction, scaffolding and flexible responses to students; teachers did not articulate the need for differentiated support to develop their relationships. It was also unclear from the responses of participants whether the relationships referenced were professional or personal, or whether there was a discernible difference between these two for the teachers. One of the limitations of this study is the contribution of individual efficacy to collective efficacy; future research may find links between individual and collective efficacy.

Observation and interview data summary

In general, I found that the themes discussed with participants: a network of efficacy, reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs, differentiated instruction to support self-efficacy and impacts of leadership on efficacy beliefs, were initially obscure to participants and needed moderate exploration prior to unpacking meaningful responses. This was potentially compounded by the lack of familiarity with the concept of self-efficacy and would potentially be worth exploring in future research. The level of emphasis placed on social factors, such as relationships and networks of interactions, I believe contributed to the difficulty in defining the concepts for the participants. Each example discussed initially felt personalised and unique, and the teachers took time to consider the links between their relationships.

Summary

Throughout the surveying, observations and interviewing there was little discernible difference between the responses of the high and low decile schools. If I were to remove labels from all the responses, it would have been challenging for me to pick whether or not a response came from the high or low decile school. Due to the limited amount of survey responses from the two case study schools, there was no meaningful connection that I could make between the self-efficacy of students from a low decile school to a high decile school. Future research and alternative research methodology may provide some indication of whether there are differences in efficacy beliefs of both staff and students in schools of differing decile ratings; however, at this stage, I accept this is a limitation of the current research.

The data gathered, however, does point towards notable differences in self-efficacy based on cultural distance. For both the student and teacher participants, the higher the cultural distance which was experienced, resulted in a higher likelihood of low self-efficacy scores. There are definite limitations to the study, particularly in the number of participants and the criteria used to identify cultural distance; however, the results do suggest that further investigation is warranted to discover correlations between cultural distance and self-efficacy. The data gathered also suggests that certain focus areas may provide increased opportunities to foster self-efficacy. The following chapter seeks to link the data to the literature presented in Chapter Three and provide insight as to what interventions may provide the most benefit to increasing self-efficacy in both students and teachers.

Chapter Six - Discussion of Findings

Introduction

Chapter Six explores the research findings and make links to the literature reviewed in Chapter Three. As part of this discussion, I have included possible intervention strategies that could be used by educational leaders to foster self-efficacy. The chapter is divided into three sections. Section one argues for the deliberate action of establishing culture as a capital asset rather than treating it as an object of distance, limiting access to education or resources. The second section expands on this and makes a case for strength-based differentiated instruction to cater to the needs of diverse students. The final section discusses increasing the understanding of and validating the two key concepts of this thesis, cultural capital and self-efficacy. The chapter concludes with justification for the preceding arguments based on the findings of networks of efficacy and the reciprocal nature of efficacy beliefs.

Section One - Cultural capital versus cultural distance and the valuing of self rather than social comparisons

Introduction

Chapter Three explored the nature of learned dispositions, considering cultural capital as a resource that can both inform the development of, and sustain beliefs of efficacy. Chapter Five explored what impact these dispositions had on the research participants in the classroom and took a more critical perspective, considering culture from a position of distance. In the following paragraphs, I will argue that for self-efficacy development, it is of primary importance that culture is seen as a capital asset rather than a deficit resulting in cultural distance. The literature reviewed in this thesis has made a clear case for the benefits of improving levels of self-efficacy, particularly in terms of academic outcomes. It also highlights damage that can be done through deficit or assimilationist thinking. The research findings have indicated that students experiencing moderate to high cultural distance (MCD or HCD) are more likely to have lower aggregated self-efficacy scores. This was evidenced as a 9.1% difference between the aggregated self-efficacy score between LCD and HCD students. Based on these findings, combined with the literature reviewed, I would argue that students with MCD or HCD, as identified in this thesis, are more likely to witness lower academic outcomes. Self-efficacy is a subjective construct and, therefore, can be improved without necessarily improving objective ability in a particular domain. Shifting from a cultural distance to a cultural capital perspective I believe is a crucial first step in acknowledging individual strengths to create a platform to foster positive beliefs regarding those strengths.

Cultural Capital versus Cultural Distance

In a New Zealand setting, the discussion around disparity is primarily oriented towards "social, economic and political disparities . . . between the descendents of the European colonisers (Pakeha) and the Indigenous Māori people" (Bishop et al., 2009). Somewhat unsurprisingly then the data collected in this research project suggests that cultural distance, as conceptualised in this thesis, from prevailing Eurocentric classroom culture is detrimental to self-efficacy. Learners are likely to face difficulties in engaging with content and will potentially struggle to negotiate the relationships necessary to access support from teachers and peers. This ability or inability to negotiate settings due to familiarity informed by cultural capital and the resultant struggle for resources is central to a Bourdieu's concept of field. For Bourdieu, the often finite resources available in the field results in a constant struggle that defines and places agents in a social structure (Costa & Murphy, 2015).

On a daily basis, both students and teachers are continually negotiating a number of fields dictated by social experiences that are in constant flux and often beyond their control. A student may have a bad experience in the playground and lash out at a peer in class; a teacher might have an upsetting interaction with a colleague then have to immediately teach their class. Combining this potentially erratic social environment with feelings of unfamiliarity due to differences in cultural capital can result in being forced to negotiate uncertain and potentially uncomfortable fields. If a student or teacher does not have the capacity, or perhaps more importantly, the resilience to deal with these uncontrollable inputs, it is likely that their self-efficacy will be eroded. The impact that this can have on teachers was particularly highlighted by the comment of HDTC when they stated that "you feed off the energy in the class", which also serves to acknowledge the somewhat intangible social dynamic of a classroom that influences efficacy beliefs.

Reinforcing efficacy beliefs for teachers

The teachers I interviewed, readily recognised that some students are much easier to engage with than others, at times suggesting that they just cannot engage with certain students at certain times; for example, "I recognise the differences in the students, that is nothing to do with me" (HDTA). If we consider Macias' (2013) argument that a focus on deficits can cause teachers to expect deficiency; then a teacher who is lacking self-efficacy to support challenging students may more readily shift from a positive perspective of cultural capital to one that considers cultural distance as a negative attribute that makes engagement more difficult. Once inefficacy sets in, then the reinforcing cycle of efficacy beliefs can result in self-fulfilling outcomes for teachers and students.

Teaching as inquiry, professional standards and appraisal systems are continually demanding that teachers operate as reflective practitioners and serving to remind them of

their deficiencies and areas of practice that need further refinement. Whether teachers have the ongoing resilience to engage with this process, or additional support when they are struggling, would suggest that reflective practice walks a fine line between the support or erosion of teacher efficacy. The paradox being that in order to increase their self-efficacy, teachers must first identify the areas in which their practice is not meeting the needs of the students, potentially eroding their existing beliefs of efficacy. If teachers reflect critically on their own practice and are observing deficits rather than strengths, they are constantly reminded of personal distance rather than personal capital.

Reinforcing efficacy beliefs for students

Similarly, for students, there are constant reminders of their capacity as they negotiate familiar or unfamiliar fields. From the responses of the students I interviewed, the most frequently referenced source that contributes to their efficacy information is that of their perspective of their ability compared to their peers, for example LDSB, "I mainly [ask] friends [for support] because I feel like teachers just summarise the question rather than telling us how to solve it". I would argue that combining the propensity for upward social comparison (Dijkstra et al., 2008) with the tendency of students to make social comparisons in monolithic lines of education (Bandura, 1997), is likely to result in negative perceptions of efficacy for students in non-differentiated classrooms. This is due to the students having increased opportunities to make comparisons to their higher performing peers if they are all working on the same task. Non-differentiated classrooms do not acknowledge diversity and cultural capital, and rather expect standard performance from all students. I would further argue that this effect may then be most detrimental to the efficacy development of students operating at either end of the academic achievement spectrum in the class, due to Marsh's (1987) big-fish-little-pond effect (BFLPE), and the tall poppy syndrome as described by Meissel and Rubie-Davies (2016).

If peer comparisons are the primary source of efficacy information, for students struggling to negotiate an unfamiliar setting and doing so with existing low levels of self-efficacy, BFLPE is more likely to erode their self-efficacy further. This is due to increased upward social comparison with the big fish of the class and feeling less able than their peers. If this results in a Matthew effect of the poor getting poorer, there is likely to be no change to the social reproduction of educational disparities. Providing differentiated instruction becomes crucial to avoid "convert[ing] instructional experiences into education in inefficacy" (Bandura, 1997, p. 175). I would suggest that for educators who are looking to support students who are experiencing moderate to high levels of cultural distance that differentiated instruction that encourages self, rather than social comparison, is of paramount importance. This is perhaps most relevant at the start of the year, as captured by LDTB who suggested that by providing experiences that offer increased opportunities

for students to appreciate early success makes them "feel really good about themselves, and it gives them a boost, an injection building their self-confidence".

Improving the self-efficacy of students

The survey responses of students indicate that specific components of efficacy beliefs may have an increased likelihood of improving overall self-efficacy. Targeted interventions aimed at improving responses to the questions with lower aggregated scores may provide the most substantial increases in overall self-efficacy. If it is possible to encourage self-comparisons, that also foster a sense of resiliency, further gains in self-efficacy might be conceivable. The nature of the responses to the student survey particularly the question, *when I'm struggling to accomplish something difficult, I focus on my progress instead of feeling discouraged*, tend to suggest that a number of students lack the resilience to keep trying when faced with challenging situations. For students experiencing high levels of cultural distance and low levels of self-efficacy, I would suggest that they are more frequently trying to 'accomplish something difficult', compared to their more efficacious and less culturally distant peers. Fostering a sense of resilience is, however, no small task; Zimmerman and Arunkumar (1994) suggest the resilience "is a multidimensional phenomenon that is context-specific and involves developmental change" (p. 4). Similarly to the development of self-efficacy then, the domain-specific nature of resiliency will need differentiated and complex support. In the following section, I will propose ways in which this support can foster both student and teacher self-efficacy.

Section Two - Strengths-based differentiated instruction

Introduction

I suggest that a strengths-based philosophical approach to education will provide a platform from which differentiation, resiliency, agency and ultimately self-efficacy can be fostered by acknowledging and prioritising capital. A strengths-based mindset offers a number of benefits that can work synchronously to increase perceptions of culture as capital while promoting self-efficacy through increases in self-comparisons. A strengths-based philosophy stands in complete contrast to deficit thinking and victim blaming, assuming that every learner has within them the capital to succeed and flourish (Lopez & Louis, 2009). This reorientation of thinking away from regarding students as having deficits or distance due to their background encourages students and teachers to identify and then build on their strengths. While a strengths-based philosophical position is far from a new idea; for example, Dewey (1938) stated that "the purpose of education is to allow each individual to come into full possession of his or her personal power" (p. 10), I will argue that this has been difficult to implement effectively.

Positioning strengths-based differentiated instruction in a New Zealand context - Culturally responsive pedagogy

Strengths-based education that responds to a student's cultural capital is often termed as culturally responsive pedagogy. Gay (2010) describes culturally responsive pedagogy as teaching "to and through [students'] personal and cultural strengths, their intellectual capabilities, and their prior accomplishments" (p. 26). In a New Zealand setting, the arguments for strengths-based educational philosophies, that deliver culturally responsive pedagogy underpin much of the recent efforts to address educational disparities. Much of this research is primarily oriented towards ethnic definitions of culture, seeking improved outcomes for Māori and Pasifika learners. For example, the Effective Teacher Profile established as part of the Te Kotahitanga research and development project requires that teachers "explicitly reject deficit theorising as a means of explaining Māori students' educational achievement" (Bishop & Berryman, 2009, p. 31). Central to Ka Hikitia, the current Māori education strategy is that "Māori students . . . enjoy and achieve education success as Māori" (Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 6), ensuring that their strengths are acknowledged and fostered. More recently the Ministry of Education's (2018c) Tapasā cultural competencies framework requires that teachers demonstrate "strengths-based practice, and [build] on the cultural and linguistic capital Pacific learners" (p. 11). However, despite the increased rhetoric of the Ministry, some authors have argued that little has changed for learners who are experiencing the largest educational disparities. For example, Berryman and Eley (2017) suggest that between the years of 2001 (the year Te Kotahitanga began) and 2015 "the daily experiences of Māori students within our schools has not dramatically improved" (p. 105).

Broadening the measures of success to deliver culturally responsive pedagogies

The findings of the recent Kia Eke Panuku reform initiative, as summarised by Berryman and Eley (2017), may give some insight as to why, in this case for Māori students, there is little benefit being seen as a result of recommended strengths-based approaches: "Kia Eke Panuku found a great deal of confusion and uncertainty about how to interpret, let alone implement strategies to address, the central Ka Hikitia vision of: *Māori students enjoying and achieving education success as Māori*" (p. 99, emphasis in original). It would seem that teachers were unable to implement success for Māori students as they either did not know, or could not come to a consensus, as to what that success looked like. Further investigation by an Expert Advisory Group and interviews with senior Māori students captured some ideas around what that success looked like. Firstly the Expert Advisory Group suggested that success for Māori students included:

- Living confidently—with affinity to whakapapa and at ease with a growing cultural competence in language, tikanga and identity.
- Connected to and in harmony with the people, the environment and systems

around about them.

• Articulate and confident in expressing thoughts, feelings and ideas.

• Skilled in building and navigating relational spaces.

• Thinking respectfully and critically about the world and ideas.

