The Impact of Psychological Capital on Teaching Effectiveness in the Bafut Sub-Division

Ndonwi Emmanuel

The University of Buea, South West Region, Cameroon, Central Africa

ABSTRACT

The study adopted the survey design and used 78 teachers selected using the demographic cluster and incidental sampling techniques from a cross section of 324 secondary school teachers in Bafut Sub-Division in the North West Region of Cameroon to examine the impact of psychological capital on teaching effectiveness. The over emphasis on academic qualification and negligence of developing teachers psychological capital compromise their effectiveness and therefore problematic. Data for this study was collected using a modified version of the recently constructed psychological capital questionnaire (Luthans,F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B.J, 2007) (made up of 48 items for both teachers and administrators), 43 questionnaire items for conscientiousness, emotional stability, extraversion, person-job fit and person-organization fit and 31 items for teaching effectiveness constructed by the researcher. The overall instrument was made up of 122 items. The STATA statistical package was used to run Regressions and establish Correlations used to establish relationships and in verifying the Research hypotheses. Psychological capital was found to be a significant predictor of teaching effectiveness after controlling for Emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, person-job fit and person-organization fit. Also Self-Efficacy, Hope and Optimism were shown to have significant impact on teachers' Enthusiasm, Expectations and Task Orientation respectively. The study also found that the relationship between resilience and commitment was not statistically significant as the null hypothesis was retained. The study concludes with a call for the inclusion of psychological capital training programs to develop teachers' psychological capital as an alternative to mitigate the ongoing challenges of ineffectiveness in the secondary school. environment..

INTRODUCTION
Background

Some decades ago, Psychology as a discipline was associated as dealing with treatment of mental illnesses. In the first sentence of his book "Authentic happiness", Seligman (2000) expanding on Maslow's 1954 comment on motivation claimed that "for the last century, psychology has been consumed with a single topic only- "mental illness". This comment depicts deficiency in research on the positive. Concentrating on what is wrong with people led to psychologists under emphasizing another purpose of psychological research and that is to increase the positive development, strengths, capacities of individuals, organizations, communities and society (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Sheldon & King 2001). From this backdrop Martin Seligman urged psychologists to continue the earlier missions of psychology, of nurturing talents and improving normal life.

Since World War II, Psychology's main focus was on maladaptive behaviours and weaknesses of the individual. This focus on the negative, then allowed researchers to make a substantial progress in the curing and diagnosis of mental illnesses (Seligman& Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).The realization of deficiency in research for strengths in individuals, led scholars to endeavor to address issues of positive development of human beings.

Like psychologists, Educators have often been consumed by the problems that they see in their students and teachers, and are consumed with fixing the weaknesses of their students and teachers while neglecting to identify and strengthen their positive strengths and qualities. However, in the last decade, researchers diverted attention to understanding the conditions and processes that contribute to optimal functioning of people, groups and institutions (Gable & Haidt, 2005).To appreciate properly any new experience like positive psychology, it helps to know something about its history, objectives and techniques. In the field of positive psychology, there can be increased interest if we know something about how it started, why it started and what it claims and stand for.

Historically, earlier influences on positive psychology came primarily from philosophical and religious sources, as scientific psychology did not take its modern form until the late 19th century. At the end of the 20th century, positive psychology gained popularity. Positive Psychology, the study of optimal human functioning, is an attempt to respond to the bias inherent in Psychology's historical emphasis on mental illnesses rather than on mental wellness, mainly by focusing on two forgotten but classical Psychological goals

(Seligman, 2002): To help people to live a more productive and meaningful life and a full realization of the positive potentials that exist in the human being. It is this realignment, which led to the newly emerging positive psychology field, and has ignited a stream of research that is no longer exclusively focused on fixing the mental illnesses of individuals.

Psychological capital has its origins in positive organizational behaviours and positive psychology. The concept of positive organizational behavior (POB) was introduced several years ago as a way to focus on bringing Positive Psychology to the work place. More formally, POB is defined as "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's work place" (Luthans, 2002a). Positive Organizational Behaviour is trying to recognize and emphasize the largely untapped power that positivity may have in contemporary and future workplaces. Positive Organizational Behaviour serves as an important precedent and has become a prerequisite for the proposed application of positivity to the workplace in the form of Psychological capital.

Furthermore, cotemporary positive psychology equally finds its roots in the Humanistic psychology of the 20th century, which focused heavily on happiness and fulfillment. Several Humanistic psychologists such as Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers and Erich Fromm developed theories and practices that involve human happiness. Recently, these theories developed by the Humanistic psychologists found empirical support from studies by positive psychologists.

Positive psychology actually began as a new area of Psychology in 1998. Martin Seligman, choose it as the theme for his term as President of the American Psychological Association (APA). The purpose of positive psychology was finally summed by Martin Seligman and Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi as follows, "we believe that a psychology of positive human functioning will arise, which achieves a scientific understanding and effective interventions to build communities".

Positive psychologists seek to find and nurture genius and talents and to make life more fulfilling rather than merely treating mental illnesses. This branch of psychology intends to complement and focus, not to replace or ignore the rest of Psychology. It does not seek to deny the importance of studying how things go wrong but rather to emphasize the importance of using the scientific method to determine how things go right in humans. The field of positive psychology brings to attention the possibility that focusing only on the disorder itself will result only in a partial understanding of a client's condition. "The Character, Strengths and Virtues Hand Book of Human Strengths and virtues" by Christopher Peterson and Martin Seligman represents the first attempt on the part of research community to identify and classify positive psychological traits of human beings.

When Positive Psychology was still in its infancy stage, scholars began a positive psychology conference where scholars and practitioners could come together and discuss their research on positive psychology. One well known organizational behaviour scholar, Fred Luthans, attended one of these initial conferences, and while listening, he began to have a paradigm shift on his perspective of the field of organizational behaviour (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b; Luthans and Avolio , 2009; Luthans, Youssef,& Avolio, 2007). As he was listening , he reflected on what was being presented and his previous work in self-efficacy and the work place (Stajkovic & Luthans,1988a, 1988b), he realized that Positive Psychology could have an impact on the organizational behaviour field . Luthans stated "we have been more concerned with what is wrong with organizations, teams, leaders, and employees than what is right with them" (Luthans, 2002b).

In fact, it is in the work of Luthans, particularly Luthans (2002a & 2002b) that the value of Positive Psychology to organizations and organizational scholarship is most evident. Building on the foundation laid by Seligman, Luthans contends the need for examination of positive organizational behaviour that moves beyond the popular style of self-help publications for practicing managers towards research- backed theoretically sound solutions to real world problems (Luthans, 2002a, 2002b).

What sets psychological capital apart from longtime popular perspectives such as "the power of positive thinking" and many best-selling, positively oriented personal development books is its foundation in theory and research. Both researchers and practitioners have grown weary of management fads (short term popularity) unsubstantiated claims, and short-term results. Therefore instead of just introducing yet another set of "competencies" or "best practices" for human resource practitioners to use, contemporary positive psychologists proposed psychological capital. Psychological capital as an alternative is backed by its rich theoretical and methodologically sound measures and research findings. As a result of the rich theoretical framework, psychological capital offers a more comprehensive, higher order conceptual framework for understanding the role of human assets in today's organizations (Avolio & Luthans, 2006; Luthans, Luthans, et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2006).

Luthans' criteria for inclusion of a variable into this higher order conceptual framework consisted of the variable being positive, having strong research, a theoretical base, valid measurement, had to be state-like or open to development and can lead to increased performance (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). So far, Luthans has highlighted hope, self-efficacy, resiliency and optimism as the only positive psychology variables that fit the POB criteria at the moment. Nonetheless, Luthans has also suggested other possible positive psychological variables such as wisdom, creativity, flow, and emotional intelligence (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007) as potential future contributors of positive organizational behaviours. But currently, these variables either lack strong theory, or an empirical measurement that is reliable and valid. Therefore, psychological capital variables (self efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience) at the moment meets Luthans' expectation by having a solid theoretical background that supports the claims of it being a core construct and state-like as opposed to fixed traits.

Support for the core construct of psychological capital can be found in the psychological resource theories (Hobfoll, 2002).

These theories posit that psychological resources (e.g., efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience) can be best understood and treated as manifestations of a larger underlying phenomenon. Taken together, the four resources mentioned above, synergistically interact to form the core construct of Psychological capital. Similar support comes from Fredrickson's (1998, 2001) broaden and- build theory of positivity.

Psychological capital's foundation also draw from social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), which establishes reciprocal interactions among the person, and past behaviour. The theory provides support for the distinction between general stable personality traits or trait-like characteristics such as found in the Big Five dimensions of personality as opposed to the more contextualized and malleable psychological capital construct which is state-like. The Big Five dimensions of personality include emotional stability, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. A number of research studies point toward these factors as relatively enduring trait-like dimensions of personality (Costa & McRae, 1995, 1998; David & Suls1999; Hogan 1987).Personality traits are abstract dispositional attributes of an individual that predispose—and cause—the individual to think and behave in a certain way almost regardless of the external situation.

Besides framing psychological capital as a type of resource theory, another way to provide understanding of psychological capital as a core construct is that in the theory building, it has been proposed that it goes beyond established human and social capital. Psychological capital recognizes, builds upon, and goes beyond the existing established theory and research on human capital, that is, "*what you know,*" and social capital, that is, "*who you know*" (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Coleman, 1988; Hitt & Ireland, 2002; Wright & Snell, 1999).

While studying hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resilience within the workplace Luthans found that these four variables interacted to form a higher order construct (psychological capital) that increases performance, satisfaction, and commitment beyond the summation of these four variables (Luthans, Avolio, & Avey, 2008; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio,2007). The term " psychological" refers to psychological resource developmental state or level and "Capital" an Economic term referring to resources withdrawn from consumption that are invested for future anticipated returns (success). Putting these two terms together, the point the researcher is trying to make here is that the psychological capital of an individual is a psychological resource that can be invested into his/her activities (work) for future returns, success or higher performance.

Psychological Capital as comprising of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resiliency was introduced by Luthans (2004) as a measure comparable and complementary to measures of human or intellectual capital (*what you know* i.e. experience, level of education, skills, knowledge, ideas), social capital (*who you know* i.e. relationships, network or contacts, friends) and traditional Economic capital (*what you have* i.e. finances, tangible assets e.g. equipments, patents data). In other words, psychological capital is concerned with "*who you are*" and, in the developmental sense, "*who

you are becoming*" (Avolio & Luthans, 2006; Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Psychological capital can include knowledge, skills, technical abilities, and experience because this is also "who you are." The same is true of social capital. Psychological capital can include group level meta-constructs, such as social support and the network of relationships, that are part of "who you are," particularly in times of psychological stress (Sarason, Shearin, & Pierce, 1987).

