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Original Article

Instructional Leadership and Self-Efficacy of Academic Staff in Public Universities in Uganda

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Keywords:

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Instructional Leadership,
Self-Efficacy.

This study examined the casual linkage between instructional leadership and self-efficacy of academic staff in four public universities in Uganda. Particularly, the study investigated the influence of instructional supervision, curriculum coordination, profession development, and monitoring students' progress on self-efficacy of academic staff in Ugandan public universities. The study was guided by the positivist research philosophy hence used the quantitative approach employing the correlational research design. Random sampling was adopted to obtain the academic staff members who provided data through a self-administered questionnaire. Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) results revealed that of the four instructional leadership constructs, only curriculum coordination and monitoring students' progress influence teacher self-efficacy. Professional development had a positive but insignificant influence, while instructional supervision had a negative and insignificant influence on teaching self-efficacy of academic. The study concluded that curriculum coordination and monitoring students' progress are crucial for teacher self-efficacy while professional development and instructional supervision have a slight contribution. To foster teacher self-efficacy, instructional leaders in universities should prioritize effective curriculum coordination and monitoring of students' progress.

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of teacher self-efficacy has its origins in the theory of locus of control by Rotter (1966). The locus of control theory postulates that individuals profoundly differ in their convictions about the driving forces behind life's outcomes, with some succumbing to the notion that fate or luck dictates their destiny, while others resolutely believe in their own actions internal locus (Jerrim et al., 2023). Building on the notion of locus of control, Bandura (1977) postulated the self-efficacy theory which posits that individuals with high self-efficacy, who possess a strong internal locus of control and confidence in their abilities, are empowered to set ambitious goals, exhibit remarkable resilience, and remain impervious to debilitating emotions as they strive for excellence. Self-efficacy is the critical self-evaluation that people conduct regarding their capacity to execute routine tasks, profoundly influencing their decision-making processes and ultimate success (Ma et al., 2021). In teaching, the concept of teaching self-efficacy denotes the confidence teachers have in their ability to use effective teaching methods that positively impact student learning and achievement (Perera et al., 2019). According to Andreou et al. (2022), teachers' self-efficacy is a teacher's unwavering conviction in their ability to profoundly impact student learning and engagement, unencumbered by student background or abilities. Permata et al. (2022) emphasize that robust teacher self-efficacy is crucial for teachers to develop the skills and confidence they need to create engaging lessons, manage their classrooms, and overcome obstacles, ultimately leading to a more positive and productive learning environment.

Culp-Roche et al. (2021) assert that self-efficacy is a hallmark of exceptional teachers, empowering them to adeptly navigate complexities and deliver exemplary instruction. Zhang et al. (2019) describe self-efficacy as an individual's unwavering belief in their capacity to accomplish

routine tasks, which profoundly influences their decision-making processes and drives their behaviour. Ma and Marion (2021) posit that teacher self-efficacy encompasses a teacher's unshakeable confidence in their ability to craft and execute a strategic plan to achieve a specific teaching objective, ensuring success in the classroom. Rwothumio et al. (2023) explain that teaching efficacy is evident when teachers successfully employ effective teaching methods, create a productive learning environment, and foster student engagement and learning motivation. Teacher self-efficacy is crucial for educational institutions, as educators with elevated self-efficacy levels consistently maintain motivation and make astute decisions to augment their personal performance and catalyse student success (Larsen & James, 2022). Educators possessing unwavering teaching self-efficacy adeptly navigate instructional challenges and deploy innovative strategies to facilitate students' mastery of intricate subject matter (Ma et al., 2021). Consequently, teacher self-efficacy profoundly impacts educators' decision-making, personal ambitions, resilience in the face of adversity, and passion for teaching excellence, including the adoption of transformative instructional techniques (Glackin & Hohenstein 2018).