• Achieving qualifications from school and wider life that lead to future options and choice. (Berryman & Eley, 2017, p. 100)

While the interviews with senior Māori students uncovered the following themes:

• Being able to resist the negative stereotypes about being Māori

• Having Māori culture and values celebrated at school

• Being strong in your Māori cultural identity

• Understanding that success is part of who we are

• Developing and maintaining emotional and spiritual strength

• Being able to contribute to the success of others

• Experiencing the power of whanaungatanga

• Knowing, accepting and acknowledging the strength of working together

• Knowing that you can access explicit and timely direction

• Being able to build on your own experiences and the experiences of others (Berryman & Eley, 2017, p. 101)

While these two lists are specific to the success of Māori students in New Zealand, I believe that they illustrate the breadth of measures of success that are needed when attempting to apply strengths-based educational philosophies to deliver culturally responsive pedagogies beyond ethnic and potentially assimilationist definitions of culture. For all students currently experiencing cultural distance from prevailing educational practice in New Zealand, strengths-based and culturally responsive pedagogies demand that teachers broaden their measures of success. In reviewing culturally responsive pedagogies, Savage et al. (2011) argue that it is the role of all educationalists to ensure "that reform enables young people to learn without sacrificing who they are" (p. 196). This is only made possible by identifying the strengths of each student and then providing differentiated instruction that caters to each of their individual needs. To extend the central tenet of Ka Hikitia, that Māori students enjoy and achieve education success as Māori, if students are compared to their peers who all have varying different cultural capital, they will not be able to experience success as themselves.

Challenges in delivering culturally responsive pedagogies

The difficulty for teachers in delivering strengths-based, culturally responsive pedagogies is complex and according to Sleeter (2011) can be readily oversimplified resulting in little meaningful change for students. Sleeter goes on to suggest that culturally responsive

pedagogy is often reduced to: “cultural celebration, trivialisation, essentialising culture, and substituting cultural for political analysis of inequalities” (p. 12). She goes on to suggest this is due to limited research that “systematically documents” (p. 16) the impact of culturally responsive pedagogy on student achievement, and potential political backlash due to the fear of upsetting the established social order. I believe that these two points are particularly relevant for educators, especially in a New Zealand context. The first of these points is based on the thinking that despite culturally responsive pedagogy being a frequently used term and intervention strategy, there is a mixed consensus as to what it looks like in the classroom and, therefore, difficulty in quantifying its impact on student outcomes. While the second argues that neoliberal reforms towards standardisation and equality for all, limit the ability for teachers to provide responsive pedagogy that engages students, acknowledges cultural capital, and offers “equity and justice” (Sleeter, 2011, p. 19).

The four ways of oversimplifying culture outlined above provide a useful platform to avoid delivering culturally responsive pedagogy that operates counter to its intent. Celebrating culture while being important in the building of belonging and raising awareness, becomes tokenistic if it does not connect culture to learning. Nykiel-Herbert (2010) suggests that a major reason minority and immigrant newcomers are unsuccessful in schools is due to their culture being celebrated, rather than used "as a resource for their own learning" (p. 2). Trivialisation occurs when culturally responsive pedagogy is treated as a checklist to be done to students, or as a measure of accountability rather than a paradigm shift to connect with students. Sleeter (2011) provides a New Zealand example of essentialising culture as referring to teachers who may have a “fixed and homogeneous conception of the culture of a minoritised group . . . this might take the form of teachers (who may be Māori themselves) assuming that their own understanding of te ao Māori applies to all Māori” (p. 14). Finally, if cultural analysis is substituted for political analysis, culturally responsive pedagogy will remain in the domain of educators working with culture, rather than addressing systemic issues of injustice that face minority cultures.

For teachers in New Zealand I would suggest culturally responsive pedagogy is far from simply using te reo Māori to identify the days of the week, celebrating Samoan language week, or starting the year with a pōwhiri. While these strategies contribute towards celebration and belonging, culturally responsive pedagogy must acknowledge and value the capital of all learners and how it enables their learning and academic outcomes, rather than treating culture as an ethnicity-based side note. In order to try and move beyond treating culture as “laundry list of immutable cultural traits” (p. 25), González, Moll and Amanti (2005) suggest that cultural capital be treated as Funds of Knowledge that considers that "people are competent, they have knowledge, and their life experiences have given them that knowledge" (p. x). González (2005) goes on to suggest that this becomes possible only when institutions “no longer reify culture, when lived experiences become validated as

a source of knowledge, and when the process of how knowledge is constructed and translated between groups located within nonsymmetrical relations of power is questioned" (p. 42). This approach to culturally responsive pedagogy and the considering of culture as funds of knowledge is antithetical to what Guti rrez, Asato, Santos and Gotanda (2002) would define as "backlash pedagogy" (p. 335). Backlash pedagogy assumes that diversity and difference are "problems to be eliminated or remediated" (Guti rrez et al., 2002, p. 337) and can become embedded in education as teachers try to meet the needs of standardised testing.

How then can educators deliver culturally responsive pedagogy?

In the preceding paragraphs, I have made a case for incorporating culturally responsive pedagogy as the method of delivering strengths-based differentiated instruction that acknowledges and promotes the individual's success in diverse classrooms. However, delivering culturally responsive pedagogy that moves beyond eloquence and delivers meaningful outcomes to students is challenging to initiate and sustain. In the following section, I will detail how I believe educational leaders can best implement and leverage culturally responsive pedagogies to promote self-efficacy development in students and teachers.

Section Three - Educational leadership responses to cultural capital and self-efficacy

Introduction

In the following paragraphs I will link research, data and my conclusions to provide strategies that educators can use to address my primary research question:

> How can educational leaders foster an environment that facilitates increased opportunities for teachers and students to develop their self-efficacy in the classroom?

Based on the findings of this thesis I believe that educational leaders can work towards achieving this aim by focussing on: increasing understanding of self-efficacy, validating cultural capital, increasing the strength and breadth of efficacy networks, fostering culturally responsive pedagogy to increase positive reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs. In the following paragraphs, I will expand and exemplify each of these topics.

Increasing understanding of self-efficacy

Confusion and overload are identified by Fullan and Quinn (2015) as being at the top of the list of teacher concerns signified in part by initiative fatigue and ad-hoc projects. With the recent identification of collective efficacy as having a substantial effect size on student learning by Hattie (2015), I suggest that there is the potential that efficacy will become the latest piece of educational jargon packaged up into an initiative and presented as solving a

breadth of educational problems. Attempting to deliver an initiative without increasing the intrinsic motivation is likely to result in a 'carrot or stick' methodology that has been argued emphatically against in a school context by a number of authors. For example, DuFour and Mattos (2013) state that there is no evidence that teachers withhold practice from their students unless they are incentivised, while Pink (2010) has demonstrated that wielding a bigger stick is likely to have a negative impact on knowledge workers.

The underlying assumption in this thesis is that one of the most critical roles of educational leaders is to increase teacher agency by fostering increases in self-efficacy. The literature reviewed suggests that increases in self-efficacy will help improve engagement, motivation and ultimately academic outcomes for students. I would suggest that it will be difficult for leaders to achieve this goal in an environment that does not understand or value self-efficacy. While it is possible that self-efficacy can be fostered without explicit definition or labelling, I believe there are benefits from firstly identifying and exploring the concept, prior to any interventions to try and foster it. As outlined in my research findings, I do not believe that self-efficacy was a familiar term to the teachers and students that participated in this research project. Perhaps this illustrates the lack of familiarity with the idea of self-efficacy, or perhaps it points towards the difficulty of measuring it in a fast and frequent manner. This lack of familiarity I believe is the area that first needs addressing by educational leaders.

Adding to the potential for obscurity is the somewhat similar and possibly confusing presentation of efficacy terms: self-efficacy, general self-efficacy, teacher efficacy, leadership efficacy and collective teacher efficacy. I would argue that of these five terms there is benefit from focussing initially solely on 'self-efficacy', whether that be student or teacher self-efficacy. As described in Chapter Three, general self-efficacy is a contentious construct that may or may not result in the transferal of efficacy beliefs across domains, and I do not believe there is enough consensus at this stage to warrant including this in efforts to improve self-efficacy. Teacher efficacy can, for the most part, be defined as self-efficacy as it relates to an individual's teaching life and is, therefore, I believe implicit when talking to teachers about their self-efficacy. Leadership efficacy may be worth exploring solely within leadership teams although I would suggest that this would only be beneficial once individuals understand their own self-efficacy and how it contributes to a team. Finally, collective teacher efficacy is a concept that I believe is so broad and multifaceted that initiating discussion utilising this terminology will likely overwhelm teachers and possibly lead to feelings of helplessness.

To provide the clarity necessary for teachers to understand self-efficacy, I would recommend that educational leaders first investigate existing levels of self-efficacy across their staff. This should be done by measuring individual efficacy utilising an anonymous

survey, similar to the one used in this research. If the results are similar to the findings uncovered through this research process, I expect that this data will show trends with some questions scoring higher than others. Exploring these aggregated results with teachers will allow for understanding as to the components that contribute to self-efficacy without confronting individual teachers with their own strengths or weaknesses. From this point, educational leaders can create a consistent definition of self-efficacy within the school taking into account the strengths shown in the survey data. Collective areas of improvement can be identified prior to further strategies being used to work with individual teachers to improve efficacy beliefs across the school.

Validating cultural capital

The second strategy that I believe would support increases in self-efficacy is that of validating cultural capital. To validate cultural capital leaders must invert the thinking behind backlash pedagogy and the viewpoint that schools must "help 'disadvantaged' students whose race and class background has left them lacking necessary knowledge, social skills, abilities and cultural capital" (Yosso, 2005, p. 70). This is a substantial shift in thinking for many educators, and Khalifa, Gooden and Davis (2016) argue that "validating all cultural epistemologies and behaviors requires a critical self-reflection and courage that is not common in many school leaders" (p. 20). New Zealand research indicates that there is increasingly widespread valuing of broader cultural capital, such as that of kaupapa Māori through initiatives such as te kotahitanga (Berryman & Eley, 2017; Savage et al., 2011). The same research, however, indicates that while a concept of mainstream schooling exists there is potential for "epistemological racism embedded in fundamental cornerstone features [that will reflect] the dominant culture" (Savage et al., 2011, p. 195).

For educational leaders to validate cultural capital, they must accept that all students, teachers, parents and communities contribute their own unique experiences that are not only valid but imperative for their own success. Terrell and Lindsey (2009) suggest that for both teachers and leaders this a journey to "cultural proficiency" (p. 20) that consists of three processes: firstly, accepting that achievement gaps are established and remain persistent; secondly, reflecting critically on the values, behaviours, policies and practices of schools; and thirdly, listening to the students and communities and putting their needs before that of the school. Cross, Bazron, Dennis and Isaacs (1989) provide a continuum that while developed in the medical field may provide a useful starting point for leaders to critically self-reflect how culturally proficient they are. This continuum starts at cultural destructiveness where attitudes, behaviours and practices are detrimental and work towards the destruction of culture. The continuum then progresses through, cultural incapacity, cultural blindness, cultural pre-competence, cultural competence before arriving at cultural proficiency. Cultural proficiency as argued by Cross et al. (1989), is the point at which leaders would contribute to the "knowledge base of culturally competent practice" (p.

17), through research, developing and modelling new approaches and advocating this practice to support the development of others.

For leaders and teachers, the validation of culture through the practice of cultural proficiency is more than just finding ways to work with those who are different to themselves. It is a "paradigmatic shift away from the current, dominant group view of regarding 'underperforming' cultural demographic groups of students as problematic" (Terrell & Lindsey, 2009, p. 22). I would argue that most schools would be familiar with articulating ideologies of cultural validation, for example valuing diversity and celebrating culture. However, I expect that this cultural validation is more readily accepted when cultural viewpoints conform or at least do not challenge the status quo of the dominant culture. Khalifa et al. (2016) illustrate this point utilising hip-hop culture in the United States, arguing that resistance to accepting behaviours and attributes of hip-hop culture have resulted in the exclusion of minoritised students from schools. The implication of embedding validation of cultural capital in schools is, therefore, extensive and potentially very challenging. Only by identifying current values and practices and placing them on the cultural validation continuum will allow educational leaders to begin to model cultural proficiency.

Increasing the strength and breadth of positive reciprocal efficacy networks

As detailed in the research findings I believe that efficacy beliefs are informed and reinforced by familiar and preferential relationships. Although there was limited research available to support this claim, the work by Biddulph, Biddulph and Biddulph (2003) referenced in Chapter Three, demonstrates the potential emphasis placed on peer learning as a source of learning information. Not only do I believe that self-efficacy is reinforced by familiar networks, I also argue that efficacy beliefs are reciprocal in their nature. This concept was even less prevalent in the literature reviewed; however, I believe that this is an area for potential future research. Based on the assumption that efficacy and inefficacy feeds on itself, I assert that it is of primary importance that these efficacy networks are contributing to positive efficacy reinforcement. Broadening efficacy networks so that more individuals have the opportunity to reinforce positive efficacy beliefs will further enhance individual and collective efficacy. I propose two key strategies that educational leaders can use to work towards these goals; both utilise an understanding of self-efficacy and the validation of cultural capital. Firstly, I suggest deliberately seeking to increase the breadth of efficacy networks to promote positive efficacy information. Secondly, utilising culturally responsive pedagogy to increase positive reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs.

Increasing the breadth of positive efficacy networks

If educational leaders can broaden the network of positively socially constructed efficacy information amongst their teachers, I believe that not only will self-efficacy improve I also

believe this will contribute to a greater sense of collective efficacy. From the observations and interviews I conducted, I believe sources of efficacy information might be constructed from reasonably limited interactions with certain individuals. If for example, a teacher is struggling with a particular student in their class this may disproportionately impact their self-efficacy if their other efficacy networks are not strong. Goddard et al. (2017) make a case for facilitating collaboration and peer observation to increase collective efficacy, and I believe this is an appropriate strategy for fostering self-efficacy. For this to be effective, I would argue that this needs to originate from a strengths-based position that first needs to be established through language, practice, processes and celebration.

In suggesting ways of implementing The Values in Action framework developed by Peterson and Seligman, I believe Linkins, Niemiec, Gillham and Mayerson (2015) provide useful strategies which can be transferred to a strengths-based approach to promote self-efficacy development. Firstly, they suggest that developing strengths-based language. I have previously suggested utilising a survey to increase understanding of self-efficacy; in the process of doing this, leaders could further leverage advantage of this process to create vocabulary that contributes to higher levels of self-efficacy; for example, resilience when faced with challenging students. Secondly, the authors go on to promote "strengths-spotting" (Linkins et al., 2015, p. 67), in both self and others. When fostering collaboration and peer observation it will be important for leaders to create frameworks, practices and templates that support positive strengths-spotting in both self and others. Similarly to valuing cultural capital, self-efficacy should be built upon the strengths of individuals rather than looking for deficits that need to be fixed. The third component is the purposeful application of strengths to improve outcomes. Once strengths have been identified individuals can work towards more frequently applying their own strengths and incorporating the strengths of others into their practice to improve outcomes. Finally and critically for fostering a sense of collective efficacy, Linkins et al. promote identifying and celebrating the strengths of the collective. Establishing a starting point by surveying staff, leaders have a platform from which shifts in practice can be acknowledged and by increasing effective positive communication exemplification of practice is likely to evolve organically.