However, how psychological capital goes beyond social capital, human and Economic capital is found in the psychological capacities, which have generally been ignored, and especially the developmental piece of psychological capital of "what you are becoming." That is, psychological capital recognizes moving (developing) from the actual self to the possible self (Avolio & Luthans, 2006).

Educational scholars have traditionally looked at the impact of Economic capital, human capital and social capital on academic performance (Luthans, Luthans, Luthans, 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). Their research works suggest that the traditional forms of capital (financial, human and social capital) play a role in academic performance of students, teachers and the school (Lassen, Steele, & Sailor, 2006; Parcel & Dufur, 2001; Marks, Cresswel, & Ainley, 2006; Stewart, 2008). With these other forms of capital, now making an important contribution to competitive advantage to today's educational institutions, the time has come to refine and advance research in the newly proposed positive psychological capital.

Positive Psychological Capital the main thrust of this study has therefore been defined as "the positive and developmental state of an individual characterized by: having confidence (High Self- efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; making a positive attribution (Optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; persevering towards goals, and when necessary redirecting goals (Hope) in order to succeed and when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (Resilience) to attain success" (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). From the ongoing dialogue, there is sufficient reason for the development of teachers' Psychological capital in Cameroon.

Teachers according to Ndongko (1989) are the most important components of the school system. Farant (1980) further qualify teachers as the main resource in the school system. Considering their vital role, in bringing up children placed under them, it seems inevitable for them to develop competence in their job and above all the intrinsic motivation to carry on their daunting tasks with passion. From this line of reasoning, the researcher selected Teachers' Enthusiasm, Expectations, Task orientation and Commitment (positive attitudes and behavioural patterns) as indicators of effective teaching in this study. These indicators were selected based on their popularity in effective teaching literature.

In Cameroon, the government and other educational stakeholders perceive as good secondary schools, those that have high student performance rate in the Cameroon Certificate of Education (CGCE) at both the Ordinary and Advanced levels. Therefore, it logically follows that effective

teaching is equated with success in examinations. Nevertheless, learning outcomes as a sole source of monitoring or measuring teaching effectiveness is a sticky source . In this case, effective teaching is being inferred from students' performance in exams-what they learned in the course. There exist significant correlations between student ratings of effective teaching and performance on final exams (Cohen, 1981). Despite this correlation, establishing student performance on learning outcome as an independent, valid measure of teaching effectiveness is fraught with numerous setbacks.

If we rely solely on outcomes to judge teaching effectiveness, a lot of irreversible harm might be done to the learners before we realize just when they fail in their examination. It is rather preferable to adopt a proactive strategy to check and control ineffectiveness in the course of the teaching learning process than one that is reactive. Our fear is that, over emphasis on results and not the attitudes towards teaching/learning might also favour bribery and corruption, "sexually transmissible marks" and above all the 100% syndrome (shallow learning for success in exams) which already constitute a threat to deep learning. The researcher however, does not ignore learning outcomes as an indicator of effective teaching; rather the researcher cautions that it should be used alongside other measures so as to mitigate its short comings. In this study the researcher contend that exploring and developing teachers' self efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience could be a proactive way for addressing effective teaching.

Statement of the Problem
The quality of education in any country is reflected and related to those who serve as teachers in the school system. Furthermore, teachers constitute the bulk of employees and the critical role they play account for the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the entire system. The quality of education cannot rise above the quality of the teachers With changing times (Globalization) and the dream of an emerging nation the state of Cameroon is emphasizing on the effectiveness of the school system as a main tool to train its badly needed man power.

Unfortunately, inadequate teacher quality has been identified as a key problem of the Secondary school sector (Sector Wide Report, 2005). The state has taken a number of measures to strengthen teacher's professional growth through pedagogic inspections so as to improve the effectiveness of the secondary school system. Indeed, the strategy has overemphasized educational qualification (human capital) at the detriment of teachers' psychological maturity. Therefore, the researcher strongly argues that developing teachers' psychological capital is a comparable and complementary strategy that must be given attention.

Teachers' educational qualification as a strategy for improving teaching though important seems inadequate. Laying too much emphasis on teachers' qualification has ignored the contributions that planned interventions of teachers' development of Self-efficacy, Hope, Optimism and resilience can make to improve teachers' effectiveness. Teachers may have the necessary educational qualification and yet be ineffective; as a function of lack of hope, self-efficacy, optimism and Resilience. Hence, this study extends teachers quality which educational authorities have already identified as problematic, to accommodate teachers psychological development. It is on this premise that a study on "The impact of psychological capital on teaching effectiveness in secondary schools in Bafut sub-Division, North West Region, Cameroon was conceived and conducted.

Objectives of the Study
General Objective
The main objective of this study was to examine the impact of positive psychological Capital on teaching effectiveness.

Specific Objectives
Specifically the study aimed at:
❖ Examining the impact of Self-efficacy on Teachers' Enthusiasm.
❖ Finding out the Impact of Hope on Teachers' Expectations of Learners.
❖ Investigating the Impact of Optimism on Teachers' Task Orientation.
❖ Examining the Impact of Teachers' Resilience on their Commitment

General Research Question
What is the impact of psychological capital on teaching effectiveness?

Specific Research Questions
❖ What is the impact of self- efficacy on teachers' enthusiasm?
❖ How does teachers' Hope impact on their Expectations?
❖ How does Optimism impact on teachers' Task Orientation?
❖ How does Resilience impact on Teachers' Commitment?

Research Hypotheses
General Research hypothesis
H_0: There is no significant relationship between psychological capital and teaching effectiveness.
H_a: There is a significant relationship between psychological capital and teaching effectiveness.

Specific Research Hypothesis
Hypothesis 1:
❖ H_0: There is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and teachers' enthusiasm
❖ H_a: There is a significant relationship between self-efficacy and teachers' enthusiasm.

Hypothesis 2:
❖ H_0: There is no significant relationship between hope and teachers' expectations.
❖ H_a: There is a significant relationship between hope and teachers' expectations.

Hypothesis 3:
❖ H_0: There is no significant relationship between optimism and teachers' Task orientation.
❖ H_a: There is a significant relationship between optimism and teachers' task orientation.

Hypothesis 4:
❖ H_0: There is no significant relationship between resilience and teachers' commitment.
❖ H_a: There is a significant relationship between resilience and teachers' commitment.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Theoretical review

The psychological capital indicators synergistically interact as a core construct to produce work outcome impacts greater than the sum of individually measured impacts of separate indicators. As such the psychological Resource theoretical framework or overarching theoretical frame work was used to address the main concept (psycap). Also the psychological capital indicators are backed by sound theories. In line with this, this study found it relevant to use the Hope theory propounded by Snyder (2002), the attribution theory by Seligman (1998), and self-efficacy theory of Bandura (1997, 1998& 2001).

To provide support for psychological capital as a core construct, inspiration was drawn from psychological resource theories (Hobfoll, 2002). These widely recognized theories emphasize the necessity of treating individual resources (in this case, self efficacy, optimism, Hope and Resilience) as manifestations of an underlying core construct or an integrated resource set rather than in isolation. For example, key resource theories (Thoits, 1994) have identified individual-level resources such as self-efficacy, optimism, resiliency, and degree of goal pursuit (an integral component of hope) as essential foundational resources for managing and adapting other resources to achieve favourable outcomes. Such key resources have been empirically supported as interactive and synergistic (Cozzarelli, 1993; Rini, Dunkel-Schetter, Wadhwa, & Sandman, 1999).

Similarly, multiple-component resource theories support resource synergies, in which the whole is greater than the sum of the constituent parts. Examples of such theories include the theory of sense of coherence (Antonovsky, 1979), which is conceptually similar to Psychological capital's optimism, as well as the well-known construct of hardiness (Kobasa, 1979), which in many ways parallels psychological capital's resiliency (Hobfoll, 2002).

This study also draws from Bandura's 1986, 1997 and 2001 theoretical versions. Based on Bandura's (1986, 1997and 2001) social cognitive theory, psychological capital's efficacy is built on his five identified cognitive processes that are vital constituents of the efficacy equation: *symbolizing, forethought, observation, self-regulation, and self-reflection*. This theory postulates that, it is not just an individual's success but also his cognitive processing (i.e., symbolizing, forethought, observation, self-regulation, and self-reflection) that determines his confidence and efficacy. When people employ and channel their cognitive processing of symbolizing, forethought, observation, self-regulation, and self-reflection in the right direction; they are likely not only to succeed in the present circumstance but also to build future psychological capital's self-efficacy and subsequent success.

In formulating the Hope theory, Snyder began with the assumption that people are generally goal oriented; that is, people always behave in such a way that they are trying to accomplish something. Snyder determined that there were two components comprising hope: agency (willpower) and pathways (proactive planning to achieve goals). Agency or willpower represents an individual's capacity or motivation to both start work on a given goal and to continue down the path of accomplishing that goal. If it is set right, all the rest will fall into place and be in harmony. The willpower is not

mere purpose or wish; it is the deliberate choice and the deciding power that everything else must obey. The willpower component of hope supports organizational participants to be more motivated toward accomplishing work-related goals. This in turn positively affects their performance. On the other hand, Pathways' thinking in Snyder's hope theory is the ability to proactively generate one or more pathways to goal accomplishment in a given situation.

The main assumption of attribution theory is that optimists and pessimists differ significantly in how they explain their successes and failures. In positive psychology, Seligman (1998) uses an attribution theoretical framework (i.e., explanatory style) whereby he believes optimists make internal, stable, and global causal attributions of positive events and external, unstable, and specific attributions of negative events. On the alternative, pessimists make external and specific attributions of positive events and internal, stable, and global attributions of negative events.

Attribution theory is closely associated with the concept of motivation. It has been used to explain the difference in motivation between pessimists and optimists. This theory also assumes that pessimists tend to cite inadequate ability (internal stable cause) as causes for failure and luck and mood as causes for success. Therefore, any future successes are seen as outside their personal control and dependent on chance. The power of self belief is very strong. Therefore, there exist a strong relationship between self-concept and achievement.

Also this theory postulate that optimists are buffered from unfavorable events, discount feelings of guilt, depression and are more likely to accept positive return from favourable events. What is known from attribution theory is that, how a person explains successes or failures is more important than how many times she/he has succeeded or failed. Attribution theory states that, the explanations one gives for successes and failures actually influence subsequent performance.

According to this theory, optimists will approach rather than avoid challenging tasks because they belief success is due to ability and effort which they belief they have. Failure does not affect their self esteem and success builds pride and confidence. Related to this study therefore, optimistic teachers will stay focus on their teaching/learning tasks because they belief in themselves even in the face of challenges.