Despite its significance, teaching efficacy has been highly studied in secondary schools but there is a notable dearth of research in higher education settings, highlighting a critical gap about the concept in higher education institutions (Fabriz et al., 2021). The challenge in higher education has been that teaching lost its prominence in the 20th because universities started to focus their attention more on research than teaching. The consequence of giving of prominence to research was limited attention to teaching (Henard & Leprince-Ringuet, 2008). Hence, universities gave limited attention to teaching self-efficacy of academic staff. The policies of most higher education institutions unequivocally favour research over

teaching, as starkly illustrated by the fact that career advancement and remuneration are disproportionately linked to research accomplishments, while teaching excellence is often disregarded and undervalued. Universities typically encourage academic staff to focus on increasing their research output through internal evaluations, while teaching evaluations are often minimal, merely verifying that a minimum number of teaching hours are met without assessing the quality or effectiveness of teaching. Even when teaching evaluations are conducted, they rarely have any impact on incentives or penalties, highlighting a systemic imbalance that favours research over teaching (Maisano et al., 2023).

Further, academic institutions and mentors consistently steer young researchers towards research endeavours during their doctoral pursuits, and neglect to offer requisite training or guidance for teaching responsibilities (Hollywood et al., 2020). Consequently, academics often relegate teaching to a secondary priority, allocating scant time and energy to instructional duties. The emphasis on research is sometimes explicitly reinforced through university incentives, where accomplished researchers are rewarded with reduced teaching loads, while those who fail to meet research expectations, such as publishing in high-impact journals, are penalized with increased teaching responsibilities. This creates a system where teaching efficacy suffers, as academics are discouraged from investing time and effort into teaching (Maisano, 2023).

Especially in universities in Africa, it has been reported that university teachers exhibit low teaching self-efficacy. For instance, Usoro (2016) reported that in Nigerian institutions of higher learning, teachers used teaching methods that do not enable students to think analytically. Jebungei and Kerei (2022) revealed that in Kenyan universities, majority of the academic staff do not use innovative teaching approaches. In Uganda universities, it has been reported that lectures fail to prepare teaching materials depending on online plagiarised content to teach (Mugizi et al., 2015),

hardly use student-centred but employ the less effective teacher-centred approaches (Muganga & Ssenkusu, 2019). According, in Uganda universities, 78% of the teachers do not teach all their lectures, 67% of them fail to adequately prepare their teaching prior to teaching while 56% fail to accurately and timely mark students course works and examinations (Kakulu, 2016; Kasule et al., 2022). All these practices point to low teaching efficacy among university teachers.

Bandura (1986) in the Social Cognitive Theory underscores the pivotal role of educational leaders in fostering teacher self-efficacy. By exercising instructional leadership, leaders can create an enabling environment that bolsters teachers' confidence, motivation, and instructional expertise (Ma & Marion, 2021). Notably, teachers who perceive robust instructional leadership are more likely to embrace school development visions and cultivate enhanced self-efficacy (Xie et al., 2022). Furthermore, Kunwor (2023) emphasises that instructional leadership is instrumental in elevating teaching and learning outcome, and effective leaders adapt their approach to suit the specific context of their educational institution and the broader educational landscape, ultimately fostering teacher efficacy. Instructional leadership involves setting clear educational objectives, curricular planning, teacher evaluation, and creating a supportive school environment that boosts teachers' self-efficacy. By combining different leadership styles and emphasizing these key aspects, leaders can promote a positive and productive teaching environment. The main domains of instructional leadership are instructional supervision, curriculum coordination, professional development and monitoring students' progress (Lui et al., 2017). Therefore, guided by the instructional leadership theory, this study empirically examined the hypotheses that:

H1: Instructional supervision has a significant influence on self-efficacy of the academic staff in universities.

H2: Curriculum coordination has a significant influence on self-efficacy of the academic staff in universities.

H3: Professional development has a significant influence on self-efficacy of the academic staff in universities.

H4: Monitoring students' progress has a significant influence on self-efficacy of the academic staff in universities.