This strengths-based leadership approach to broadening positive efficacy networks aligns with the work completed by M. Tschannen-Moran and B. Tschannen-Moran (2011) on using appreciative inquiry to improve school climate. The authors argue that by focussing on strengths rather than deficits, the conversation is changed from "complaining to celebrating" (p. 444). A strengths-based approach means that teachers are no longer looking for things that are wrong, for people to blame for them being wrong, and trying to fix all the things that are wrong. In itself, any successful shift towards strengths-based

thinking will improve self-efficacy as people more readily acknowledge their own positive capacity.

Fostering culturally responsive pedagogy to increase positive reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs

While the strengths-based approach to building positive efficacy networks detailed in the preceding paragraphs focuses initially on teacher-teacher relationships, increasing positive reciprocal impacts of efficacy beliefs is more oriented towards teacher-student relationships. Most illustrative of the importance of promoting this was when HDTA told me she felt she was "smashing it" when successfully interacting with a student. If teachers feel that they can support a wider audience of students, the reciprocal nature of efficacy beliefs is likely to result in a reinforcing positive spiral that continues to develop self-efficacy for both teachers and students. I believe that the conduit for increasing the frequency of these positive 'I'm smashing it' moments is strengths-based differentiated instruction in the form of culturally responsive pedagogy. At the beginning of this chapter, I argued for the benefits of culturally responsive pedagogy to counter deficit thinking and address the educational disparities currently witnessed in schools. Similarly for the strengths-based leadership approaches described above, the sole act of shifting the focus from deficiency to capital is likely to promote self-efficacy, as teachers and students become more aware of their own capacity. In addition to this, culturally responsive pedagogy will increase the ability of teachers to respond to the needs of the students in front of them and deliver the support necessary for them to reach their own success.

There is abundant literature on strategies to promote culturally responsive pedagogy; for example, Gay (2010), Richards, Brown and Forde (2007), however, recent findings of Khalifa et al. (2016) suggest that leaders must go further than solely promoting culturally responsive pedagogy they must "promote culturally responsive school environments" (p. 25). This should cater for not only the needs of the students and teachers but also the wider school community; central to this argument is promoting inclusivity and including student culture throughout policy and practice. A recent study of the impacts of cultural inclusion completed by Parris, Neves and La Salle (2018) argues that "acceptance and support is essential for all students" (p. 641) and posits that as diversity increases positive perceptions of the school climate decreased. They go on to state that the first step towards achieving culturally responsive school environments is to create a "safe and supportive school environments where students and teachers are treated fairly regardless of their cultural identities" (p. 642). Schools and educational leaders must ensure that their practices and actions work towards achieving genuinely inclusive environments that build on the capital of all stakeholders.

Summary

In this chapter, I have argued for transformational change to create a new social reality in schools that validates cultural capital and promotes self-efficacy development through strengths-based approaches to teaching and leadership. In the first section, I argued for the importance of perceiving culture from a capital perspective rather than a distance perspective. I then explored and argued for strengths-based differentiated instruction in the form of culturally responsive pedagogy prior to detailing some strategies educational leaders could employ to achieve these goals. While this might be easy to espouse from a theoretical point of view the challenges to effectively implement this are substantial and will be contextually unique. Starting with a potentially uncomfortable journey of critical self-reflection, leaders must respond to the diverse needs of students to promote positive self-efficacy development and improved achievement outcomes. The final chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations for future research.

Chapter Seven - Conclusion and Recommendations

Introduction

This final chapter initially summarises the significance of this research project and presents the key findings. The limitations of this research project are discussed prior to the chapter concluding with recommendations for future research.

The significance of this research project and implications due to key findings

Self-efficacy and cultural capital are both highly complex, subjective and variable in their nature. As a result of this, I found that I needed to consider a broad spectrum of literature from at times disparate perspectives. I found I needed to quickly define and conceptualise both of these terms as they related to my thesis, in order to provide focus and direction for my research. However, I found that these definitions evolved throughout the course of my study. I have redressed these concepts a number of times and expect I will continue to do so as I apply the new knowledge I have gained through this process to my teaching practice. I have provided a definition of both of these terms as I currently conceptualise them in this thesis which has provided the foundation for my investigation into how these two terms could be applied in a New Zealand context. I have explored these terms and how they relate to both students and teachers, and how educational leaders can engage with them to promote increased academic outcomes for students. As argued at the beginning of this thesis, skills, behaviours and attributes required for 21st-century learners are evolving, and educators are coming under pressure to deliver "transformational learning system[s]" (Timperley et al., 2014, p. 3). It is my hope that research on self-efficacy and cultural capital will help to shape the strategies employed to deliver these systems.

Based on the literature reviewed and the findings presented in this thesis I have argued for educational leaders to deliver transformational change. The research findings in part illustrate the complexities of measuring and defining the factors that contribute to both self-efficacy and cultural capital. It would appear that there are links that are worth further exploring between the concepts of cultural distance and self-efficacy. There also is some evidence of student self-efficacy contributing to teacher efficacy. I believe a modification of the social reality is necessary to validate cultural capital and through strengths-based leadership and pedagogy improve the efficacy beliefs of teachers and students. I acknowledge that in some contexts this transformational change will already be well underway, but while disparities exist in educational outcomes; there is still work that needs to be done.

Central to my arguments throughout this thesis is this shift towards a strengths-based educational philosophy that not only recognises but values the difference in individuals. I

believe that a strengths-based lens is fundamental to improving beliefs of efficacy and, therefore, needs to exist across schools, from Boards of Trustees through to Principals and leaders of the school, to the teachers and the students. I envisage that this could initially be developed by applying a strengths-based leadership approach as detailed by Santamaría and Santamaría (2013) in their theory of Applied Critical Leadership. This will provide a platform from which culturally responsive pedagogies can be critically reviewed to see if schools are meeting the needs of diverse learners and "[enabling] young people to learn without sacrificing who they are" (Savage et al., 2011, p. 196).

In recent years, a number of initiatives have promoted culturally responsive pedagogies to meet the needs of diverse learners and address the disparities witnessed in academic outcomes in New Zealand. However, as illustrated by Berryman and Eley (2017) these strategies may not be dramatically improving the outcomes for the students they are designed to assist. The process of critical self-reflection to reach a position of cultural proficiency is potentially not as widespread as is necessary for true change to be facilitated for minoritised learners. Educational leaders must ensure they engage with difficult conversations regarding the denial of difference that is still witnessed in New Zealand classrooms (Turner et al., 2015). Only then will they be acting as advocates for all students and ensuring that culture is not only accepted but validated.

Limitations of this research project

Throughout the presentation of this thesis, I have identified a number of limitations due to the nature of the methodology employed and the breadth of literature available. In the following paragraphs, I will expand on these and illustrate how they impacted on this research project.

There is a substantial collection of literature regarding self-efficacy, much of it based on the work and assumptions of Albert Bandura. At times I found it difficult to find a critical voice in this literature as most authors accepted Bandura's work without much scepticism. There does seem to be abundant evidence that reinforces much of his work regarding the benefits of self-efficacy. Few authors have made links between self-efficacy and cultural capital; most examples I discovered highlight differences utilising race-based ethnic markers. Throughout this literature on self-efficacy, I also found it difficult to find evidence of student self-efficacy impacting teacher efficacy. At the outset of this project, I had assumed that student self-efficacy would impact on teacher efficacy and was surprised to find little evidence of this process. It was also difficult to draw conclusions on the domain-specific or generalised nature of self-efficacy due to the contradictory viewpoints presented in various literature. While there is a wealth of evidence pointing towards the domain-specific nature of self-efficacy; there is also a convincing argument presenting generalised views of self-efficacy.

It would seem collective efficacy has gained increasing prominence in educational research over the course of this study, illustrated to me in part when I returned from study leave to be handed an article during our school's professional development entitled *The Power of Collective Efficacy* (Donohoo, Hattie, & Eells, 2018). This research project intended to explore self-efficacy from a primarily individual perspective, and therefore it has been challenging to make links with collective efficacy.

In order to investigate whether cultural distance had an impact on self-efficacy, I needed to determine identifying factors that I could use to delineate cultural distance amongst participants. It was difficult to do this in a way that captured the breadth of factors that I perceived influenced cultural distance. I had to settle for indicators that I believed would provide evidence towards, rather than a definitive list of factors that influenced cultural distance. In order to create these, I used the research of Tunmer, Chapman and Prochnow (2006) that indicated that preschool education, socio-economic background and literacy-based support based on home language had an impact on initial self-efficacy. I also included ethnicity and gender as these are commonly referenced in a range of literature discussing disparities. The links that I have drawn between socio-economic background and cultural distance are only generalised by selecting schools from opposing ends of the decile spectrum; they do not take into account individual participants' socio-economic background.

I carried the limitations I uncovered during the literature review into the methodology of this project and was faced with challenges determining the methodology that would provide the most worthwhile answers to the research questions I posed. The methodology I employed sought to find a balance between providing thick rich descriptions of both self-efficacy and cultural capital to provide Denzin's (1989, cited in Creswell & Miller, 2000) "deep, dense, detailed accounts" (p. 128), while providing enough transferability that the research was useful for teachers and educational leaders. Limiting the number of case schools to two allowed me to delve deeper into the data; however, it was restrictive in the transferability of this data. By including a third school to broaden the survey data collected, I hoped to somewhat mitigate against the small number of participants from the case study schools. Even so, the breadth of responses collected, particularly by teacher participants is limited and therefore the conclusions I have drawn based on this data may not be representative of a broader population of students and teachers.

As I started to communicate this research project to teachers, I found that self-efficacy was not a term that was readily understood. In itself, I realised that this could potentially limit any discussion that I had with research participants depending on the language I used. In order to mitigate against this limitation in each interview, I clarified the intent of my

research, which was not to “research your ability to complete a task, rather whether or not you *believe* you can complete a task”. Teachers readily spoke about their belief in their capacity rather than speaking of the self-efficacy specifically. I believe that by the careful explanation of language throughout the interviews I was able to curtail the impact of this limitation successfully.

There were a number of specific limitations that I encountered when analysing the data and making links between observed behaviours due to the limited number of participants. Foremost are links that I have made between cultural distance and self-efficacy. Based on the responses of the participants in this research, there does seem to be some links between cultural distance, as it is conceptualised in this thesis, and self-efficacy. However, due to the small sample size and the aforementioned difficulty in establishing cultural distance markers I could only draw tentative conclusions. Utilising the methodology selected, I could also not investigate the contributing factors that may have influenced why home language, for example, seemed to influence self-efficacy. It was not possible to make links between the self-efficacy of students and teachers from schools of differing deciles as the sample population was far too small. This limited my ability to draw any conclusions regarding socio-economic background and self-efficacy.

I was also interested in whether student self-efficacy had any impact on teacher self-efficacy. Using the methodology I selected, I could not draw transferable conclusions as to whether participants were experiencing this phenomenon. The participants did suggest that this may be the case, but in order to postulate this link, I would need to substantially increase the sample size of participants and measure both student and teacher efficacy across a range of classes and environments.

Recommendations for future research

Based on the findings of this research project and due to the limitations illustrated in the preceding paragraphs, there are a number of areas where I believe future research could further explore cultural capital and self-efficacy.

Firstly, I believe that there is further exploration that could be done to create a definition that considers both self-efficacy and cultural capital concurrently. Originating from a socio-cultural perspective a definition of self-efficacy that views culture as a whole way of life may provide a useful platform to further explore the social premise of self-efficacy. During the course of this thesis I have considered these as related and at times intertwined terms; however, the further I consider this the more I believe that the lines delineating the two are blurred. Perhaps developing a definition that places increased emphasis on the social aspect of self will provide increased voice from which further argument can be made promoting agentic thinking regarding what could be termed cultural self-efficacy capital.

Secondly, I believe that the findings of this thesis justify further research into whether cultural distance influences self-efficacy. Initially, more work needs to be done to define cultural distance and formulate more accurate indicators that can be used to acknowledge areas in which students and teachers are currently experiencing distance due to the prevailing practices in the education system.

Thirdly, once established, these markers of cultural distance need to be explored with research participants as to what factors contributing to these markers are influencing efficacy beliefs.

Fourthly, future research may also explore whether links between student self-efficacy and teacher efficacy exist. If student self-efficacy is found to influence teacher efficacy the argument for strengths-based differentiated instruction becomes even more pertinent to try and get teachers to focus on what they can do, rather than what they cannot do, for the students in front of them.

Finally, I believe that work could be initiated to increase the understanding of self-efficacy in the teaching profession. There are a number of terms relating to self-efficacy that I expect provide more confusion than clarity, particularly regarding generalisations of self-efficacy. As a result, there is less consensus to be found regarding appropriate interventions that can be made to support self-efficacy development. However, based on the extensive existing literature available arguing for both positions, I expect that this is an area that educators may have to accept uncertainty. Future research could be used to uncover whether teachers have an understanding of self-efficacy and whether this understanding is important for their efficacy development.

Summary

This intent of this thesis has been to shed further light on cultural capital and self-efficacy. Despite the small scale of this research project, I believe that the findings justify future research into this area. I believe that it is the role of educational leaders to shift thinking of not only teachers, but also potentially themselves, towards positive perceptions of capital. By repositioning the lens to a strengths-based one, educational leaders can limit the impacts of cultural distance on efficacy development and promote agentic thinking in regard to cultural capital and self-efficacy. I believe the implications of the findings of this research are particularly important considering the current uncertain climate and the shifting role of education from one of teaching content knowledge to teaching learning dispositions.