Conceptual Review
Psychological Capital

Psychological capital is defined as one's positive appraisal of circumstances and probability for success based on motivated effort and perseverance (Luthans et al.; 2007). Conceptually, the definition of Psychological Capital suggests that an integrative, common link running among the four dimensions (Self efficacy, Hope, Optimism and Resilience) is a motivational propensity to accomplish goals and succeed. Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2007) have noted that the underlying threads that link the four capacities into a higher order core construct reside in a combination of the following: the positive perceptions, attributions, interpretations, and appraisals of one's experiences; the availability of physical and psychological resources; and the resultant actual and perceived probability of success based on personal choices, vested effort, and perseverance.

Bandura's (2008), agentic perspective on positive psychology suggests that the four positive resources interact in a synergistic manner such that an individual is at his or her operational best when one resource is informing the other. The explanation for this agentic interactive relationship among the four constructs can be found in Bandura's (1997) distinction between efficacy and resilient efficacy, whereby resilient efficacy intentionally perseveres in spite of setbacks.

Psychological capital lead to higher performance based on their reinforcing greater extra effort from individuals, promoting the generation of multiple solutions to problems, positive expectations about results leading to higher levels of motivation, and positive responses to setbacks. In other words, there may be a motivational propensity found in Psychological Capital for goal accomplishment and success. Luthans, Avolio et al. (2007) have provided direct empirical support for Psychological Capital as a core construct. Specifically, they found that each of the four dimensions best load onto the psychological capital core factor.

There are both conceptual and empirical (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Carifio & Rhodes, 2002; Magaletta & Oliver, 1999) support that the four positive psychological resources of hope, optimism, efficacy, and resilience have discriminant validity. Moreover, as indicated, these four in combination have been conceptually (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007) and empirically (Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007) demonstrated to form a second order core construct.

Bandura (2008) declares that, "Unless people believe they can produce desired effects by their actions they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties." This belief to act intentionally comes from their reservoir of Psychological Capital, which in turn serves as the foundation for their motivation and striving to attain goals and succeed. In sum, there is considerable support for Psychological Capital as a core construct and its relationship to positive attitudes, behaviours, and performance. Finally in defining what constitutes a psychological capital resource, as already reiterated in the background, Luthans (2002a, 2002b) suggested that it must be based on theory and research, amendable to valid measurement, state-like and thus open to development and change, and have performance impact.

Psychological Capital as a State-Like Construct
In terms of developmental potential, it is important to note that psychological capital, as well as each of its constituent resources or capacities, is considered state-like, as found in the positive psychological capital literature for Efficacy, Bandura (1997); Hope, Snyder (2002); Resilience, Masten & Reed (2002); Optimism, Carver & Scheier (2002), and Seligman (1998), rather than just a fixed trait. Although positive traits and states do share some common characteristics, both conceptually (e.g., positivity) and empirically (e.g., positive correlations, common correlates, and related outcomes), recent theory-building and empirical research also supports distinctiveness and discriminant

validity. For example, Luthans and Youssef (2007) made the case for a trait–state continuum that encompasses the following:

➢ **Pure positive traits**: These are at one extreme of the continuum and are characterized by stability over time and across situations, including traits that are believed to be "hard-wired," such as intelligence or hereditary characteristics.

➢ **Trait-like constructs**: These are closer to the trait end of the continuum and refer to relatively stable psychological characteristics such as conscientiousness, extroversion, and core self-evaluations (CSEs).

➢ **State-like psychological resources:** These are closer to the opposite end of the continuum and include psychological capital and its constituents of efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency (the focus of this study), which tend to be malleable and thus open to development and are particularly relevant to the workplace.

➢ **Positive states**: These are at the other extreme of the continuum and include momentary and highly variable states such as moods and emotions (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007)

Several cognitive, affective, and social mechanisms warrant the conceptual distinction between psychological capital and other, related organizational behaviour constructs. This is because they may share some, but not all, of psychological capital's characteristics and thus occupy varying locations on the trait–state continuum described above. For example, Hannah and Luthans (2008) recent cognitive affective processing system provides a model that can help elucidate some of these mechanisms. In this model, psychological capital is specifically proposed to result from dynamic processes that activate the adaptive encoding of cognitive categories, expectancies, goals, values, affects, and self-regulatory plans. These processes are selectively activated and context specific. On the other hand, traits and trait-like characteristics are more global in nature, are exhibited based on the chronic activation of certain sets of cognitive affective processing units, and represent habitual or programmed responses that can be primed through exposure to predetermined stimuli.

Because the positive psychological capacities outlined above are states rather than fixed traits, they are open to development. However, as mentioned in the background of this study, unlike traditional financial capital and tangible assets, this can be done at relatively little monetary costs within a comparatively shorter period of time. The psychological capital constructs all have proven guidelines for their enhancement. In terms of being state-like, psychological capital has been developed by short session trainings in both classroom and field settings and electronically through the internet (Fred Luthans, Bruce Avolio &James Avey; 2007).

Table 1: Characteristics of State-Like Constructs and related constructs

CAPACITY	EXAMPLES	CHARACTERISTICS
Positive States	Feelings (Pleasure, moods & happiness)	Momentary and unstable
State-like Constructs	self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism (Psycap)	Malleable and thus open to development.
Trait-like Constructs	Personalities and strengths	Fixed and difficult to change
Pure Traits	Intelligence and Talents	Fixed and very difficult to change

Source: Researcher' conceptualization

Distinctive Component Contribution of the Affective States to Positive Psychological Capital

The nature of the affective states (Hope, Self efficacy, Optimism & Resilience) that comprise psychological capital is such that the distinction between each is not always clear (Luthans, Avey et al, 2006). For example hope might easily be confused with optimism. For this reason it is worthwhile to clarify these differences and also the overlap between the constructs by exploring the definitions of the concepts and related literature as employed in psychological capital research.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy in this study, is based in large part on Bandura's (1997, 1998, 2001) research, but as applied to the workplace. Stajkovic and Luthans (1998b,) define efficacy as "the employee's conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context." Thus, self-efficacy as a component of psychological capital is directed specifically to a given context and has been supported via meta-analysis to have a significant positive relationship with work-specific performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998a).

Bandura (1997) sparingly uses the term confidence and most efficacy theorists tend to treat confidence as conceptually subordinate to efficacy. However, in positive psychology the two terms are used more interchangeably (Maddux, 2002). This reflects the rich theoretical and research bases of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and the more applied orientation associated with confidence (Kanter, 2004). Whether efficacy or confidence is used, it is important to emphasize the link to one's belief. Self-efficacious people are distinguished by five important characteristics.

❖ They set high goals for themselves and self-select into difficult tasks.
❖ They welcome and thrive on challenge.
❖ They are highly self-motivated.
❖ They invest the necessary effort to accomplish their goals.
❖ When faced with obstacles, they persevere.

These five characteristics equip high-efficacy individuals with the capacity to develop independently and perform effectively, even with little external input for extended periods of time. People with high psychological capital efficacy do not wait for challenging goals to be set for them, which is often referred to as "discrepancy reduction." On the contrary, they create their own discrepancies by continuously challenging themselves with higher and higher self-set goals and by seeking and voluntarily opting for difficult tasks (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio; 2007).

The research of well-known psychologist Albert Bandura, has demonstrated that self-efficacy as a positive psychological capital capacity has a strong positive relationship to work-related performance. Besides performance outcomes, self-efficacy has also been shown to relate to work attitudes across cultures (Luthans, Zhu, & Avolio, 2006) and to enhanced health and psychosocial capacities (Holden, 1991; Holden, Moncher, Schinke, & Barker, 1990). Moreover, efficacy has often been supported as a significant contributor to effective functioning under stress, fear, and challenge, primarily due to one's perceptions of personal control (Bandura & Locke, 2003).

The conceptual similarity between generalized efficacy and self-efficacy warrants distinction. Generalized self-efficacy is a trait-like characteristic that is more global in nature, exhibited based on the chronic activation of certain sets of cognitive processing units, and represent a habitual or programmed response that can be primed through exposure to predetermined stimuli. For example, although some people may exhibit generalized efficacy (trait-like, as conceptualized by Bandura, 1997), which may cause them to come across as confident individuals over time and across situations, others may seem to lack this confidence.

On the other hand, self-efficacy (a state-like capacity as conceptualized by Bandura (1997) and as a key component of psychological capital is more domain-specific and can be developed for specific set of tasks (e.g., teaching/learning tasks) through mastery experiences, modeling, social persuasion, and physiological and psychological arousal (Bandura, 1997). These developmental components of self efficacy as conceptualized by psychological capital can create positive expectancies, trigger the creation of goals with an approach orientation (rather than avoidance) and motivate self-regulatory mechanisms that increase the probability of perseverance and success in a particular situation. Self-doubt, skepticism, negative feedback, social criticism, obstacles (setbacks), and even repeated failure, which can be devastating for people with low efficacy, have little impact on highly efficacious individuals (Bandura & Locke, 2003).

Bandura (2000) presents some key perceptual and attribution biases that can act as potential inhibitors of psychological capital's efficacy development. For example, success can lose some of its value if the developing individual perceives the task to have been too easy, attributes much of the success to others' help, focuses on how slow the rate of improvement was, or emphasizes memories of the failures that led up to the success. Again, in terms of the impact of modeling, it can be dampened by the perceived degree of dissimilarity or relevancy of the model or situation. Social persuasion/positive feedback can also be interpreted in a biased manner if the credibility, expertise, or genuineness of the source can be challenged or if there is lack of consensus across various sources of the feedback and appraisal.

It is also important to discuss the potential problems of psychological capital's efficacy beliefs that can result in unrealistic overconfidence, that is, false efficacy. Although limited in scope there are some research findings which claim that even when based on high past performance (mastery), unrealistic overconfidence can cause innocence and thus may reduce subsequent performance (Vancouver, Thompson, Tischner, & Putka, 2002; Vancouver, Thompson, & Williams, 2001). However, Bandura and Locke (2003) challenge the validity of these research findings.

Nonetheless, individuals and organizations are not far enough along the confidence curve to worry about a potential overconfidence effect (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio; 2007). In today's workplace, where adversities and setbacks are commonplace, psychological capital's efficacy is challenged on an almost daily basis. Developing

psychological capital's efficacy becomes critical to sustaining effective leadership and high performance over time (Avolio & Luthans, 2006).

Hope

Hope in ordinary language tends to have the connotation of "wishing for the best." As a psychological strength, there are many misperceptions about what constitutes hope and what the characteristics of hopeful individuals, groups, and organizations are. Many confuse psychological capital's hope with mere wishful thinking, an unsubstantiated positive attitude, an emotional high, or even an illusion (Luthans, Youssef &Avolio; 2007). However, within the psychological capital framework, the construct of hope is generally considered to be an "empowering way of thinking" (Snyder, 1994).

Snyder (1999), the most widely recognized researcher on hope in the positive psychology movement defined hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful agency (goal-directed energy) and pathways (planning to meet goals)". In his conceptualization of hope, Snyder (1993) contends that there is a continuous reiteration between the analysis of agency and pathways related to a goal in one's cognitive activity.

Often overlooked in the common usage of the term, is the "pathways" or "will-power" component of hope. In this component of hope, people are capable of generating alternative paths to their desired destinations, should the original ones become blocked (Snyder, 1994, 1995a, 2000; Snyder, Ilardi, Michael, & Cheavens, 2000; Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). The pathways component mainly separates psychological capital's hope from the everyday usage of the term and from the other psychological capital states, such as resiliency, self-efficacy, and optimism (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Carifio & Rhodes, 2002; Luthans & Jensen, 2002, Magaletta & Oliver, 1999; Snyder, 2002).

The relationship between hope and performance in various life domains has become well established. Such domains include: academic and athletic achievement, physical and mental health, survival and coping beliefs and skills, and other desirable, positive life and well-being outcomes (Curry, Snyder, Cook, Ruby, & Rehm, 1997; Kwon, 2000; Onwuegbuzie & Snyder, 2000; Range & Pentin, 1994; Scioli, et al., 1997; Snyder, 2000)

As with the other dimensions of psychological capital, realism is required for hope to be effective. False hope is certainly a potential threat. At some point, where hope becomes unrealistic, performance may suddenly decline along with success. Unrealistically hopeful organizations or individuals may commit their energy and resources to goals that are beyond their reach. They may also fall into the trap of escalation of commitment and continue to enthusiastically pursue goals that may be challenging but that are no longer strategically significant or realistically attainable. Snyder (1995a) advises that along with hope development, the skill of "regoaling" is necessary to continuously redirect the energies and creativity of hopeful individuals to the right goals and away from obsolete goals or those that have proven over time to be unachievable. Therefore hope as a component of psychological capital is realistic and not mere wishful thinking.

Optimism

Optimism is perhaps more closely associated with overall positive psychology than the other constructs. Like hope, optimism is a commonly used term, but Seligman's (2002) definition draws from attribution theory in terms of two crucial dimensions of one's explanatory style of good and bad events: permanence and pervasiveness. Carver and Scheier (2002), take an expectancy perspective. Carver and Scheier (2002) note that "optimists are people who expect good things to happen to them; pessimists are people who expect bad things to happen to them" and the difference between the two is not trivial, as optimists "differ in how they approach problems and challenges and differ in the manner with which they cope with adversity." Carver and Scheier (2002) also assert that when people have positive expectancy, they will continue to put forth effort even in the face of increasing adversity. By contrast, pessimists often lack the positive expectation of a desirable outcome to even initiate an action toward arriving at the desired outcome. Thus, it follows that increased expectation and effort would generally lead optimists to perform better than pessimists. Optimism occurs to be future-focused whereby the optimist is more likely to anticipate that future events will be positive in nature regardless of the present circumstances.

Although optimism has been portrayed as dispositional in the early work of Scheier and Carver (1985), Seligman (1998) later suggested that it can be developed, which he termed "learned optimism." Indeed, in support of Seligman's arguments, Carver and Scheier (2002,) more recently have concluded that "Change in an optimistic direction is possible" through developmental interventions. Thus, although individuals may be more or less optimistic, there is potential to develop optimism, which provides theoretical support for being a positive state-like capacity that can be enhanced through intervention. Particularly relevant to the workplace is realistic optimism (Schneider, 2001) and flexible optimism (Peterson, 2000), which equips employees with the ability to discern when to use optimistic versus pessimistic explanatory styles, as well as the capacity to adapt these styles realistically to the situations at hand.

Resilience

According to Psychologist Martin Seligman and his colleagues (2002), Resilience "refers to a class of phenomena characterized by patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant adversity or risk, increased responsibility, failure or even positive but seemingly overwhelming change" which enables individuals to bounce back quickly and effectively from adverse events. Furthermore, according to Masten and Reed (2002), resilience is comprised of adaptation processes, which are mechanisms developed by highly resilient individuals to effectively employ their available assets (e.g., cognitive, affective, social, financial, and other positive characteristics, skills, and resources) to mitigate the impact of their risk factors (e.g., weaknesses, deficiencies, and other negative factors that have the potential to amplify setbacks).

Much of the research on resilience has stemmed from clinical psychology where therapists focus interventions on one's levels of both assets and risk factors (Masten, 2001). Personal assets are those measurable characteristics that predict positive outcomes and adaptation to adverse circumstances. These assets are often referred to as

resources. By contrast, risk factors are those measurable characteristics that predict negative outcomes and poor adaptation and in the school may be threats such as an abusive principals or heads of departments.

Resilience therefore makes the difference between those who recover well after adversity and those who remain devastated and unable to move ahead (Block & Kremen, 1996; Masten et al., 1985). Richardson (2002) argues that those higher in resilience bounce back psychologically (including emotion and cognition) to levels at, or even beyond, previous levels of homeostasis or equilibrium (Bonanno, 2004).

At first, resilience was thought to be quite rare in people, but now, Masten (2001) argues that "there is evidence that it can come from the everyday magic of ordinary, normative human resources" and "has profound implications for promoting competence and human capital in individuals and society." According to Coutu (2002), the common themes/profiles of resilient people are now recognized to be a staunch acceptance of reality, a deep belief, often buttressed by strongly held values, that life is meaningful, and an uncanny ability to improvise and adapt to significant changes. Thus, resilience can be seen to have a clear impact on performance, can be measured (Schwarzer &Knoll, 2003), and can be developed at the individual level (Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

Developing assets and minimizing risk factors are the targets of resilience development interventions (Masten, 2001). Considerable work in clinical and positive psychology, as well as human resource development supports the notion that resilience can be developed through training interventions and lends support for the state-like nature of this important positive resource in today's turbulent environment (Luthans, Vogelgesang, & Lester, 2006).

While resilient people belief that they have resources which they can tap to overcome challenges, victims of the phenomenon of "learned helplessness" belief that there is no link between the responses they make and the outcome. We often hear someone complaining about an intolerable situation that he/she couldn't seem to resolve, saying that he/she was tired of "hitting his/her head against the wall" and was giving up and accepting things the way they were. This example illustrates one of the possible consequences of being in an environment in which control over a situation is not possible (a state that produces learned helplessness). According to Seligman and colleagues (1993), learned helplessness occurs when people conclude that unpleasant or aversive stimuli cannot be controlled- a view of the world which become so ingrained that they cease trying to remedy the aversive circumstances, even if they can actually exert some influence.

Reviewing the disparate psychological capital constructs, it become clear that a large degree of overlap exists even within the limits of the definitions and the literature reviewed. The overlap and indeed, confusion is far greater when taking into consideration the larger field of literature from which each definition is taken. The Table below summarizes the primary value contributed to positive psychological capital by each of psychological capital's component affective state.

Table 2: Summary of Component Contributions to Positive Psychological Capital

Components	Directionality	Contributions
Self-efficacy	Present-to-future	Provides for openness to challenges and a willingness to expend effort on the pursuit of a goal (perhaps because of the expected positive return on that investment).
Hope	Future focused	Provides goals and desire to attain those goals (implying a link to motivation), as well as planning different pathways to enable the attainment of the goals.
Optimism	Future focused	Provides buffers between negative impact of unfavorable events and a persistently positive expectation for the future and enhances or capitalizes on the positive impact of favourable events.
Resilience	Past-to-present-focused	Provides for recovery from previous or present unfavorable events or stressors and maintains or exceeds the status quo.

Source: Preliminary Exploration of Psychological Capital (Luthans, 2002)

As can be seen, there is a subtle distinction between some of the states. Each, however, adds some unique value to the overall measure. There's for example a similarity between confidence and hope. Both relate in some way to internal resources by which an individual may attain a given goal. The difference is twofold: hope is explicitly focused on the future (goals and plans for the short to long run), whereas confidence speaks only to preparedness to take on a given challenge.

Similarly, the concepts addressed by self-efficacy and optimism appear close. In self-efficacy, "the self as a causal agent is paramount", (Carver & Scheier 2004). A favourable outcome might thus be judged to be dependent on the internal resources of the individual in question. One who is optimistic however, might, also be confident of a positive outcome. However, while self-efficacy depicts a willingness to act as challenges arise, optimism speaks clearly to the future (even when used in reference to current event, the optimistic response is often in line with, "it will be better next time).

In discussing resilience, especially with regard to seeking or making meaning for events, clear ties to both hope and optimism emerge. However, here the focus is quite clear on the present and on adapting to coping with events in a way that enables the individual to build strengths. Hope and resilience also share a process orientation, in which the mechanisms that link the person to the desired outcomes are most critical for success. In the same way that the process of generating alternative pathways is integral for the sustenance of hope, the effectiveness of one's adaptation processes may be more critical for resilience than the simple additive sum of existing assets and risk factors.

Given these distinctions, it becomes easier to see the advantage that a measure of the positive psychological capital offers alongside measures of traditional, human and

social capital in developing a more thorough estimate of the value of an organization. By the same token, psychological capital converges with several more established and relevant positive trait-like constructs as mentioned above.

TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS

In the early 1990s, Boyer (1990) and Rice (1991) redefined scholarship to include teaching. After all, it is the means by which discovered, integrated and applied knowledge is transmitted to the next generation of scholars. A teacher is someone who creates conditions that would bring about learning as planned by changing the frequency of actions on relatively permanent basis given a set of conditions. Teachers therefore are the main actors of the Educational process and as such determine the quality of the products (learners) and of the Educational system.

Nonetheless, it is not their mere presence that matters but how effective they play this determinant role. For the teachers to play this determinant role, Luma (1993) holds that, there is need for teachers to know themselves for a start. Quoting from Maria Montessori (1966), Luma (1983) continued that: 'The right thing required of a teacher is that he/she be rightly disposed for his task; prepare himself from the interior by systematically studying himself so that he/she can get rid of his/her most deeply rooted defects, which might impede his relationship with the learners". Furthermore, Tambo (2003) holds that it is important for teachers not only to be good but also to be effective. Formally, society tended to emphasize the goodness of teachers in terms of their moral and social behaviour, forgetting their effectiveness in terms of how they perceive themselves, their learners and relate to them in the teaching/ learning process. Research attention has been recently given to the study of the effective teaching behaviour and characteristics of effective teachers.