References

Anderson, R. N., Greene, M. L., & Loewen, P. S. (1988). Relationships among teachers' and students' thinking skills, sense of efficacy, and student achievement. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, *34*(2), 148–165.

Armstrong, D. M. (2002). *A materialist theory of the mind*. London, England: Routledge.

Asendorpf, J. B., Warkentin, V., & Baudonnière, P.-M. (1996). Self-awareness and other-awareness. II: Mirror self-recognition, social contingency awareness, and synchronic imitation. *Developmental Psychology*, *32*(2), 313–321.

Bandura, A. (1977a). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, *84*(2), 191–215.

Bandura, A. (1977b). *Social learning theory*. Toronto, Canada: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Toronto, Canada: Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *The American Psychologist*, *44*(9), 1175–1184.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. London, England: Macmillan.

Bandura, A. (2000). Exercise of human agency through collective efficacy. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *9*(3), 75–78.

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (2001). Self-efficacy beliefs as shapers of children's aspirations and career trajectories. *Child Development*, *72*(1), 187–206.

Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S. A. (1961). Transmission of aggression through imitation of aggressive models. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *63*, 575–582.

Bandura, A., & Schunk, D. H. (1981). Cultivating competence, self-efficacy, and

intrinsic interest through proximal self-motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *41*(3), 586–598.

Barone, C. (2006). Cultural capital, ambition and the explanation of inequalities in learning outcomes: A comparative analysis. *Sociology*, *40*(6), 1039–1058.

Belbin, R. M. (2010). *Team roles at work*. London, England: Routledge.

Berryman, M., & Eley, E. (2017). Succeeding as Māori: Māori students' views on our stepping up to the Ka Hikitia challenge. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, *52*(1), 93–107.

Biddulph, F., Biddulph, J., & Biddulph, C. (2003). *The complexity of community and family influences on children's achievement in New Zealand: Best evidence synthesis*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education.

Biesta, G. J. J., & Burbules, N. C. (2004). *Pragmatism and educational research*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Bishop, R. (1996). *Collaborative research stories: Whakawhanaungatanga*. Palmerston North, NZ: Dunmore.

Bishop, R., & Berryman, M. (2009). The Te Kotahitanga effective teaching profile. *Set: Research Information for Teachers*, *2*, 27e33.

Bishop, R., Berryman, M., Cavanagh, T., & Teddy, L. (2009). Te Kotahitanga: Addressing educational disparities facing Māori students in New Zealand. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *25*(5), 734–742.

Bishop, R., Berryman, M., Wearmouth, J., Peter, M., & Clapham, S. (2012). Professional development, changes in teacher practice and improvements in indigenous students' educational performance: A case study from New Zealand. *Teaching and Teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and Studies*, *28*(5), 694–705.

Bleazby, J. (2013). *Social reconstruction learning: Dualism, Dewey and philosophy in schools*. London, England: Routledge.

Bong, M., & Skaalvik, E. M. (2003). Academic self-concept and self-efficacy: How different are they really? *Educational Psychology Review*, *15*(1), 1–40.

Bordens, K., & Horowitz, I. (2017). *Social psychology*. London, England: Psychology Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1977a). Cultural reproduction and social reproduction. In J. Karabel & A. H. Halsey (Eds.), *Power and ideology in education* (pp. 487–511). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1977b). *Outline of a theory of practice*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). New York, NY: Greenwood Publishing Group.

Bourdieu, P. (1990). *The logic of practice*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Bourdieu, P., & Wacquant, L. J. D. (1992). *An invitation to reflexive sociology*. Cambridge, England: Polity.

Bradley, R. H., Caldwell, B. M., & Rock, S. L. (1988). Home environment and school performance: A ten-year follow-up and examination of three models of environmental action. *Child Development*, *59*(4), 852–867.

Bryman, A. (2015). *Social research methods*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Burke, C. (2015). Habitus and graduate employment: A re/structured structure and the role of biographical research. In C. Costa & M. Murphy (Eds.), *Bourdieu, habitus and social research* (pp. 55–73). London, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Burnett, P. C., & Mandel, V. (2010). Praise and feedback in the primary classroom: Teachers' and students' perspectives. *Australian Journal of Educational & Developmental Psychology*, *10*, 145–154.

Calhoun, C. (1993). Habitus, field, and capital: The question of historical specificity.

In E. L. A. M. P. Craig Calhoun (Ed.), *Bourdieu: Critical perspectives* (pp. 61–88). Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Çevik, G. B. (2017). The roles of life satisfaction, teaching efficacy, and self-esteem in predicting teachers' job satisfaction. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, *5*(3), 338–346.

Chen, G., & Bliese, P. D. (2002). The role of different levels of leadership in predicting self and collective efficacy: Evidence for discontinuity. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 549–556.

Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, *4*(1), 62–83.

Cho, J., & Trent, A. (2006). Validity in qualitative research revisited. *Qualitative Research*, *6*(3), 319–340.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2017). *Research methods in education*. London, England: Routledge.

Coladarci, T. (1992). Teachers' sense of efficacy and commitment to teaching. *Journal of Experimental Education*, *60*(4), 323–337.

Cooley, C. H. (1902). *Human nature and the social order*. New York, NY: Scribner.

Costa, C., & Murphy, M. (2015). Bourdieu and the application of habitus across the social sciences. In C. Costa & M. Murphy (Eds.), *Bourdieu, habitus and social research* (pp. 3–17). London, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design (International student edition): Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory Into Practice*, *39*(3), 124–130.

Cross, T. L., Bazron, B. J., Dennis, K. W., & Isaacs, M. R. (1989). Towards a culturally competent system of care: A monograph on effective services for minority children who are severely emotionally disturbed. Retrieved from

http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED330171.pdf

Dancy, J. (1991). *Introduction to contemporary epistemology*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell.

Dewey, J. (1897). My pedagogic creed. *School Journal*, *54*(1), 77–80.

Dewey, J. (1925). *The later works, 1925-1953: Experience and nature. vol. 1*. (J. A. Boydston, Ed.). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience in education*. New York, NY: Collier.

Dijkstra, P., Kuyper, H., van der Werf, G., Buunk, A. P., & van der Zee, Y. G. (2008). Social comparison in the classroom: A review. *Review of Educational Research*, *78*(4), 828–879.

Donohoo, J., Hattie, J., & Eells, R. (2018). The power of collective efficacy. *Educational Leadership: Journal of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development*, *75*(6), 40–44.

DuFour, R., & Mattos, M. (2013). How do principals really improve schools? *Educational Leadership*, *70*(7), 34–40.

Duval, S., & Wicklund, R. A. (1972). *A theory of objective self awareness*. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Eaton, M. J., & Dembo, M. H. (1997). Differences in the motivational beliefs of Asian American and non-Asian students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *89*(3), 433–440.

Edgerton, J. D., & Roberts, L. W. (2014). Cultural capital or habitus? Bourdieu and beyond in the explanation of enduring educational inequality. *School Field*, *12*(2), 193–220.

Education Review Office. (2012). Evaluation at a glance: Priority learners in New Zealand schools. Retrieved from http://www.ero.govt.nz/publications/evaluation-at-a-glance-priority-learners-in-new-zealand-schools/

Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations*, *7*(2), 117–140.

Fetterman, D. M. (2010). *Ethnography: Step-by-step*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fitzgerald, T., Youngs, H., & Grootenboer, P. (2003). Bureaucratic control or professional autonomy? Performance management in New Zealand schools. *School Leadership & Management*, *23*(1), 91–91.

Fullan, M., & Quinn, J. (2015). *Coherence: The right drivers in action for schools, districts, and systems*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Furness, J., Nikora, L. W., Hodgetts, D., & Robertson, N. (2016). Beyond ethics to morality: Choices and relationships in bicultural research settings: Ethics in bicultural research. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *26*(1), 75–88.

Gage, N. L. (1989). The paradigm wars and their aftermath a "historical" sketch of research on teaching since 1989. *Educational Researcher* , *18*(7), 4–10.

Gallup, G. G. (1982). Self-awareness and the emergence of mind in primates. *American Journal of Primatology*, *2*(3), 237–248.

Garrison, J. (1994). Realism, Deweyan pragmatism, and educational research. *Educational Researcher*, *23*(1), 5.

Gaumer Erickson, A. S., & Noonan, P. M. (2018). Self-efficacy formative questionnaire. In A. S. Gaumer Erickson & P. M. Noonan (Eds.), *The skills that matter: Teaching interpersonal and intrapersonal competencies in any classroom* (pp. 175–176). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Gaumer Erickson, A. S., Soukup, J. H., Noonan, P. M., & McGurn, L. (2018). Self-efficacy formative questionnaire technical report. Retrieved from http://www.researchcollaboration.org/uploads/Self-EfficacyQuestionnaireInfo.pdf

Gay, G. (2010). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. New

York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Goddard, R. D., Skrla, L., & Salloum, S. J. (2017). The role of collective efficacy in closing student achievement gaps: A mixed methods study of school leadership for excellence and equity. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, *22*(4), 220–236.

González, N. (2005). Beyond culture: The hybridity of funds of knowledge. In N. Gonzalez, L. C. Moll, & C. Amanti (Eds.), *Funds of knowledge: Theorizing practices in households, communities, and classrooms* (pp. 41–58). London, England: Routledge.

González, N., Moll, L. C., & Amanti, C. (2005). *Funds of knowledge: Theorizing practices in households, communities, and classrooms*. London, England: Routledge.

Gray, J. A., & Summers, R. (2016). Enabling school structures, trust, and collective efficacy in private international schools. *International Journal of Education Policy and Leadership*, *11*(3). https://doi.org/10.22230/ijepl.2016v11n3a651

Grether, T., Sowislo, J. F., & Wiese, B. S. (2018). Top-down or bottom-up? Prospective relations between general and domain-specific self-efficacy beliefs during a work-family transition. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *121*, 131–139.

Grummell, B., Devine, D., & Lynch, K. (2009). Appointing senior managers in education. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *37*(3), 329–349.

Guskey, T. R. (1998). Teacher efficacy measurement and change. Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED422396.pdf

Guti rrez, K. D., Asato, J., Santos, M., & Gotanda, N. (2002). Backlash pedagogy: Language and culture and the politics of reform. *Review of Education, Pedagogy, and Cultural Studies*, *24*(4), 335–351.

Hammersley, M. (1995). *The politics of social research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hanna, D., David, I., & Francisco, B. (2010). *Educational research and innovation the nature of learning using research to inspire practice: Using research to inspire practice*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing.

Hargreaves, A. (2004). Inclusive and exclusive educational change: Emotional responses of teachers and implications for leadership. *School Leadership & Management*, *24*(3), 287–309.

Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (2003). The early catastrophe. The 30 million word gap. *American Educator*, *27*(1), 4–9.

Harter, S. (1999). *The construction of the self: A developmental perspective*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Hatlevik, O. E., Guðmundsdóttir, G. B., & Loi, M. (2015). Digital diversity among upper secondary students: A multilevel analysis of the relationship between cultural capital, self-efficacy, strategic use of information and digital competence. *Computers & Education*, *81*, 345–353.

Hattie, J. (2008). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London, England: Routledge.

Hattie, J. (2014). *Self-concept*. London, England: Psychology Press.

Hattie, J. (2015). The applicability of visible learning to higher education. *Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Psychology*, *1*(1), 79–91.

Hemara, W. (2000). *Māori pedagogies: A view from the literature*. Wellington, New Zealand: NZCER Press.

Hipp, J. R. (2016). Collective efficacy: How is it conceptualized, how is it measured, and does it really matter for understanding perceived neighborhood crime and disorder? *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *46*, 32–44.

Hixon, J. G., & Swann, W. B. (1993). When does introspection bear fruit? Self-reflection, self-insight, and interpersonal choices. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *64*(1), 35–43.

Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, *10*(4), 15–41.

Howard, T. C., & del Rosario, C. D. (2000). Talking race in teacher education: The need for racial dialogue in teacher education programs. *Action in Teacher Education*, *21*(4), 127–137.

Hoy, A. W., & Spero, R. B. (2005). Changes in teacher efficacy during the early years of teaching: A comparison of four measures. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *21*(4), 343–356.

Iles, P., & Hayers, P. K. (1997). Managing diversity in transnational project teams. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *12*(2), 95–117.

Illeris, K. (2018). A comprehensive understanding of human learning. In K. Illeris (Ed.), *Contemporary theories of learning: learning theorists -- in their own words.* (pp. 1–14). New York, NY: Routledge.

Inglis, D. (2005). *Culture and everyday life*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Johnson, D. W. (1981). Effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic goal structures on achievement: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *89*(1), 47–62.

Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations traits - self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability - with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(1), 80–92.

Judge, T. A., Erez, A., & Bono, J. E. (1998). The power of being positive: The relation between positive self-concept and job performance. *Human Performance*, *11*(2-3), 167–187.

Kennedy, C. M. (2015). Lessons from outside the classroom: What can New Zealand learn from the long Chilean Winter? *Asia Pacific Viewpoint*, *56*(1), 169–181.

Khalifa, M. A., Gooden, M. A., & Davis, J. E. (2016). Culturally responsive school leadership. *Review of Educational Research*, *86*(4), 1272–1311.

Khawaja, M. A., Boddington, B., & Didham, R. A. (2000). *Growing ethnic diversity in New Zealand and its implications for measuring differentials in fertility and mortality*. Wellington, New Zealand: Statistics New Zealand.

Kohut, H. (1959). Introspection, empathy, and psychoanalysis: An examination of the relationship between mode of observation and theory. *Journal of the American Psychoanalytic Association*, *7*(3), 459–483.

Kvale, S. (1995). The social construction of validity. *Qualitative Inquiry*, *1*(1), 19–40.

Lawton, S. B. (1992). Why restructure?: An international survey of the roots of reform. *Journal of Education Policy*, *7*(2), 139–154.

Leavy, P. (2017). Introduction to privilege through the looking-glass. In *Privilege through the looking-glass* (pp. 1–6). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Lee, J., & Bowen, N. K. (2006). Parent involvement, cultural capital, and the achievement gap among elementary school children. *American Educational Research Journal*, *43*(2), 193–218.