Qualities of Effective and Good Teaching

Bang (2000), sees effective and good teachers as those who:
➢ Know their subject matter.
➢ Are enthusiastic about teaching in their subject area
➢ Develop deep rather than shallow knowledge
➢ Spend the major part of classroom on academic activities
➢ Teach content at a level that ensures a high rate of success
➢ Are organized
➢ Structure learning experience carefully
➢ Ensure that students have sufficient time to practice skills
➢ Clearly present both direction and content information (task orientation)

On the other hand Arends Wiritzky (2001) presented selected qualities of effective teachers as people who should possess:
➢ Good emotional adjustment
➢ Favourable attitudes towards the learners
➢ Enjoyment of learners' relationships
➢ Generosity in appraisal of learners (high performance expectations for all the learners)
➢ Strong interest in reading and literary matters
➢ Interest in social and community affairs
➢ Early experiences in caring for and liking of children

However, despite the profusion of studies devoted to teaching effectiveness, it is difficult to find a unanimously accepted definition of the concept of teaching and by extension effective teaching, given that teaching has been approached from different philosophical perspectives. Diaz (1997), affirms that the complexity in teaching and individual variation among students make effective teaching not to be the same for everybody. Just as people often form a general philosophy about life, so too do people form philosophical positions about education, schooling and teaching.

In fact teaching is a frequently used concept, yet its ultimate meaning is by no means clear. Different definitions of teaching contain different elements. Also, any definition of teaching is only an ad hoc summary of experience and observations. Teaching therefore is an unspecified concept with a richness of meaning and so does effective teaching. Thus, the term teaching evokes different images which often seem contradictory and debatable in the minds of different researchers. Nonetheless, these images are likely to be important and meaningful in their own respect and the context in which teaching occurs.

To permit rigorous empirical research, general or complex concepts like teaching effectiveness must be reduced to specific empirical indicators for purposes of measurability. Inevitably, the operationalization of concepts like teaching effectiveness is often unsatisfying to researchers and their audience. Ultimately, for purposes of measurability, concepts rich in meaning like teaching effectiveness must be reduced to simplified, inevitably superficial empirical indicators. Furthermore, as with any domain, the researcher acknowledges that it would be challenging to expect every study that attempts to address teaching effectiveness to comprehensively incorporate the full breadth of effective teaching indicators. From this view point, no researcher can measure effective teaching correctly or incorrectly, he/she can only make a more or less useful measurement given the contextual realities and his/ her dominant philosophy of education.

Notwithstanding, this cannot be taken as a result of scientific anarchy, because teaching remains a scholarly activity. Rigorous research is still possible; it is simply more difficult than might have been imagined at first sight. (Berk, 2005) contend that if research in teaching effectiveness is to be recognized and rewarded as scholarship, it must be subjected to the same rigorous peer review process to which a research is subjected prior publication in a referred journal. In other words teaching effectiveness should and must be judged by the same high standards applied to other forms of scholarship.

Due to the complexity of the concept of teaching effectiveness, a unified conceptualization of measurement is proposed which use multiple sources of evident (Berk, 2005). Here, evidence is collected from a variety of sources to define the construct and to make decisions about attainment. Also given the complexity of measuring the act of teaching, it is reasonable to expect that multiple sources (triangulation) can provide a more accurate, reliable, and comprehensive picture of teaching effectiveness than just one source. Without such a procedure, there is no objective way to distinguish the effective teacher from the ineffective teacher. This process involves gathering data and then using

that data for judgment and decision making with respect to agreed upon standards.

The various sources of evidence for teaching effectiveness may be employed for either formative or summative decisions or both. Formative decisions use the evidence to improve and shape the quality of teaching and summative uses the information to sum up teachers' overall performance or status to decide about annual merit pay, promotion, and tenure. The former involves decisions to improve teaching and the latter consists of personnel decisions.

Measurement tools are needed to collect data, such as tests, scales, and questionnaires. The criteria for teaching effectiveness are embedded in the content of these measures. The most common measures used are the rating scales. Much has been written about the merits and demerits of the various sources of evidence currently being employed. Twelve of these strategies were outlined by Berk (2005). These include, Student Ratings, Peer Ratings, Self-Evaluation, Videos, Student Interviews, Alumni Ratings, Employer Ratings, Administrator Ratings, Teaching Scholarship, Teaching Awards, Learning Outcome and Teaching Portfolio.

To address and measure teaching effectiveness in this study, *teachers' Enthusiasm, Expectations, Task orientation and Commitment* were carefully selected from popular effective teaching literature to represent effective teaching behaviours.

Enthusiasm
Bandura (1986) emphasized that children are most likely going to pay attention and model the behaviour of those with whom they have a nurturing relationship and who have a social control over them. Hence, enthusiastic teachers with a nurturing ability over their students will stimulate their students' interest to learn their subjects. These teachers will therefore act as role models thereby encouraging the students to work academically hard. Enthusiastic teachers who find some worth in their students will work hard to arrange a variety of learning experiences in such a way that will enhance the achievement of these values, attitudes and good academic performance. Stipek (2002) regards students' academic performance from the social perspective by asserting that "students in schools with caring and supportive interpersonal relationships have more positive academic attitudes and values and are more satisfied with school.

He says that one of the most important factors in students' motivation and achievement is their perception whether their teacher is enthusiastic and has a positive relation with them. Diaz (1997) contends that commitment and enthusiasm help gets teachers through the tough and frustrating moments of teaching. (Diaz, 1997), further contends that each day effective teachers bring positive attitudes and enthusiasms to the classroom. Farrant (1985), on the other hand explains that the effectiveness of student learning and performance depends very much on the driving force of the teacher's enthusiasm. If enthusiasm and motivation are limited, then the resulting learning will be very slow and inefficient. Therefore, to be an effective teacher the passion for leaning must also be instilled in

students for effective results. No meaningful teaching is accomplished without developing the learners will to learn.

Teacher Expectations
Generally, teacher expectations are the views that the teachers hold about their relationship to the learners. In this study, we take a step behind to consider the sources which are used by teachers to form first impressions about their learners. These sources include learners' family background (economic and social status), race, culture, physical appearance, dressing, gender, abilities etc. First impressions are the foundations of expectations. Teacher expectations have different effects on their learners. Actually, two kinds of teacher expectation effects can occur in the classroom. The first is the Self-fulfilling Prophecy (a groundless expectation that is confirmed because it has been expected) and the second is the Pygmalion effect (exceptional progress by a student as a result of high expectation for that student). There is absolutely nothing wrong with forming and acting positively on accurate estimates (expectations) of students' ability.

Problems arise when students show some improvements but teachers do not alter expectations to take account of the improvement. This is called a "sustaining expectation effect", because the teacher's unchanging expectations sustains the student's achievement at the expected level. The chance to raise expectations, if recognized and exploited, provides more appropriate teaching, and thus encourage greater student Achievement. In practice, sustaining effects are more common than self-fulfilling prophecy effects (Cooper & Good, 1983).

Braun (1976) has developed a model based on research findings to explain the origins of teachers' expectations and the ways in which these expectations are communicated to students and then perpetuated by student behaviour. Braun lists ten possible sources of teacher expectations. Intelligence tests score are an obvious source, especially if teachers do not interpret scores appropriately. Sex also influences teachers; most teachers expect more behaviour problems from boys than from girls. Research confirm that many teachers have different expectations of males and females; that males generally receive more teacher attention; and that males dominate in the use of equipments in science, design, technology and computer studies. Also, males and females leave school with different skills and different expectations of their future, many girls still set their expectations lower than males.

The notes from previous teachers and the medical or psychological reports found in cumulative folders (permanent record files) are another obvious source of expectations. Knowledge of ethnic background also seems to have influence, and so does knowledge of older brothers and sisters. The influence of students' physical characteristics is shown in several studies, indicating that teachers hold higher expectations for attractive students. Previous Achievement, socioeconomic class, and the actual behaviours of the student are also used as sources of information. Apart from Braun's ten sources of teacher expectations, other sources see dressing, facial expression, posture, gestures, age, friendship group and handwriting as additional sources of teachers' first impressions of learners. Effective teachers

therefore, are expected to hold positive achievement expectations for all their learners.

Task Orientation

Task orientation is a systematic process for acquiring objectives and detailed information about jobs and then striving to effectively accomplish the task. Task orientation involves task analysis. Job analysis is a systematic process for acquiring objective and detailed information about jobs. The process is analytical, and breaks down the job into its component parts, rather than describing the job as a whole (Saville and Holdsworth 1995). Job analysis is designed to achieve specific goal(s), and is typically in the form of the 'what'—tasks and activities which are associated with the job; the 'how'—the skills and abilities required to perform these tasks; and the 'context'—the environment or culture in which tasks are executed. Job analysis can be viewed not only as a process capable of producing a number of practical outcomes of benefit to teachers, but also helping to orientate the teacher.

Job analysis identifies the major tasks of teachers to be—planning, motivating, implementing/coordinating, etc.; derives the skills and abilities critical to successful job performance such as confidence, the need to be sympathetic and tolerant, to be consultative, etc.; and constructs a picture of the context in which the teacher undertakes his/her work, including his/her freedom to structure the job (Dilum, 1996).

Commitment

The overall concept of organizational commitment refers to people's affective reactions to their employing organization as a whole. This is made up of the three components originally specified by Buchanan (1974): Organizational Identification represents pride in the organization and internalization of its goals and values; Organizational Loyalty reflects affection for and attachment to the organization, a sense of belongingness manifested as a wish to stay; and Organizational Involvement refers to engagement with the work itself because of its contribution to the organization as a whole.

Organizational identity has been said to define, at least in part, the employee's (teacher's) view of himself or herself. In other words, at least a part of an employee's (teacher's) self-image is said to result from the organizations (school) that person chooses to identify with. If the organization (school) is said to have such a strong impact on how an employee (teacher) feels about himself or herself, then it would seem to follow that the employee (teacher) will therefore do everything he or she can to make the organization (school) successful, thereby enhancing the image of his or her own identity. After all, it may be human nature to want to be part of a winning team, consistent with the need to maintain or enhance one's self-esteem.

Organizational identity is also, believed to influence the degree to which an individual will exhibit citizenship behaviours. Research in organizational citizenship behaviours has become more popular since the work of Organ (1988), who originally conceptualized organizational citizenship behaviours as "the discretionary behaviours that are exhibited by an individual and not formally recognized by the organizational system, yet that generally facilitate the effective and efficient functioning of the organization (school) to which the individual belongs".

In other words organizational citizenship behaviours are those desirable behaviours that are not prescribed by or enforced in the existing job role but may be practiced at the option of the individual employee (teacher). Lee and Allen (2002) noted that organizational citizenship behaviours can be separated into two distinct referents. First, individual-oriented organizational citizenship behaviours are those that use others as the referent. This may include staying late on the job to help a coworker or supporting a newcomer to the group (school).

The second referent for organizational citizenship behaviour is the organization (school). Organizationally oriented citizenship behaviours are those behaviours that support the organization (school). This may include attending organizational (school) events that are not obligatory or doing volunteer work in the community to indicate support for the employer. The extra-role, above-and-beyond nature of organizational citizenship behaviours is particularly relevant to a broader, holistic, integrated outcome from positivity (Avey, Luthans & Youssef; 2009). Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) also found that psychological ownership for the organization (school) was positively related with employee (teacher) levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organization-based self-esteem, as well as work behaviour and performance (teaching effectiveness).

Extraneous Variables

The Big Five personality traits of conscientiousness and extroversion, as well as emotional stability (Core Self-evaluation trait), were selected as extraneous variables. These widely recognized positive traits have been shown to have significant impact on performance (Barrick &Mount, 1991; Judge & Bono, 2001). It follows that they should be accounted for when attempting to study the added value of psychological capital, especially given the conceptual similarities between them. For example, conscientiousness, which has one of the strongest reported relationships with work performance across various jobs and industries, includes responsibility, self discipline, hard work and persistence

These trait-like characteristics may overlap with psychological capital in terms of the more state-like resources of efficacy's motivated hard work, hope's willpower, optimism's internalized attributions, or resiliency's perseverance. Therefore the value-added contribution of psychological capital to workplace outcomes can be better understood and assessed when controlling for dispositional, stable, trait-like characteristics. It follows that, extroverts may be more able to reach out to others, building more of the social assets that can contribute to their resiliency, and tend to use external referents when making attributions in their optimistic explanatory style. Thus controlling for extraversion will factor out reliance on external sources for stress management.

Despite the primarily cognitive nature of psychological capital, it is not devoid of emotions, which tend to be a by-product of positive cognitive processing of the personal and situational factors at hand (Hannah & Luthans, 2008). Thus, controlling for the Core Self-Evaluation trait of emotional

stability would factor out the trait-like affective component (hardy personality) that may confound the contribution of psychological capital, by accounting for an individual's disposition toward being calm, secure, or generally unworried, instead of having built efficacy or created effective pathways for hope.
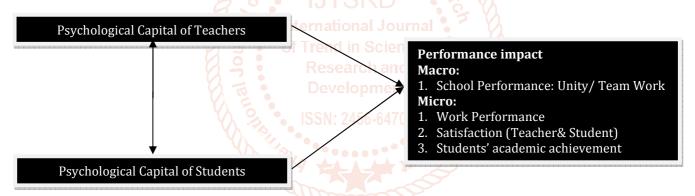
Besides controlling for established positive traits, the researcher also recognize the critical role that the organizational context may play in enhancing or hindering the development of Psychological Capital, as well as in facilitating or hindering its impact on employee outcomes. Hannah and Luthans (2008) also conceptualized Psychological Capital in terms of the in situ dynamic activation of cognitive affective processing system units and based the fit between the person's self-construct and perceived situational demands. Therefore, drawing from Youssef and Luthans (in press) conceptual model, this study specifically examines the role of Person-Organization fit and Person Job fit due to their integration of individual and organizational variables, as well as the potential reciprocal relationships between those variables. Because Person-Organization and Person-Job fit can contribute to performance and attitudinal outcomes in their own right (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005), as well as indirectly through providing a supportive environment for the development of Psychological Capital that can in turn enhance those desirable outcomes, it is important to account for the contribution of Person-Organization fit and Person-

Job fit in order to realistically assess the added contribution of Psychological Capital.

Avey, Luthans and Youssef in their research project (2010) titled "The Additive Value of Positive Psychological Capital in Predicting Work Attitudes and Behaviours"; identified and controlled conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional stability person-organization fit and person-job fit. For this study' the researcher found this reasonable and so decided to control these variables so as to effectively isolate and demonstrate the distinctive contributions of psychological capital to human development compared to the already established contributions of social capital, human and economic capital.

Contextual Review

In order to situate this study within the general psychological capital perspective, the researcher reviewed literature related to the context (Educational organizations) in which this particular study seeks to address. Therefore the purpose of this section was to introduce a conceptual model that integrates the positive psychology variable of psychological capital with teachers' performance impact in educational settings. This section included a conceptual model introducing psychological capital to the educational field as a predictor of performance impact for both teachers and students.

Source: Adopted from Luthans, Avolio, Avey & Norman (2007)

Figure 1: Contextual Framework Linking Psychological Capital to Micro and Macro Performance Impact in Educational Organizations.

Typically organizations [schools in Cameroon] have been concerned with financial capital, human capital and social capital. Research have shown that increased levels of financial capital (Marks, Cresswell, & Ainley 2006; Parcel & Dufur, 2001), human capital (Benner, Graham, & Mistry, 2008; Parcel & Dufur 2001), and social capital (Stewart, 2008; Yan & Lin, 2005) all contribute to varying degrees to increase academic success of schools and students. However, the government and educational stakeholders in Cameroon are yet to fully consider the newly emerging psychological capital and its role in academic achievement. Exploratory research shows potential effectiveness of considering psychological capital in educational settings (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007).

As a result researchers are calling for education to include content and programs to develop strengths and qualities of students and teachers (Call et al., 2002, Gomez, 2007; Flay,

2000; Larsons, 2000; Martins and Witt, 2004; Pajeras, 2001; Sheridan et al., 2004). It is anticipated that this proactive positive approach can prevent problem behaviours in teachers and students (Flay, 2002; Reddy, Newman, Thomas, & Chun, 2009; Seligman, 2002). Initial research is also beginning to show that teachers and students that have positive psychological capital variables are able to achieve more in the classroom (Pajeres, 2001). Exploratory research has also shown that psychological capital has both a micro and macro effect on educational organizations. For example researchers have found that psychological capital has both a micro and macro effect on educational organizations. For example researchers have found that psychological capital will lead to increased teachers performance and satisfaction (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, Norman, 2007)

METHODOLOGY
Research Design
The survey research design was adopted for this study. As generally conceived, a survey research design is one in which

a group of people or items are studied by collecting and analyzing data from only a few items considered to be representative of the entire group or population. Predicting outcomes is also pervasive in survey designs.

Study Area
This study was conducted in the Bafut Sub-Division. The Bafut sub Division is made up of 53 villages of the Bafut first class Fondom and the Mundum's I and II Autonomous second class Fondoms in Mezam Division of the North West Region of Cameroon. Bafut is situated between longitude 10° 01 and 10° 00 East, and between latitude 6° 05 and 6° 10 North (Bafut council, 2013). Bafut is situated about 20 kilometers North West of Bamenda town and covers an estimated area of about 4500 square kilometers (Bafut Council, 2013). The inhabitants of Bafut rely mostly on agriculture for their livelihood. They rear animals like goats, fowls and cows, tap palm wine etc. in the upper part of Bafut. Traditionally the entire tribe is controlled by a paramount chief (Fon Abumbi II). Each village in the chiefdom is controlled by a third class chief while the Quarters are controlled by Quarter heads. The Bafut people have a rich cultural heritage like traditional dances and a peculiar way of dressing and a palace which was built by the Germans. The palaces have museums that attract a number of tourists. There equally exist end of year festival popularly called "mandele" which bring together the sons and daughters and tourists together at the end of each year. They have touristic sites like caves, waterfalls and gifted in handy crafts. At the time of this study there were 19 secondary schools in Bafut.

Population of the Study
The population of this study comprised of all the teachers teaching in secondary schools (Government Secondary Schools, Mission Secondary Schools and Lay Private Secondary Schools) in the Bafut Sub-Division. On the whole, at the time this research was conducted there were 19 secondary schools in the Bafut Sub, Division. That is 4Government General Education High Schools, 3 Government General Education Secondary Schools, 2 Government General Education Bilingual Secondary Schools, 4 Government Technical Schools, 1 Government Technical High School, 3 Mission Secondary schools and 1Lay Private Secondary School. These Schools had a total population of 612 teachers (Source: Mezam Divisional delegation of secondary education).

Sample of the Study
A sample is a smaller group of elements drawn through a definite procedure from a specified population (Nworgu, 1991). The sample size of this population was made up of 57 male teachers and 21 female teachers. The original intention was to respect a gender balance but difficulties in the field led to the sample distribution below. The sample was distributed as shown in the table below.

Table 3: Sample Distribution According to Schools and Sex.

SN	School	Teacher Population			Sample size		
		M	F	T	F	M	T
1	COTECC BAFUT	31	26	57	04	09	13
2	PSS BAFUT	32	17	49	03	10	13
3	GBSS BAWUM	02	09	11	02	04	06
4	GHS MAMBU	22	21	43	02	07	09
5	GHS MUNDUM	09	2	11	02	04	06
6	GSS AKOFUNGUBAH	00	04	04	00	04	04
7	SJCHS MAMBU	21	15	36	04	05	09
8	GTHS BAFUT	49	57	106	04	12	16
9	GTC MUNDUM	06	01	07	-	02	02
	TOTAL	**172**	**152**	**324**	**21**	**57**	**78**

(M= male, F=female, T=total)

Data Collection Instrument
The data collection instrument used for this study was a questionnaire. The variables that were measured in this study were Psychological capital (independent variable), Teaching Effectiveness (dependent variable) and extraversion, conscientiousness, neurotism, person-organization fit and person-job fit (Extraneous variables). To measure psychological capital, the recently developed and psychometrically analyzed 24 item psychological capital questionnaire by Luthans, Avolio, et al (2007) was modified to suit the school context. In their original form, the questionnaire items were designed to suit other business contexts. For example, one item in its original form read as follows-"I feel confident contacting people outside the organization (e.g, suppliers and customers) to discuss problems". This item was modified to read as follows "I feel confident contacting people outside the school (e.g. pedagogic inspectors, book authors and parents) to discuss teaching/learning related problems. The psychological capital instrument developed by Luthans, Avolio, et al (2007) has adapted 6 items each from published hope (Snyder et al.,

1996), efficacy (Parker, 1998), resilience (Wagnild &Young, 1993), and optimism (Scheier &Carver, 1985) scales.

This instrument uses the Likert scales ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. It is made up of 21 positive items and 3 negative items. For this study, two versions were used (the self rater version for teachers and the Administrator rater version used to complement the teachers' self ratings). These two versions were made up of 24 items each (i.e a total of 48) and also identical items and only differ in terms of their construction to suit the rater. The objective of using both versions was to minimize or mitigate the bias inherent in self ratings or data from a single source. The extraneous variables and the dependent variable (teaching effectiveness) were measured with the use of a questionnaire constructed by the researcher under the guidance of the supervisor. Teaching effectiveness was measured using 31 items rated by teachers and administrators. Finally, the control variables had 43 items and were rated by teachers only. Thus the instrument for the study was made up of 122 questionnaire items

Instrument Administration

The instrument for data collection was personally administered, supervised and collected by the researcher. The instrument was administered in two occasions separated by a one week interval. This strategy was adopted in order to minimize common method bias (podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In the first instance, teachers and administrators completed the independent, and the control variables. During the second encounter, the same teachers who completed the first questionnaire completed the second set of the instrument which comprised of the independent variable (Commitment, Expectations, enthusiasm and Task Orientation).Personal administration of the instrument offered the opportunity for the researcher to gain more insight from the verbal and non verbal communications that took place between teachers and the researcher. More so, this strategy had the advantage of reducing instrument mortality/ attrition and falsification that is common when dishonest research assistants are used for instrument delivery and collection.