Lee, V. E., & Smith, J. B. (1996). Collective responsibility for learning and its effects on gains in achievement for early secondary school students. *American Journal of Education* , *104*(2), 103–147.

Le Fevre, D. M. (2014). Barriers to implementing pedagogical change: The role of teachers' perceptions of risk. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *38*, 56–64.

Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2008). Linking leadership to student learning: The contributions of leader efficacy. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *44*(4), 496–528.

Leithwood, K., & Sun, J. (2012). The nature and effects of transformational school leadership: A meta-analytic review of unpublished research. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *48*(3), 387–423.

Lencioni, P. M. (2010). *The five dysfunctions of a team: A leadership fable*. Hoboken,

NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Larkin, K. C. (1984). Relation of self-efficacy expectations to academic achievement and persistence. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *31*(3), 356–362.

Li, H. (2015). Moving to the city: Educational trajectories of rural Chinese students in an elite university. In C. Costa & M. Murphy (Eds.), *Bourdieu, habitus and social research* (pp. 126–147). London, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Linkins, M., Niemiec, R. M., Gillham, J., & Mayerson, D. (2015). Through the lens of strength: A framework for educating the heart. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *10*(1), 64–68.

Litt, M. D. (1988). Self-efficacy and perceived control: Cognitive mediators of pain tolerance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*(1), 149–160.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Lopez-Alvarado, J. (2016). Educational research: Educational purposes, the nature of knowledge and ethical issues. *International Journal of Research and Education*, *2*(1), 1–5.

Lopez, S. J., & Louis, M. C. (2009). The principles of strengths-based education. *Journal of College and Character*, *10*(4). https://doi.org/10.2202/1940-1639.1041

Macias, L. V. (2013). Choosing success: A paradigm for empowering first-generation college students. *About Campus*, *18*(5), 17–21.

Marsh, H. W. (1987). The big-fish-little-pond effect on academic self-concept. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *79*(3), 280–295.

Martin, G. L., Smith, M. J., & Williams, B. M. (2018). Reframing deficit thinking on social class. *New Directions for Student Services*, 87–93.

Matthewman, S. (2004). Introduction. In S. M. Claudia Bell (Ed.), *Cultural studies in Aotearoa New Zealand: Identity, space, and place* (pp. vii – xiv). Melbourne,

Australia: Oxford University Press.

McAuley, E., Wraith, S., & Duncan, T. E. (1991). Self-efficacy, perceptions of success, and intrinsic motivation for exercise. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *21*(2), 139–155.

McCarthy, M. B. (1997). Raising a Māori child under a new right state. In P. Te Whāiti, M. B. McCarthy, & A. Durie (Eds.), *Mai i rangiātea: Maori wellbeing and development* (pp. 25–38). Auckland: Auckland University Press.

Meissel, K., & Rubie-Davies, C. M. (2016). Cultural invariance of goal orientation and self-efficacy in New Zealand: Relations with achievement. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *86*(1), 92–111.

Menchaca, M. (1997). Early racist discourse: The roots of deficit thinking. In R. R. Valencia (Ed.), *The evolution of deficit thinking: Educational thought and practice* (pp. 13–40). Oxford, England: Routledge.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Meyer, L. H., Penetito, W., Hynds, A., Savage, C., Hindle, R., & Sleeter, C. (2010). Evaluation of Te Kotahitanga: 2004-2008. Retrieved from www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications

Midgley, C., Feldlaufer, H., & Eccles, J. S. (1989). Change in teacher efficacy and student self and task-related beliefs in mathematics during the transition to junior high school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *81*(2), 247–258.

Miles, M. B., & Michael Huberman, A. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Miller, D., & Moran, T. (2012). *Self-esteem: A guide for teachers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ministry of Education. (2013). Ka Hikitia - Accelerating success 2013-2017. Retrieved from

https://www.education.govt.nz/ministry-of-education/overall-strategies-and-policies/the-maori-education-strategy-ka-hikitia-accelerating-success-20132017/

Ministry of Education. (2014). Aspiration and achievement: Education system briefing to incoming minister. Retrieved from https://www.education.govt.nz/assets/Documents/Ministry/Publications/Briefings-to-Incoming-Ministers/AspirationAndAchievementEducationSystem.pdf

Ministry of Education. (2018a). Education counts. Retrieved from http://www.educationcounts.govt.nz

Ministry of Education. (2018b). Education portfolio work programme: Purpose, objectives and overview. Retrieved from http://www.education.govt.nz/ministry-of-education/information-releases/education-portfolio-work-programme/

Ministry of Education. (2018c). Tapasā. Retrieved from http://pasifika.tki.org.nz/Tapasa

Mone, M. A., Baker, D. D., & Jeffries, F. (1995). Predictive validity and time dependency of self-efficacy, self-esteem, personal goals, and academic performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *55*(5), 716–727.

Morris, S. (2015). Quine, Russell, and naturalism: From a logical point of view. *Journal of the History of Philosophy*, *53*(1), 133–155.

Morrow, V. (1999). Conceptualising social capital in relation to the well-being of children and young people: A critical review. *The Sociological Review*, *47*(4), 744–765.

Muijs, D., & Reynolds, D. (2015). Teachers' beliefs and behaviors: What really matters? *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *50*(1), 25–40.

Mutch, C. (2013). *Doing educational research: A practitioner's guide to getting started*. Wellington, New Zealand: NZCER Press.

Nicholson, T. (1999). Literacy, family and society. In G. B. Thompson & T. Nicholson

(Eds.), *Learning to read: Beyond phonics and whole language* (pp. 1–22). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Ninković, S. R., & Knežević Florić, O. Č. (2016). Transformational school leadership and teacher self-efficacy as predictors of perceived collective teacher efficacy. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, *46*(1), 49–64.

Nisbet, J. (2005). What is educational research? Changing perspectives through the 20th century. *Research Papers in Education*, *20*(1), 25–44.

Noddings, N. (2018). *Philosophy of education*. London, England: Routledge.

Nykiel-Herbert, B. (2010). Iraqi refugee students: From a collection of aliens to a community of learners - The role of cultural factors in the acquisition of literacy by Iraqi refugee students with interrupted formal education. *Multicultural Education*, *17*(3), 2–14.

Oettingen, G. (1995). Cross-cultural perspectives on self-efficacy. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 149–176). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research*, *66*(4), 543–578.

Pajares, F. (2002). Overview of social cognitive theory and of self-efficacy. Retrieved June 19, 2018, from http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/eff.html

Parris, L., Neves, J. R., & La Salle, T. (2018). School climate perceptions of ethnically diverse students: Does school diversity matter? *School Psychology International*, *39*(6), 625–645.

Paulick, I., Großschedl, J., Harms, U., & Möller, J. (2017). How teachers perceive their expertise: The role of dimensional and social comparisons. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *51*, 114–122.

Penno, J. F., Wilkinson, I. A. G., & Moore, D. W. (2002). Vocabulary acquisition from teacher explanation and repeated listening to stories: Do they overcome the

Matthew effect? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*(1), 23–33.

Pere, R. R. (1982). *Concepts and learning in the Māori tradition*. Wellington, New Zealand: Te Kōhanga Reo National Trust Board.

Phillips, G., McNaughton, S., & MacDonald, S. (2004). Managing the mismatch: Enhancing early literacy progress for children with diverse language and cultural identities in mainstream urban schools in New Zealand. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *96*(2), 309–323.

Piaget, J. (1976). Piaget's theory. In Inhelder B., Chipman H. H., & Z. C. (Eds.), *Piaget and his school. Springer study edition.* (pp. 11–23). Berlin, Germany: Springer.

Pink, D. H. (2010). *Drive: The surprising truth about what motivates us*. Edinburgh, Scotland: Canongate Books.

Pio, E. (2016). Discovering diversity. *Employment Today*, pp. 26–28.

Prelli, G. E. (2016). How school leaders might promote higher levels of collective teacher efficacy at the level of school and team. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(3), 174–180.

Relich, J. D., Debus, R. L., & Walker, R. (1986). The mediating role of attribution and self-efficacy variables for treatment effects on achievement outcomes. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *11*(3), 195–216.

Richards, H. V., Brown, A. F., & Forde, T. B. (2007). Addressing diversity in schools: Culturally responsive pedagogy. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, *39*(3), 64–68.

Roy, A., Guay, F., & Valois, P. (2015). The big-fish–little-pond effect on academic self-concept: The moderating role of differentiated instruction and individual achievement. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *42*, 110–116.

Rubie-Davies, C. M., Peterson, E., Flint, A., Garrett, L., McDonald, L., Watson, P., O'Neill, H. (2012). Investigating teacher expectations by ethnicity in New Zealand. *The European Journal of Social & Behavioural Sciences*, *2*(2), 250–259.

Ryan, W. (1976). *Blaming the Victim*. New York, NY: Vintage Books.

Salkind, N. J. (2010). *Encyclopedia of research design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Santamaría, L. J., & Santamaría, A. P. (2013). *Applied critical leadership in education: Choosing change*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Savage, C., Hindle, R., Meyer, L. H., Hynds, A., Penetito, W., & Sleeter, C. E. (2011). Culturally responsive pedagogies in the classroom: Indigenous student experiences across the curriculum. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *39*(3), 183–198.

Scholz, U., Doña, B. G., Sud, S., & Schwarzer, R. (2002). Is general self-efficacy a universal construct? *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, *18*(3), 242–251.

Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, *26*(3), 207–231.

Schunk, D. H., & Hanson, A. R. (1985). Peer models: Influence on children's self-efficacy and achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *77*(3), 313–322.

Schunk, D. H., & Meece, J. L. (2006). Self-efficacy development in adolescence. In F. Pajares & T. C. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 71–96). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Schunk, D. H., & Miller, S. D. (2002). Self-efficacy and adolescents' motivation. In T. C. Urdan & F. Pajares (Eds.), *Academic motivation of adolescents* (pp. 29–52). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Schunk, D. H., & Mullen, C. A. (2012). Self-efficacy as an engaged learner. In S. L. Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 219–235). New York, NY: Springer Science.

Schwarzer, R., Schmitz, G. S., & Daytner, G. T. (1999). Teacher self-efficacy scale. Retrieved from http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/~health/teacher_se.htm

Seidman, I. (2013). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Shaukat, S., & Iqbal, H. M. (2012). Teacher self-efficacy as a function of student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *10*(2), 82–85.

Sheard, A. G., & Kakabadse, A. P. (2004). A process perspective on leadership and team development. *International Journal of Management & Enterprise Development*, *23*(1), 7–106.

Silvia, P. J., & Gendolla, G. H. E. (2001). On introspection and self-perception: Does self-focused attention enable accurate self-knowledge? *Review of General Psychology*, *5*(3), 241–269.

Silvia, P. J., & Shelley Duval, T. (2001). Objective self-awareness theory: Recent progress and enduring problems. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *5*(3), 230–241.

Skeggs, B. (2013). *Class, self, culture*. London, England: Routledge.

Skinner, E. A., & Belmont, M. J. (1993). Motivation in the classroom: Reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *85*(4), 571–581.

Sleeter, C. E. (2011). An agenda to strengthen culturally responsive pedagogy. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *10*(2), 7–23.

Smelser, N. J. (1989). Self-esteem and social problems: An introduction. In A. M. Mecca, N. J. Smelser, & J. Vasconcellos (Eds.), *The social importance of self-esteem* (pp. 1–23). Berkely, CA: University of California Press.

Smit, R. (2012). Towards a clearer understanding of student disadvantage in higher education: Problematising deficit thinking. *Higher Education Research and Development*, *31*(3), 369–380.

Stahl, G. (2015). Egalitarian habitus: Narratives of reconstruction in discourses of aspiration and change. In C. Costa & M. Murphy (Eds.), *Bourdieu, habitus and social research* (pp. 21–38). London, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Stats NZ. (2014). *2013 Census QuickStats about culture and identity*. Wellington, New Zealand.

Stats NZ. (2018a). Disabled people three times less likely to be in work. Retrieved December 16, 2018, from https://www.stats.govt.nz/news/disabled-people-three-times-less-likely-to-be-in-work

Stats NZ. (2018b). Gender pay gap is second-smallest. Retrieved December 16, 2018, from https://www.stats.govt.nz/news/gender-pay-gap-is-second-smallest

Stats NZ. (2018c). Household net worth statistics: Year ended June 2018. Retrieved December 16, 2018, from https://www.stats.govt.nz/information-releases/household-net-worth-statistics-year-ended-june-2018

Sullivan, H. S. (1953). *The interpersonal theory of psychiatry*. New York, NY: W. W. Norton & Co.

Terrell, R. D., & Lindsey, R. B. (2009). *Culturally proficient leadership: The personal journey begins within*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Thaman, K. H. (2000). Cultural rights: A personal perspective. In P. H. Margaret Wilson (Ed.), *Culture, rights, and cultural rights: Perspectives from the South Pacific* (pp. 1–11). Wellington, New Zealand: Huia Publishers.

Thrupp, M. (2016). Education's "inconvenient truth": Persistent middle class advantage. *Waikato Journal of Education*, *13*(1). https://doi.org/10.15663/wje.v13i1.290

Timperley, H., Kaser, L., & Halbert, J. (2014). *A framework for transforming learning in schools: Innovation and the spiral of inquiry*. Melbourne, Australia: Centre for Strategic Education.

Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, *96*(3), 506–520.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Barr, M. (2004). Fostering student learning: The relationship of collective teacher efficacy and student achievement. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, *3*(3), 189–209.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *17*(7), 783–805.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2007). The differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *23*(6), 944–956.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Tschannen-Moran, B. (2011). Taking a strengths-based focus improves school climate. *Journal of School Leadership*, *21*(3), 422–448.

Tunmer, W. E., Chapman, J. W., & Prochnow, J. E. (2006). Literate cultural capital at school entry predicts later reading achievement: A seven year longitudinal study. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, *41*(2), 183–204.

Turner, H., Rubie-Davies, C. M., & Webber, M. (2015). Teacher expectations, ethnicity and the achievement gap. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, *50*(1), 55–69.

Valencia, R. R. (1997). Introduction. In R. R. Valencia (Ed.), *The evolution of deficit thinking: Educational thought and practice* (pp. ix – xvii). Oxford, England: Routledge.

Valencia, R. R. (2010). *Dismantling contemporary deficit thinking: Educational thought and practice*. London, England: Routledge.

van Ingen, D. J., Freiheit, S. R., Steinfeldt, J. A., Moore, L. L., Wimer, D. J., Knutt, A. D., … Roberts, A. (2015). Helicopter parenting: The effect of an overbearing caregiving style on peer attachment and self-efficacy. *Journal of College Counseling*, *18*(1), 7–20.

van Uden, J. M., Ritzen, H., & Pieters, J. M. (2013). I think I can engage my students: Teachers' perceptions of student engagement and their beliefs about being a

teacher. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *32*, 43–54.

Vygotsky, L. S. (2012). *The collected works of L. S. Vygotsky: Problems of the theory and history of psychology*. New York, NY: Springer Science.

Waaktaar, T., & Torgersen, S. (2013). Self-efficacy is mainly genetic, not learned: A multiple-rater twin study on the causal structure of general self-efficacy in young people. *Twin Research and Human Genetics: The Official Journal of the International Society for Twin Studies*, *16*(3), 651–660.

Wacquant, L. J. D. (1989). Towards a reflexive sociology: A workshop with Pierre Bourdieu. *Sociological Theory*, *7*(1), 26.

Wahlstrom, K. L., & Louis, K. S. (2008). How teachers experience principal leadership: The roles of professional community, trust, efficacy, and shared responsibility. *Educational Administration Quarterly: EAQ*, *44*(4), 458–495.

Wellington, J. (2015). *Educational research: Contemporary issues and practical approaches*. New York, NY: Bloomsbury.

Wenger, E. (2018). A social theory of learning. In K. Illeris (Ed.), *Contemporary theories of learning: learning theorists -- in their own words.* (pp. 219–228). New York, NY: Routledge.

Wheatley, K. F. (2002). The potential benefits of teacher efficacy doubts for educational reform. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*(1), 5–22.

Williams, R. (1976). *Keywords: A vocabulary of culture and society*. London, England: Croom Helm.

Wilson, M. (2000). Cultural rights: Definitions and contexts. In P. H. Margaret Wilson (Ed.), *Culture, rights, and cultural rights: Perspectives from the South Pacific* (pp. 13–23). Wellington: Huia Publishers.

World Economic Forum. (2015). *New vision for education: Unlocking the potential of technology*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Economic Forum.

Yosso, T. J. (2005). Whose culture has capital? A critical race theory discussion of

community cultural wealth. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, *8*(1), 69–91.

Zajacova, A., Lynch, S. M., & Espenshade, T. J. (2005). Self-efficacy, stress, and academic success in college. *Research in Higher Education*, *46*(6), 677–706.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(1), 82–91.

Zimmerman, M. A., & Arunkumar, R. (1994). Resiliency research: Implications for schools and policy. *Social Policy Report / Society for Research in Child Development*, *8*(4), 1–20.

Appendix A - Ethics Approval

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, NZ
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

17 October 2018

Ruth Boyask
Faculty of Culture and Society
Dear Ruth

Ethics Application: **18/233 Self-efficacy in the classroom: A sociocultural perspective on the contributing and detracting factors.**

Thank you for submitting your application for an amendment to your ethics approval. I am pleased to advise that the changes to the recruitment protocols (anonymous survey and located at the researcher's school) is approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Given the risk of identification, reformat the survey so that potentially identifying demographic questions have a 'prefer not to answer' option;
2. Please supply the introductory information for the survey relevant to staff.

Please provide me with a response to the points raised in these conditions, indicating either how you have satisfied these points or proposing an alternative approach. AUTEC also requires copies of any altered documents, such as Information Sheets, surveys etc. You are not required to resubmit the application form again. Any changes to responses in the form required by the committee in their conditions may be included in a supporting memorandum.

Please note that the Committee is always willing to discuss with applicants the points that have been made. There may be information that has not been made available to the Committee, or aspects of the research may not have been fully understood.

Once your response is received and confirmed as satisfying the Committee's points, you will be notified of the full approval of your ethics application. Full approval is not effective until all the conditions have been met. Data collection may not commence until full approval has been confirmed. If these conditions are not met within six months, your application may be closed and a new application will be required if you wish to continue with this research.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, we ask that you use the application number and study title in all correspondence with us. If you have any enquiries about this application, or anything else, please do contact us at ethics@aut.ac.nz.

I look forward to hearing from you,

Yours sincerely

Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: chriswall01@gmail.com

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, NZ
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

11 July 2018

Ruth Boyask
Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear Ruth

Re Ethics Application: **18/233 Self-efficacy in the classroom: A sociocultural perspective on the contributing and detracting factors.**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 11 July 2021.

Standard Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
2. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation then you are responsible for obtaining it.You are reminded that it is your responsibility to ensure that the spelling and grammar of documents being provided to participants or external organisations is of a high standard.

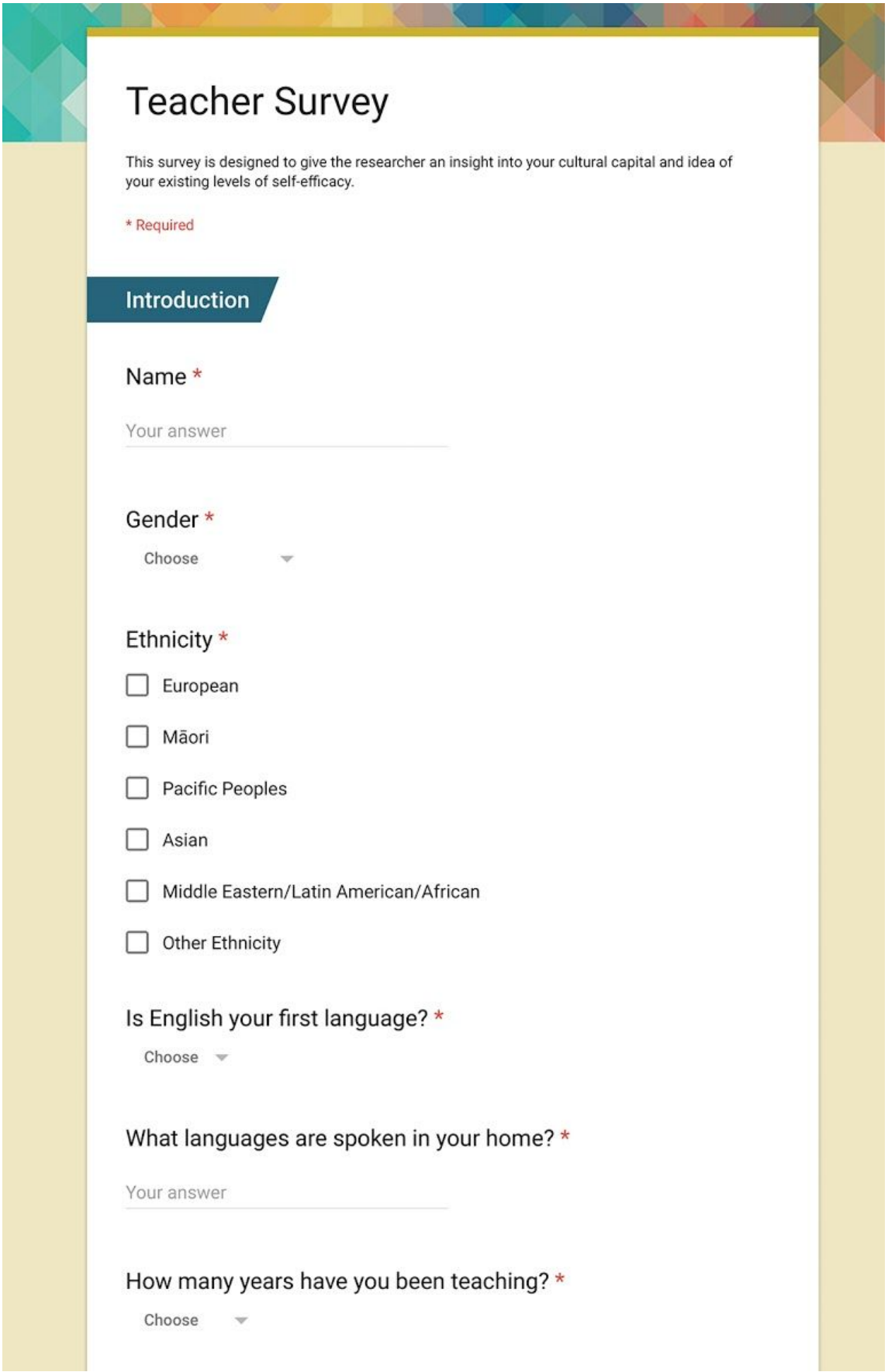
For any enquiries, please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz

Yours sincerely,

Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: chriswall01@gmail.com

Appendix B - Survey



Teacher Survey

This survey is designed to give the researcher an insight into your cultural capital and idea of your existing levels of self-efficacy.

* Required

Introduction

Name *

Your answer

Gender *

Choose

Ethnicity *

- [ ] European
- [ ] Māori
- [ ] Pacific Peoples
- [ ] Asian
- [ ] Middle Eastern/Latin American/African
- [ ] Other Ethnicity

Is English your first language? *

Choose

What languages are spoken in your home? *

Your answer

How many years have you been teaching? *

Choose

Please CHECK ONE response that best describes you. There are no right or wrong answers! *

	Not at all true	Barely true	Moderately true	Exactly true
I am convinced that I am able to successfully teach all relevant subject content to even the most difficult students.	○	○	○	○
I know that I can maintain a positive relationship with parents even when tensions arise.	○	○	○	○
When I try really hard, I am able to reach even the most difficult students.	○	○	○	○
I am convinced that, as time goes by, I will continue to become more capable of helping to address my students' needs.	○	○	○	○
Even if I get disrupted while teaching, I am confident that I can maintain my composure and continue to teach well.	○	○	○	○
I am confident in my ability to be responsive to my students' needs even if I am having a bad day.	○	○	○	○
If I try hard enough, I know that I can exert a positive influence on both the personal and academic development of my students.	○	○	○	○
I am convinced that I can develop creative ways to cope with system constraints (such as budget cuts and other administrative problems) and continue to teach well.	○	○	○	○
I know that I can motivate my students to participate in innovative projects.	○	○	○	○
I know that I can carry out innovative projects even when I am opposed by skeptical colleagues.	○	○	○	○

Student Survey

This survey is designed to give the researcher an insight into your cultural capital and idea of your existing levels of self-efficacy.

* Required

Introduction

Name *

Your answer

Gender *

Choose

Ethnicity *

- [ ] European
- [ ] Māori
- [ ] Pacific Peoples
- [ ] Asian
- [ ] Middle Eastern/Latin American/African
- [ ] Other Ethnicity

Is English your first language? *

Choose

What languages are spoken in your home? *

Your answer

Did you go to Kindergarten or Preschool in New Zealand? *

- ( ) Yes
- ( ) No

Please CHECK ONE response that best describes you. There are no right or wrong answers! *

	Not at all true	Barely true	Moderately true	Exactly true
I can learn what is being taught in class this year.	○	○	○	○
I can figure out anything if I try hard enough.	○	○	○	○
If I practiced every day, I could develop just about any skill.	○	○	○	○
Once I've decided to accomplish something that's important to me, I keep trying to accomplish it, even if it is harder than I thought.	○	○	○	○
I am confident that I will achieve the goals that I set for myself.	○	○	○	○
When I'm struggling to accomplish something difficult, I focus on my progress instead of feeling discouraged.	○	○	○	○
I will succeed in whatever career path I choose	○	○	○	○
I will succeed in my education after I leave school.	○	○	○	○
I believe hard work pays off	○	○	○	○
My ability grows with effort.	○	○	○	○
I believe that the brain can be developed like a muscle.	○	○	○	○
I think that no matter who you are, you can significantly change your level of talent.	○	○	○	○
I can improve my level of ability considerably.	○	○	○	○

Appendix C - Typical Observation

OBSERVATION DOCUMENT

Teacher	LDTB					Teacher Self Efficacy/Cultural Distance		
Class	[redacted]							
School	[redacted]					HSE/LCD	HSE/MCD	HSE/HCD
Observer	Chris Wall					MSE/LCD	MSE/MCD	MSE/HCD
Date	[redacted]					LSE/LCD	LSE/MCD	LSE/HCD

Participant	LDSA					Birds eye Front of class				Student Self Efficacy/Cultural Distance		
Class	10H											
Time	<10	10-30	30-50	>50			X			HSE/LCD	HSE/MCD	HSE/HCD
No of students	1	2	3	4+						MSE/LCD	MSE/MCD	MSE/HCD
										LSE/LCD	LSE/MCD	LSE/HCD

NOTES

Notes;
In [redacted]LDSA is sitting with LDSB, in this class LDSB is sitting near LDSA but with another peer

LDSA talking to peer, questions peer about the nature of the question. Then "I think I got it", peer looks, LDSA seems sure of her answer.

+1 minutes, checks and confirms answers with peers,
LDTB makes joke, LDSA laughs with her peer, continues with test.

+3 minutes, gets first answer right, celebrates with peer, high five, peer and LDSA check each others page after each answer

LDTB, "who got 10 questions right?"
LDSA and one other student raise their hands
LDSA looks around to see who else got 10 questions right
LDTB "well done"

+ 10 minutes, during video LDSA checks answer with peer, looks at sheet, adjusts own sheet

+15 LDSA is watching the film, checks an answer with peer,
[redacted]LDSA is checking or commenting to peer re answers
Peer is also checking back to LDSA's sheet

Appendix D - Interview Questions

Indicative Questions for Interviews

Project title: ***Self-efficacy in the classroom, a sociocultural perspective on the contributing and detracting factors.***
Project Supervisor: ***Ruth Boyask***
Researcher: ***Chris Wall***

Teacher Participants, Indicative Questions for Interviews

What makes you feel that you have the ability to support a student complete a task that they are struggling with?