Method of Data Analysis

The data collected from the field for this research was analyzed using the STATA statistical package version 11.2. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. For descriptive statistics frequencies and bar charts were used.For inferential statistics, the regression model, P values (probability value is the probability of getting a statistic in the direction of the alternative hypothesis and so far out of the area where the null hypothesis can be accepted), R^2 values and correlation coefficients obtained from the statistical package were used to assess the impact of independent variables on dependent variables and verify the hypotheses. The R^2 values generated were used to estimate the variation of changes in the dependent variable explained by the independent variable (R^2 = coefficient of determination that measures the variation of changes in the dependent variable explained by the independent variable). Generally, a positive regression coefficient means a positive impact and vice versa. Data collected from the field was first of all coded. The coded data was then keyed into an excel sheet which was then exported into the statistical package for analysis.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of this study were done in consideration of the key variables of psychological capital

Table 4: Correlation Coefficients for Teacher/Administrator Ratings for Psychological Capital variables

	1	2	3	4
Efficacy (1)	(0.42)			
Hope (2)	0.4447	(0.39)		
Resilience (3)	0.2799	0.4186	(0.31)	
Optimism (4)	0.4147	0.1361	0.0699	(0.53)

Source: Generated by the STATA statistical package

The diagonal values in brackets show correlations between teachers/administrators ratings for psychological capital variables. From this it was established that all the psychological capital indicators had a positive correlation that ranged from 0.31 for resilience to 0.53 for optimism for teachers and administrators ratings.

Verification of main Hypothesis

H_0: There is no significant relationship between psychological capital and teaching effectiveness.
H_a: There is a significant relationship between psychological capital and teaching effectiveness.

To verify the main Research hypothesis, multivariate tests were conducted in three steps using the regression model to determine the relationship between psychological capital and teaching effectiveness while controlling for Extraversion, Emotional Stability, Conscientiousness Person Job- Fit and Person-Organization Fit.

Table 5: Regression Analysis for Extraneous Variable and Teaching Effectiveness (Step 1)

Teaching Effectiveness	P value	P X100	Level of sig (%)	R^2	cons	Reg. coef.	corr. coef
Control Variables	0.00	0.00X100= 0.00	1	0.2701	65.100	0.385	0.62

In step 1, the covariates Emotional Stability, Extraversion, Conscientiousness Person-Job Fit and Person-organization-Fit (extraneous variables) were considered in order to better isolate the variance in the criterion of the predictor (Psychological capital). Thus the following Regression relationship was used to explain the observed variance:
$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$
Where Y= Teaching effectiveness
$\beta_0 + \beta_1$ = parameters to be estimated
X= Extraneous variable

Extraneous variables =65.1007 + 00.3850958 (Teaching Effectiveness). This means that when the extraneous variables increased by one unit, teaching effectiveness increased by 00.3851 units. This denotes that, the extraneous variables have been empirically demonstrated to influence teaching effectiveness. Therefore if the unique contribution of psychological capital has to be assessed, then these covariates must be accounted for.

Table 6: Regression Analysis for Psychological (capital+Extraneous Variables) and Teaching Effectiveness (step 2)

Teaching Effectiveness	P value	P X100	Level of sig (%)	R²	cons	Reg. coef.	corr. coef
Psycap + control variables	0.00	0.00 X 100 = 0.00	1	0.60	67.672	0.684	0.67

In Step 2, Psychological Capital variables were added to the extraneous variables to determine the extent to which Psychological Capital predicted variance in the dependent variables above and beyond that of the extraneous variables. It was observed from the regression coefficient that Psychological Capital added significant unique variance to the dependent variables of enthusiasm, commitment, expectations and task orientation. On average if the combined effect of psychological capital and extraneous variables increases by 1 unit, teaching effectiveness increases by 0.684 units. This is greater than the variance observed from step 1 by 0.299 units (0.684 - 0.385 = 0.299).

Table 7: Regression Analysis for Psychological Capital and Teaching Effectiveness (Step 3)

Teaching Effectiveness	P value	P X100	Level of sig (%)	R²	cons	Reg. coef.	corr. coef	Decision
Psychological Capital	0.02	0.02X100 = 2	5	0.26	63.9	.3494	0.63	Alternative hypothesis retained

Finally, in Step 3 the interaction term was singled out in the model. This interaction term was between Psychological Capital and teaching effectiveness. As P X 100 >1% < 5% the level of significance is 5% and hence the alternative hypothesis was retained. This led us to the conclusion that psychological capital has a positive impact on teaching effectiveness.

Using $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$
Where Y= Teaching effectiveness
$\beta_0 + \beta_1$ = parameters to be estimated
X= Psychological capital

Teaching effectiveness= 63.9081 + 0.34949 (Psychological capital). This means that, when teachers psychological capital increase by I unit, their teaching effectiveness will increase by 0.3494 9 units.

The main purpose of this study was to examine the impact of the newly emerging positive core construct of Psychological Capital on teaching effectiveness. The results generally supported the alternative hypothesized relationship (there is a significant relationship between psychological capital and teaching effectiveness). Another important contribution of this study was that Psychological capital was also shown to be a predictor for teaching effectiveness when the positive personality and self-evaluation traits, as well as Person Organizational and Person Job fit were controlled. Therefore, this study contributes support to the relationship of Psychological Capital to desirable teacher behaviours and attitudes (task orientation, expectations, enthusiasm and commitment).

These findings are consistent with those of Luthans, Avey, Avolio and Peterson (2010). Their findings showed that a sample of student managers who underwent a training intervention had significantly higher levels of Psychological capital following a training intervention. In addition, their results showed that both self-rated performance and manager-rated performance also significantly increased after post training intervention. Consistent with this, this study established that the teacher/administrator ratings for the psychological capital variable were positively correlated. Even though this present study did not carry out training of the participants, it has established that psychological capital has a performance impact on teaching effectiveness just like Luthans and colleagues found out.

From the resource theories (Thoits, 1994) perspective individual resources act as manifestations of an underlying core construct or an integrated resource set rather than in isolation. Therefore the added variance of psychological capital on teaching effectiveness from this theoretical perspective is a function of the synergy that exists between hope, efficacy, optimism and resilience. Therefore, Psychological capital led to higher teacher performance based on their reinforcing greater extra effort, promoting the generation of multiple solutions to problems, positive expectations about results leading to higher levels of motivation, and positive responses to setbacks. In other words, there was a motivational propensity found in Psychological Capital for goal accomplishment and success.

Verification of Hypothesis 1
H_0: There is no significant relationship between self efficacy and teachers' enthusiasm.
H_a: There is a significant relationship between self efficacy and teachers' enthusiasm.

Table 8: Regression Analysis for the Verification of Hypothesis 1

Efficacy	P value	P X100	Level of sig (%)	R²	cons	Reg. coef.	corr. coef	Decision
Enthusiasm	0.003	0.003X100 = 3	1	0.24	2.59	0.422	0.49	Alternative hypothesis retained

Decision Rule
P Value X100 is equal to 0.3< 1%. Since the P Value X100 = 0.3 < 1%, the alternative hypothesis is significant at 1% and thus retained. This is further explained by the positive (0.49) correlation coefficient between Self-Efficacy and teachers' Enthusiasm. Alternatively the null hypothesis is rejected. Lastly, the positive regression coefficient (0.4226) specifies a positive impact of Self-Efficacy on teachers' Enthusiasm.

Using $Y = ß_0 + ß_1 X$

Where Y = Enthusiasm

$ß_0 + ß_1$ = parameters to be estimated

X = Efficacy

Enthusiasm = 2.596 + 0.422 (Efficacy)

This means that when Self- Efficacy increase by 1 unit, then teachers' enthusiasm will increase by 0.4226 units

The research findings showed that self efficacy had a positive impact on teachers' enthusiasm. Looking at this findings through Bandura's (1986, 1997and 2001) social cognitive theoretical lens, effective teachers distinguish themselves by the proper use of symbolizing, forethought, observation, self-regulation, and self-reflection. By cultivating these virtues identified by Bandura, they therefore build self efficacy that breeds success in their teaching.

This theory also holds that in the process of forethought, [effective teachers] plan their actions based on the level of performance they are targeting (Bandura, 1997). Also by observational cognitive processing, [teachers] learn from relevant more experienced others. [Teachers'] Personal efficacy is influenced when they vicariously learn by observing relevant others accomplish a given task. If a relevant other [like a teacher] is successful at a given task,

other teachers personal efficacy to follow suit is increased. Closely related to forethought is persuasion. Teachers can be persuaded by respected and/or relevant others to be more confident. The effectiveness of this method of building efficacy is also dependent on the degree to which the persuader has credibility with the recipient (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, if the vice principals and principals of schools win the respect of their teachers; they will definitely also succeed in persuading their teachers to be more enthusiastic.

In utilizing self-regulatory processing, effective teachers act as agents, setting specific goals and standards for their performance and assessing where they stand in relation to these self-set standards. This help them better focus on the energies needed in order to develop, improve, and eventually reach their goals.

Most directly relevant to teachers' self-efficacy is the use of self-reflective processing. Specifically, effective teaches often reflect back on their past actions, successes, and failures. By extracting some learning from these previous experiences, they reach a specific level of self-efficacy for their current challenges (Bandura, 2001).

When teachers employ and channel their cognitive processing of symbolizing, forethought, observation, self-regulation, and self-reflection in the right direction; they are likely not only going to succeed in the present circumstance but also to build future psychological capital's self-efficacy and subsequent success.

Verification of Hypothesis 2:
H_0: There is no significant relationship between hope and teachers' expectations.
H_a: There is a significant relationship between hope and teachers expectations

Table 9: Regression Analysis for the Verification of Hypothesis 2

Hope	P value	P X100	Level of sig (%)	R^2	cons	Reg. coef.	corr. coef	Decision
Expectation	0.042	0.042X100 = 4.2	5	0.18	2.119	0.1857	0.43	Alternative hypothesis retained

Decision Rule
As P X 100 > 1 %< 5%, the alternative hypothesis is significant at 5% and thus retained. Therefore, there is a significant relationship between teachers' hope and their expectations. The positive correlation coefficient (0.43) further supports this relationship. Also, a positive regression coefficient (0.1857) implies a positive impact of teachers' hope and their expectations.