What makes you feel that you have less ability to support a student complete a task that they are struggling with?

Do you feel that some classes are easier to teach than others? Why is that?

Does the student's academic ability impact your perception of how much you can contribute to the students learning? Why is that?

What impact have educational leaders had to develop your sense of teacher self-efficacy (your perceived ability to complete a given task)? (for example, professional learning, appraisal, department meetings)

Further questions will evolve from the observations and results of the self-efficacy survey.

Student Participants, Indicative Questions for Interviews

What makes you feel more confident that you can complete a task?

How could your teacher help you with this?

What does your teacher currently do that makes you feel more able to complete a task?

What does your teacher currently do that makes you feel less able to complete a task?

What impact does your family have on whether you feel you can complete a task?

Do your friends in your class influence whether you feel like you can complete a task? Why?

Do your peers in your class influence whether you feel like you can complete a task? Why?

Further questions will evolve from the observations and results of the self-efficacy survey.

Appendix E - Interview Analysis

LDTA - I have an amazing department who are exceptionally collegial. Actually, that can be said about the whole school, very very collegial, if you are in the staff room you are not sitting in departmental groups, you're always sitting together talking, quite cross-departmental really. [Principal] is incredible, the Senior Leadership team is incredible. [Principal] will let you if you have an idea, run with that, to really work with what you want.

CW - Do you think that in the collective that you belong to, for example, department, or SCT, or wherever else, do you think there is a sense 'being able to do at this school'?

LDTA - Yep, absolutely. Whenever we have new teachers coming in we really talk about the whole idea that relationships are 100% the most important thing, our kids are really unusual in that aspect that it takes a little while to get them onside, but once you have got them, you have them forever and ever. We really emphasise that from the top down, it's relationships, relationships.

CW - Is there difference in those professional groupings that you're are a part of for example inquiry groups?

LDTA - Yep, so I've got my inquiry group. So that's a range of people who are really experienced right down to first years. And there is that real support between not just me but all those experience teachers feeding back advising, the collaboration goes both ways, they have just come in from teachers college, so they have some good ideas, so my particular group is really good at listening both ways.

CW - is that sense built from all the people working together, or is it led by someone, senior leadership flowing down, good people coming together?

LDTA - I don't know, it just works.

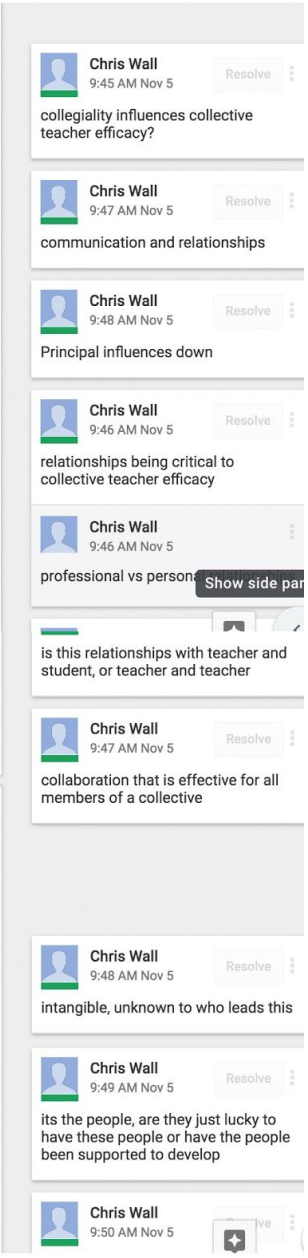
CW - What fosters the collectivity

LDTA - We've got amazing amazing staff

CW - Have they generally been here for a while

LDTA - some have, its probably a third a third a third. A third have been here a long time, a third are really new, and a third are in that middle ground

When people leave they leave for really sound reasons, they are moving out of Auckland, or they



Appendix F - Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

STUDENT INFORMATION SHEET

Date Information Sheet Produced:

7 August 2018

Project Title

Self-efficacy in the classroom, a sociocultural perspective on the contributing and detracting factors.

An Invitation

Kia ora, my name is Chris Wall and I am conducting a research project as part of my personal and professional development.

I am researching the links between how likely you feel you can complete a task (self-efficacy), and the different cultures of which you are a part.

I have been awarded a study grant from TeachNZ to complete this research and the work will contribute to my Master of Educational Leadership which I am completing at AUT.

What is the purpose of this research?

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate self-efficacy and the impact that cultural distance may have on this in a classroom environment.

Culture in this research project is considered to be the viewpoints of people that influence their thoughts, behaviours and actions. These viewpoints have been created and are maintained by learning habits from your family, friends and communities.

In New Zealand, most schooling is delivered from a European perspective and targeted at English speaking, middle-class students. This may disadvantage some students. Five components of culture are being researched to investigate this possible disadvantage: socio-economic background, gender, ethnicity, language and preparation to engage in the schooling system. I have chosen to use decile as a to give some idea of socio-economic background. The other four components are part of the initial survey that you will be asked to complete.

The research will be conducted as a case study on up to two classes and I will follow these classes round as a non-participant observer, taking notes and recording interactions between teachers and students.

The findings will be used to contribute towards my thesis, future professional presentations and possibly journal articles.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

Your school was selected based on its similarity to the ethnic and cultural demographic of my own school [redacted]

Some of your teachers have agreed to participate in this project and your class was therefore selected as a 'case study' class.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

Attached to this form are two forms, an **assent form** and a **parent/caregiver consent form**, should you wish to participate in this research it is requested that you complete the two forms and return them to the sealed box that is with your teacher, I will be returning to school on the **18/09/2018** to collect the forms.

Your participation in this research is voluntary (it is your choice) and whether or not you choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. I will be conducting observations in your class but will only be observing students who have agreed to participate. You are able to withdraw from the study at any time. If you would like to withdraw from the study please let me know, either by email or speak to me.

If you choose to withdraw from the study, then you will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to you removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of your data may not be possible.

What will happen in this research?

To start with I will ask some questions in the form of a survey. This will give an idea of your level of self-efficacy and help to give some background before I complete the observations.

I will then follow the class and will try to remain as invisible as possible whilst recording interactions between the participants.

I will request from your teacher a printed class list of your class, including photos, so that I can recognise who is participating and who is not.

Audio recordings of interactions between you and your teacher will be collected to help me write up my notes.

Some interviews may be requested to help further understand the observations. If an interview is requested of you it will occur during the course of the school day at a time convenient to you. It is expected that this interview will take 10 – 15 minutes.

I will then review the case study and in conjunction with other research complete my thesis on the subject of culture and self-efficacy.

Part of the review of the data will be seeking to find similarities and differences across the case study classes. This will include similarities and differences of teaching practice, student behaviours, self-efficacy levels and demographics.

The data gathered will be used for no other purpose.

What are the discomforts and risks?

You will need to complete a survey that will take approximately 15 minutes.

Then you will continue as you were in your day-to-day classes whilst I conduct observations of your interactions with other participants in the class. There may be some brief interview questions (10-15 minutes) asked of you once all the observations have been completed.

If you agree to participate you will need to agree to participate in the survey, observations and interviews.

In the write up of the research there will be nothing used that could identify you. Your school will not be named and you will not be named. **There is some risk that because I will be visible within the school, some link could be made between my presence and the research published.**

Other than that, it is intended that you will be able to conduct your schooling life as per normal with myself taking as much of a background role as possible

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

I will take as low as profile as possible within the school to conduct the research and will not promote the fact that research is being done to minimise the opportunity that links are made between the research and yourself. No names will be used in the research and the school will not be identified.

What are the benefits?

The benefits of this research as to provide some small insight into the relationship between culture and self-efficacy. Hopefully this will help inform educational leaders as to how they might help to support teachers and students to further develop their self-efficacy. I will also use this as part of my submission to complete my Master of Educational Leadership.

How will my privacy be protected?

No names will be used in this research and the identity of the school will not be revealed in the write up of the thesis resulting from this work.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The initial survey should take less than 15 minutes to complete. The observations will take place over one week. If follow up interviews are required they might take 10-15 minutes. Other than this your time should not be impacted by this research.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

I request that you consider this invitation and return the attached assent and consent forms within a week if you are agreeable to participate in this research.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

Yes, at the conclusion of the research a summary of the research will be provided to participants. Your teacher will be given copies of the summary and you can get these from him/her. The full thesis will be available to read on request

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Ruth Boyask [redacted]

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEC, Kate O'Connor, [redacted]

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details:

Chris Wa [redacted]

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Ruth Boya [redacted]

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 11th July 2018, AUTEC Reference number 18/233.

Appendix A - Ethics Approval

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, NZ
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

17 October 2018

Ruth Boyask
Faculty of Culture and Society
Dear Ruth

Ethics Application: **18/233 Self-efficacy in the classroom: A sociocultural perspective on the contributing and detracting factors.**

Thank you for submitting your application for an amendment to your ethics approval. I am pleased to advise that the changes to the recruitment protocols (anonymous survey and located at the researcher's school) is approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Given the risk of identification, reformat the survey so that potentially identifying demographic questions have a 'prefer not to answer' option;
2. Please supply the introductory information for the survey relevant to staff.

Please provide me with a response to the points raised in these conditions, indicating either how you have satisfied these points or proposing an alternative approach. AUTEC also requires copies of any altered documents, such as Information Sheets, surveys etc. You are not required to resubmit the application form again. Any changes to responses in the form required by the committee in their conditions may be included in a supporting memorandum.

Please note that the Committee is always willing to discuss with applicants the points that have been made. There may be information that has not been made available to the Committee, or aspects of the research may not have been fully understood.

Once your response is received and confirmed as satisfying the Committee's points, you will be notified of the full approval of your ethics application. Full approval is not effective until all the conditions have been met. Data collection may not commence until full approval has been confirmed. If these conditions are not met within six months, your application may be closed and a new application will be required if you wish to continue with this research.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, we ask that you use the application number and study title in all correspondence with us. If you have any enquiries about this application, or anything else, please do contact us at ethics@aut.ac.nz.

I look forward to hearing from you,

Yours sincerely

Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: chriswall01@gmail.com

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, NZ
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

11 July 2018

Ruth Boyask
Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear Ruth

Re Ethics Application: **18/233 Self-efficacy in the classroom: A sociocultural perspective on the contributing and detracting factors.**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 11 July 2021.

Standard Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
2. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation then you are responsible for obtaining it.You are reminded that it is your responsibility to ensure that the spelling and grammar of documents being provided to participants or external organisations is of a high standard.

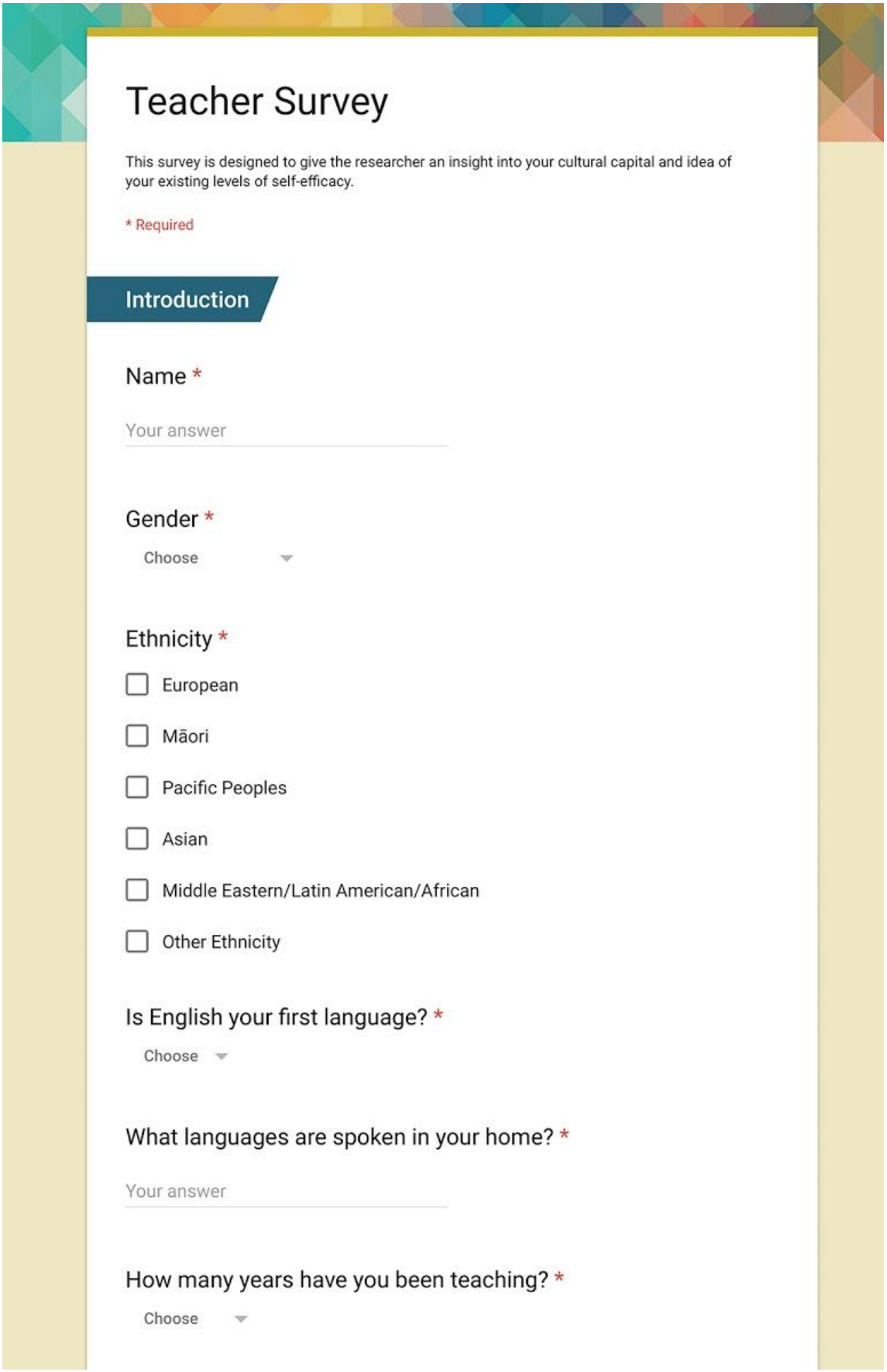
For any enquiries, please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz

Yours sincerely,

Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: chriswall01@gmail.com

Appendix B - Survey



Teacher Survey

This survey is designed to give the researcher an insight into your cultural capital and idea of your existing levels of self-efficacy.