Using $Y = ß0 + ß_1 X$

Where Y = Expectation

$ß_0 + ß_1$= parameters to be estimated
X= Hope

Expectation = 0.422 +0.1856 (Hope)

On the whole, this means that if teachers' hope increases by 1 unit, expectations will increase by 0.1857 units.

Hope was established to have a positive impact on teachers' positive expectations of learners. According to Snyder's hope theory, high hope teachers proactively generate more pathways to goal accomplishment and consciously exercise

the willpower to start implementing the goals. Snyder's Hope theory further considers hope to be a motivational state whereby the agency (goal-directed determination) and pathways (proactive planning to achieve goals) interact to influence work performance in teachers.

Furthermore, from this theoretical view point there is a continuous reiteration between agency and pathways, in which effective teachers' willpower and determination motivate the search for new pathways that influenced their positive expectation of learners. Snyder's research supports the idea that hope is a cognitive or "thinking" state in which effective teachers are capable of setting realistic but challenging goals for themselves and their learners and expectations and then reaching them.

Hope in the psychological capital framework includes the ability to devise pathways and alternate pathways to accomplish objectives and goals. Thus, 'hope" drives a school administrator or teacher to their optimal performance in school by exploring alternative pathways. Based on the two dimensions of hope, the findings of this study showed that hopeful teachers as oppose to teachers without hope set realistic teaching/learning goals and devise alternative pathways to accomplish these tasks.

It follows that effective teaching can be inferred from effective learning and so hopeful teachers provide their learners with optimal learning opportunities. This establishes a link between teachers' hope and their task orientation. Hope triggers positive emotions as a byproduct of positive appraisals, increased probabilities of success and goal accomplishment. Agentic thinking has a motivating impact that can enhance internalization, determination and pathways thinking can prevent a teacher from giving up and despair.

Because of their will power, hopeful teachers will experience fewer negative emotions even when faced with obstacles like dealing with special needs of learners, disruptive behaviour etc. Together, increased positive emotions, motivated agentic cognitions, and decreased negative emotions can help activate teachers' positive cognitive affective processing system units (positive expectancies for all learners and approach rather than avoidance of challenging tasks). Effective teachers take time off to analyze their tasks.

This finding further lends support to Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) research on teachers' expectations. The present findings however extend our knowledge by identifying hope as an antecedent for teachers' positive expectation of learners. From Rosenthal's perspective the response of the students to the teachers expectation can be best explained by the self fulfilling prophesy.

All students must feel that they are positively and equally valued and accepted, and that their effort to learn are recognized, and judged without bias. It is not enough that they are tolerated. They must feel that they and the groups to which they belong (ethnic, gender, social-class or attainment groups) are fully accepted and valued by the teacher and the school. In fact teachers should be fair with no teacher's pets, and no teacher hates. The reasons for trying to achieve equal opportunities are essentially ethical and professional. We want all learners to benefit from our teaching. But there are also legal and economic reasons. Our economy will not thrive if barriers to opportunities prevent us from the best of our human resources. If teachers feel for their students as unique individuals, they will be more effective and will derive more satisfaction from their teaching.

Verification of Hypothesis 3:
H_O: There is no significant relationship between optimism and teachers' orientation.
H_a: There is a significant relationship between optimism and teachers' enthusiasm.

Table 10: Regression Analysis for the Verification of Hypothesis 3

Optimism	P value	P X100	Level of sig (%)	R^2	cons	Reg. coef.	corr. coef	Decision
Orientation	0.010	0.010X100 = 1.3	5	0.03	2.64	0.4324	0.43	Alternative hypothesis retained

Decision Rule
P X 100 > 1 %< 5%, hence the alternative hypothesis is significant at 5% and retained. The regression coefficient is positive (0.4424). This signifies a positive impact.

Using $Y = ß_0 + ß_1 X$

Where Y= Orientation
$ß_0 + ß_1$ = parameters to be estimated
X= Optimism

Orientation = 2.64 + 0.4324 (Optimism)

Therefore, if teachers' optimism increases by 1 unit; teachers' task orientation will increase by 0.4323 units.

The findings of this study revealed that the regression coefficient for optimism/task orientation was positive denoting a positive impact. This can be accounted for by the fact that task orientation is one of the most emphasized effective teaching indicators. There was evidence from the evaluation forms that pedagogic inspectors use task orientation for teacher evaluation. This was further emphasized in an interview with the Mezam Divisional pedagogic inspector for technical education. Also in most pedagogic seminars the completion of the syllabus before students go in for the General Certificate of Education (GCE) is always emphasized. Most private schools use task orientation (degree of syllabus coverage and students performance to reward or terminate teachers' contracts). Teachers of private institutions who do not cover at least 80% 0f their syllabus and/or register poor performances especially in the GCE usually lose their jobs. Even in the government schools where teachers' contracts are not terminated for this reason, they are being reprimanded by their principals and vice principals. The delegation of secondary educational award certificates of excellence to schools that distinguish themselves in the GCE. It is logical to reason that all these put together play a motivational role to increase teachers' levels of task orientation.

From Seligman's (1980) attribution theory, we can argue that these teachers have developed an objective explanatory style to evaluate their successes and failures. From this theoretical view point the teachers involved in this study likely attributed their successes to internal, stable, and global causes and explain or attribute their failures in terms of external, unstable, and specific events. This theory postulate that optimistic teachers are buffered from unfavourable events, discount their feelings of guilt, depression and are more likely to accept positive return from favourable events.

This theory summarizes these assertions by arguing that how a teacher explains his/her successes or failure is more important than how many times she/he has succeeded or failed. Attribution theory states that, the explanations one gives for successes and failures actually influence subsequent performance.

Verification of Hypothesis 4:
❖ H_0: There is no significant relationship between resilience and teachers' commitment.
❖ H_a: There is a significant relationship between resilience and teachers' commitment.

Table 11: Regression Analysis .for the Verification of Hypothesis 4

Resilience	P value	P X100	Level of sig (%)	R^2	cons	Reg. coef.	corr. coef	Decision
commitment	0.171	0.171X100 = 17.1	10	0.006	3.17	0.140	0.23	Alternative hypothesis retained

Decision Rule

As P X 100 = 17.1, it implies that the alternative hypothesis was rejected and the null retained. Statistically this implies that there is no significant relationship between resilience and teachers' commitment. However, the correlation coefficient of 0.23 (positive) shows that there is at least a relationship between resilience and teachers' commitment even though not statistically significant. Also, the regression coefficient though small (0.14) indicates a positive impact.

Using $Y = ß_0 + ß_1 X$

Where Y= Commitment
$ß_0 + ß_1$= parameters to be estimated
X= Resilience

Commitment = 3.17+ 0.014 (Resilience)

On the whole when teachers' resilience increased by I unit, commitment increased by 0.018 units.

The findings of this study revealed that the regression coefficient/ correlation for Resilience and commitment though small, indicate that there is at least a relationship (even though not statistically significant). Resilience is comprised of adaptation processes, which are mechanisms which can be developed by highly resilient teachers to effectively employ their available assets (e.g., cognitive, affective, social, financial, and other positive characteristics, skills, and resources) to mitigate the impact of their risk factors (e.g., weaknesses, deficiencies, and other negative factors that have the potential to amplify setbacks) in order to stay focus in the face of adversaries. Coutu (2002) argues that the common themes/profiles of resilient people are recognized to be (a) a staunch acceptance of reality, (b) a deep belief, often buttressed by strongly held values, that life is meaningful, and (c) an uncanny ability to improvise and adapt to significant change. Nonetheless, Luthans (2007) further argue that the rich theory and extensive research from clinical and positive psychology suggest that it can contribute to positive psychological capital with a return of desired performance out comes like the other three counterparts (hope optimism and self efficacy). Personal assets developed by teachers predict positive outcomes and adaptation to adverse circumstances. By contrast, risk factors are measurable characteristics that predict negative outcomes and poor adaptation and in the school may be threats such as abusive principals or heads of departments. Therefore for resilience to develop in teachers, their bosses need to create cordial working environments.

Resilience makes the difference between teachers who recover well after adversity and teachers who remain devastated and unable to move ahead even in the face of minor challenges. Teachers higher in resilience will bounce

back psychologically (including emotion and cognition) to levels at, or even beyond, previous levels of homeostasis or equilibrium.

Though a mainstay of positive psychology and coming mostly out of child psychopathology; resilience has received scant attention [not adequately developed in staff] in organizational behavior and human resource management research. This assertion is somehow justified in this study, given that it had the least correlation value. Yet this capacity to "bounce back" from adversity or even dramatic positive changes is particularly relevant in today's turbulent school environment. Empirical studies support the fact that psychological resources are interactive and synergistic (Cozzarelli, 1993; Rini, Dunkel-Schetter, Wadhwa, & Sandman, 1999).

From the literature reviewed, it was also evident that resource theories conceptualize psychological capital as a core construct. These widely recognized theories further emphasize the necessity of treating individual resources as manifestations of an underlying core construct or an integrated resource set rather than in isolation. The statistical insignificance of resilience in this study might have been contributed by the fact that the resources were treated in isolation. From this point of reasoning the interactive and synergistic positive effect might have been mitigated. Similarly, multiple-component resource theories support resource synergies, in which the whole is greater than the sum of the constituent parts. Therefore the contribution of resilience acting alongside the other psychological capital resources may be far more significant that when resilience is isolated an investigated.

Conclusion

To conclude, a positive profile of teachers averagely high in psychological capital and effective teaching emerges from this study. Importantly, this positive profile of teachers seems to go beyond the traditionally recognized positive personality traits, person job-fit and person-Organization fit. Psychological capital has been demonstrated to be state-like and is open to further development and have potential performance impact. Previous research has demonstrated that psychological capital can be developed and is related to performance, and in this study it is also shown to be positively related to desirable teacher attitudes and behaviours (Enthusiasm, positive expectations, task orientation and commitment).

Positive Psychology seeks to respond to the bias inherent in Psychology's historical emphasis on mental illnesses rather than on mental wellness in order to help people to live a more productive and meaningful life and a full realization of the potential that exist in the human being. This realignment led to the newly emerging positive psychology field, and has ignited a stream of research that is no longer exclusively

focused on fixing the mental illnesses of individuals. Psychological capital stands out from other longtime popular perspectives of positivity such as "the power of positive thinking" and many best-selling, positively oriented personal development books because of its foundation in theory and research. Investing in and developing teachers' psychological resources may provide a competitive advantage in meeting the growing challenges facing the 21st century school environment and certainly beyond.

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