* Required

Introduction

Name *

Your answer

Gender *

Choose

Ethnicity *

- [ ] European
- [ ] Māori
- [ ] Pacific Peoples
- [ ] Asian
- [ ] Middle Eastern/Latin American/African
- [ ] Other Ethnicity

Is English your first language? *

Choose

What languages are spoken in your home? *

Your answer

How many years have you been teaching? *

Choose

Please CHECK ONE response that best describes you. There are no right or wrong answers! *

	Not at all true	Barely true	Moderately true	Exactly true
I am convinced that I am able to successfully teach all relevant subject content to even the most difficult students.	○	○	○	○
I know that I can maintain a positive relationship with parents even when tensions arise.	○	○	○	○
When I try really hard, I am able to reach even the most difficult students.	○	○	○	○
I am convinced that, as time goes by, I will continue to become more capable of helping to address my students' needs.	○	○	○	○
Even if I get disrupted while teaching, I am confident that I can maintain my composure and continue to teach well.	○	○	○	○
I am confident in my ability to be responsive to my students' needs even if I am having a bad day.	○	○	○	○
If I try hard enough, I know that I can exert a positive influence on both the personal and academic development of my students.	○	○	○	○
I am convinced that I can develop creative ways to cope with system constraints (such as budget cuts and other administrative problems) and continue to teach well.	○	○	○	○
I know that I can motivate my students to participate in innovative projects.	○	○	○	○
I know that I can carry out innovative projects even when I am opposed by skeptical colleagues.	○	○	○	○

Student Survey

This survey is designed to give the researcher an insight into your cultural capital and idea of your existing levels of self-efficacy.

* Required

Introduction

Name *

Your answer

Gender *

Choose

Ethnicity *

- [ ] European
- [ ] Māori
- [ ] Pacific Peoples
- [ ] Asian
- [ ] Middle Eastern/Latin American/African
- [ ] Other Ethnicity

Is English your first language? *

Choose

What languages are spoken in your home? *

Your answer

Did you go to Kindergarten or Preschool in New Zealand? *

- ( ) Yes
- ( ) No

Please CHECK ONE response that best describes you. There are no right or wrong answers! *

	Not at all true	Barely true	Moderately true	Exactly true
I can learn what is being taught in class this year.	○	○	○	○
I can figure out anything if I try hard enough.	○	○	○	○
If I practiced every day, I could develop just about any skill.	○	○	○	○
Once I've decided to accomplish something that's important to me, I keep trying to accomplish it, even if it is harder than I thought.	○	○	○	○
I am confident that I will achieve the goals that I set for myself.	○	○	○	○
When I'm struggling to accomplish something difficult, I focus on my progress instead of feeling discouraged.	○	○	○	○
I will succeed in whatever career path I choose	○	○	○	○
I will succeed in my education after I leave school.	○	○	○	○
I believe hard work pays off	○	○	○	○
My ability grows with effort.	○	○	○	○
I believe that the brain can be developed like a muscle.	○	○	○	○
I think that no matter who you are, you can significantly change your level of talent.	○	○	○	○
I can improve my level of ability considerably.	○	○	○	○

Appendix C - Typical Observation

OBSERVATION DOCUMENT

Teacher	LDTB
Class	[redacted]
School	[redacted]
Observer	Chris Wall
Date	[redacted]

Teacher Self Efficacy/Cultural Distance		
HSE/LCD	HSE/MCD	HSE/HCD
MSE/LCD	MSE/MCD	MSE/HCD
LSE/LCD	LSE/MCD	LSE/HCD

Participant	LDSA			
Class	10H			
Time	<10	10-30	30-50	>50
No of students	1	2	3	4+

Birds eye Front of class			
	X		

Student Self Efficacy/Cultural Distance		
HSE/LCD	HSE/MCD	HSE/HCD
MSE/LCD	MSE/MCD	MSE/HCD
LSE/LCD	LSE/MCD	LSE/HCD

NOTES

Notes;
In [redacted]LDSA is sitting with LDSB, in this class LDSB is sitting near LDSA but with another peer

LDSA talking to peer, questions peer about the nature of the question. Then "I think I got it", peer looks, LDSA seems sure of her answer.

+1 minutes, checks and confirms answers with peers,
LDTB makes joke, LDSA laughs with her peer, continues with test.

+3 minutes, gets first answer right, celebrates with peer, high five, peer and LDSA check each others page after each answer

LDTB, "who got 10 questions right?"
LDSA and one other student raise their hands
LDSA looks around to see who else got 10 questions right
LDTB "well done"

+ 10 minutes, during video LDSA checks answer with peer, looks at sheet, adjusts own sheet

+15 LDSA is watching the film, checks an answer with peer,
[redacted]LDSA is checking or commenting to peer re answers
Peer is also checking back to LDSA's sheet

Appendix D - Interview Questions

Indicative Questions for Interviews

Project title:	***Self-efficacy in the classroom, a sociocultural perspective on the contributing and detracting factors.***
Project Supervisor:	***Ruth Boyask***
Researcher:	***Chris Wall***

Teacher Participants, Indicative Questions for Interviews

What makes you feel that you have the ability to support a student complete a task that they are struggling with?

What makes you feel that you have less ability to support a student complete a task that they are struggling with?

Do you feel that some classes are easier to teach than others? Why is that?

Does the student's academic ability impact your perception of how much you can contribute to the students learning? Why is that?

What impact have educational leaders had to develop your sense of teacher self-efficacy (your perceived ability to complete a given task)? (for example, professional learning, appraisal, department meetings)

Further questions will evolve from the observations and results of the self-efficacy survey.

Student Participants, Indicative Questions for Interviews

What makes you feel more confident that you can complete a task?

How could your teacher help you with this?

What does your teacher currently do that makes you feel more able to complete a task?

What does your teacher currently do that makes you feel less able to complete a task?

What impact does your family have on whether you feel you can complete a task?

Do your friends in your class influence whether you feel like you can complete a task? Why?

Do your peers in your class influence whether you feel like you can complete a task? Why?

Further questions will evolve from the observations and results of the self-efficacy survey.

Appendix E - Interview Analysis

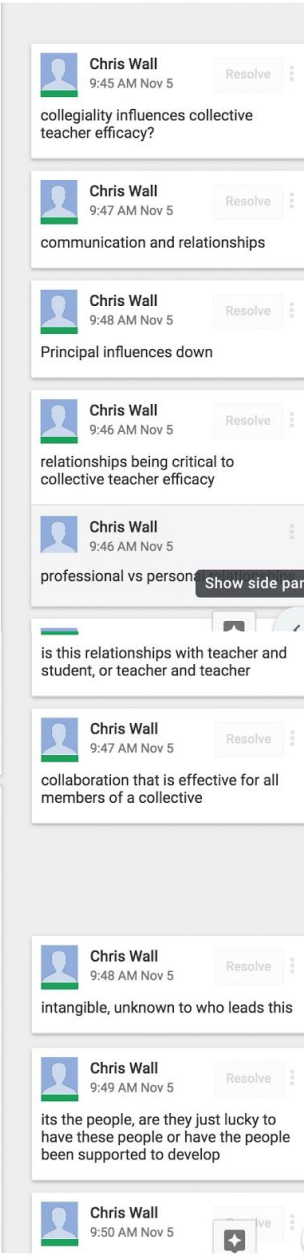
LDTA - I have an amazing department who are exceptionally collegial. Actually, that can be said about the whole school, very very collegial, if you are in the staff room you are not sitting in departmental groups, you're always sitting together talking, quite cross-departmental really. [Principal] is incredible, the Senior Leadership team is incredible. [Principal] will let you if you have an idea, run with that, to really work with what you want.

CW - Do you think that in the collective that you belong to, for example, department, or SCT, or wherever else, do you think there is a sense 'being able to do at this school'?

LDTA - Yep, absolutely. Whenever we have new teachers coming in we really talk about the whole idea that relationships are 100% the most important thing, our kids are really unusual in that aspect that it takes a little while to get them onside, but once you have got them, you have them forever and ever. We really emphasise that from the top down, it's relationships, relationships.

CW - Is there difference in those professional groupings that you're are a part of for example inquiry groups?

LDTA - Yep, so I've got my inquiry group. So that's a range of people who are really experienced right down to first years. And there is that real support between not just me but all those experience teachers feeding back advising, the collaboration goes both ways, they have just come in from teachers college, so they have some good ideas, so my particular group is really good at listening both ways.



CW - is that sense built from all the people working together, or is it led by someone, senior leadership flowing down, good people coming together?

LDTA - I don't know, it just works.

CW - What fosters the collectivity

LDTA - We've got amazing amazing staff

CW - Have they generally been here for a while

LDTA - some have, its probably a third a third a third. A third have been here a long time, a third are really new, and a third are in that middle ground

When people leave they leave for really sound reasons, they are moving out of Auckland, or they

Appendix F - Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

STUDENT INFORMATION SHEET

Date Information Sheet Produced:

7 August 2018

Project Title

Self-efficacy in the classroom, a sociocultural perspective on the contributing and detracting factors.

An Invitation

Kia ora, my name is Chris Wall and I am conducting a research project as part of my personal and professional development.

I am researching the links between how likely you feel you can complete a task (self-efficacy), and the different cultures of which you are a part.

I have been awarded a study grant from TeachNZ to complete this research and the work will contribute to my Master of Educational Leadership which I am completing at AUT.

What is the purpose of this research?

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate self-efficacy and the impact that cultural distance may have on this in a classroom environment.

Culture in this research project is considered to be the viewpoints of people that influence their thoughts, behaviours and actions. These viewpoints have been created and are maintained by learning habits from your family, friends and communities.

In New Zealand, most schooling is delivered from a European perspective and targeted at English speaking, middle-class students. This may disadvantage some students. Five components of culture are being researched to investigate this possible disadvantage: socio-economic background, gender, ethnicity, language and preparation to engage in the schooling system. I have chosen to use decile as a to give some idea of socio-economic background. The other four components are part of the initial survey that you will be asked to complete.

The research will be conducted as a case study on up to two classes and I will follow these classes round as a non-participant observer, taking notes and recording interactions between teachers and students.

The findings will be used to contribute towards my thesis, future professional presentations and possibly journal articles.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

Your school was selected based on its similarity to the ethnic and cultural demographic of my own school [redacted]

Some of your teachers have agreed to participate in this project and your class was therefore selected as a 'case study' class.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

Attached to this form are two forms, an **assent form** and a **parent/caregiver consent form**, should you wish to participate in this research it is requested that you complete the two forms and return them to the sealed box that is with your teacher, I will be returning to school on the **18/09/2018** to collect the forms.

Your participation in this research is voluntary (it is your choice) and whether or not you choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. I will be conducting observations in your class but will only be observing students who have agreed to participate. You are able to withdraw from the study at any time. If you would like to withdraw from the study please let me know, either by email or speak to me.

If you choose to withdraw from the study, then you will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to you removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of your data may not be possible.

What will happen in this research?

To start with I will ask some questions in the form of a survey. This will give an idea of your level of self-efficacy and help to give some background before I complete the observations.

I will then follow the class and will try to remain as invisible as possible whilst recording interactions between the participants.

I will request from your teacher a printed class list of your class, including photos, so that I can recognise who is participating and who is not.

Audio recordings of interactions between you and your teacher will be collected to help me write up my notes.

Some interviews may be requested to help further understand the observations. If an interview is requested of you it will occur during the course of the school day at a time convenient to you. It is expected that this interview will take 10 – 15 minutes.

I will then review the case study and in conjunction with other research complete my thesis on the subject of culture and self-efficacy.

Part of the review of the data will be seeking to find similarities and differences across the case study classes. This will include similarities and differences of teaching practice, student behaviours, self-efficacy levels and demographics.

The data gathered will be used for no other purpose.

What are the discomforts and risks?

You will need to complete a survey that will take approximately 15 minutes.

Then you will continue as you were in your day-to-day classes whilst I conduct observations of your interactions with other participants in the class. There may be some brief interview questions (10-15 minutes) asked of you once all the observations have been completed.

If you agree to participate you will need to agree to participate in the survey, observations and interviews.

In the write up of the research there will be nothing used that could identify you. Your school will not be named and you will not be named. **There is some risk that because I will be visible within the school, some link could be made between my presence and the research published.**

Other than that, it is intended that you will be able to conduct your schooling life as per normal with myself taking as much of a background role as possible

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

I will take as low as profile as possible within the school to conduct the research and will not promote the fact that research is being done to minimise the opportunity that links are made between the research and yourself. No names will be used in the research and the school will not be identified.

What are the benefits?

The benefits of this research as to provide some small insight into the relationship between culture and self-efficacy. Hopefully this will help inform educational leaders as to how they might help to support teachers and students to further develop their self-efficacy. I will also use this as part of my submission to complete my Master of Educational Leadership.

How will my privacy be protected?

No names will be used in this research and the identity of the school will not be revealed in the write up of the thesis resulting from this work.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The initial survey should take less than 15 minutes to complete. The observations will take place over one week. If follow up interviews are required they might take 10-15 minutes. Other than this your time should not be impacted by this research.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

I request that you consider this invitation and return the attached assent and consent forms within a week if you are agreeable to participate in this research.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

Yes, at the conclusion of the research a summary of the research will be provided to participants. Your teacher will be given copies of the summary and you can get these from him/her. The full thesis will be available to read on request

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Ruth Boyask[redacted]

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEC, Kate O'Connor, [redacted]

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details:

Chris Wa[redacted]

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Ruth Boya[redacted]

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 11th July 2018, AUTEC Reference number 18/233.