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This study is grounded in the Instructional Leadership Theory (ILT) by Hallinger and Murphy (1985), which defines instructional leadership as a focused and impactful approach that directly addresses curriculum and instructional practices. According to ILT, instructional leaders are pivotal in promoting an institution's effectiveness, particularly in teaching and learning. These leaders spearhead the school's vision, articulate clear objectives, and drive academic excellence by orchestrating curriculum development, assessing teaching effectiveness, and scrutinizing student achievement. They also foster a supportive learning climate by allocating sufficient learning time, offering incentives, promoting professional development, and maintaining a visible presence (Kurnia et al., 2021). Instructional leaders empower teachers by providing comprehensive support, encompassing both tangible resources and intangible guidance, as well as facilitating diverse professional growth opportunities (Bellibas & Liu, 2017) developing teachers teaching self-efficacy. ILT suggests that when leaders effectively support staff development, teachers become more effective and deliver high-quality instruction (Timperley, 2005). By implementing instructional leadership in educational institutions, teachers' self-efficacy develops (Cansoy & Parlar, 2018). The core domains of instructional leadership include instructional supervision, curriculum coordination, professional development, and student progress monitoring (Akram et al., 2017; McBrayer et al., 2019). By applying ILT, this study investigated how instructional leadership in terms of instructional supervision, curriculum

coordination, professional development, and student progress monitoring influenced teaching quality.

Literature Review

Several studies (e.g. Alanoglu, 2022; Calik et al., 2012; Cansoy & Parlar, 2018; Çoğaltay & Boz, 2023; Kaya & Koçyiğit, 2023; Kılınç et al., 2023; Khan & Gupta, 2024; Liu et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Özdemir et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2022) have unequivocally linked instructional leadership to teachers' self-efficacy, revealing a significant correlation. A meta-analytic synthesis by Alanoglu (2022) demonstrated a moderate association between principals' instructional leadership and teacher self-efficacy, underscoring the need for empirical investigation. Calik et al. (2012) conducted a study in Ankara, Turkey, examining the relationship between principals' instructional leadership behaviours and primary school teachers' self-efficacy. Employing structural equation modelling, they found out that instructional leadership had substantial and positive impact on collective teacher efficacy, affirming the critical role of leadership in fostering teacher confidence and effectiveness. Nevertheless, this study raised a population and because it was conducted in primary schools and non-Ugandan context where the competences needed might not be similar to those required from university academic staff. This gap necessitated an empirical investigation within the context of a university setting.

In their study, Cansoy and Parlar (2018) conducted a comprehensive study investigating the interplay between school principals' instructional leadership behaviours, teacher self-efficacy, and collective teacher efficacy in elementary, middle, and high schools in Istanbul's Cekmekoy District. Their findings revealed a robust and significant positive correlation between school leadership and teacher self-efficacy. However, a notable gap in their study was that it was that while it involved several educational institutions, it left out universities; this prompted this study to explore the same dynamics within a higher education context.

Furthermore, Coğaltay and Boz's (2023) review of existing literature underscored the positive and significant impact of instructional leadership on collective teacher efficacy, but methodological limitations highlighted the need for empirical research to validate these findings. This study addressed these gaps by providing an empirical investigation of instructional leadership and teacher self-efficacy in universities.

In a study done in Iranian primary schools, Hosseingholizadeh et al. (2023) conducted a comprehensive study exploring the nexus between principals' instructional leadership and teacher outcomes, including collective efficacy, commitment, and professional learning, in Iranian primary schools. The results revealed a statistically significant and positive correlation between instructional leadership and teacher collective efficacy, demonstrating the transformative impact of effective leadership on teacher collaboration and confidence. However, this study presented a population gap as the study was done in primary schools whose job requirements are different from those of universities. This called for this study in the context of universities. In a meta-analysis, Kaya and Koçyiğit (2023) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and teacher self-efficacy, revealing a significant and positive impact of leadership on teacher confidence. However, their study's reliance on secondary data created a methodological gap, necessitating an empirical investigation to validate the findings. Furthermore, Khan and Gupta's (2024) study in Indian primary schools uncovered a crucial mediating role of teacher self-efficacy in the relationship between instructional leadership and job satisfaction, demonstrating that principals' leadership styles have a profound influence on teacher self-efficacy. However, this study involved primary school teachers in India. Thus, the study raised population and contextual gaps. This called for this study involving university teachers in Uganda.

In their study, Kılınç et al. (2023) investigated the relationship between school administrators' instructional leadership and teachers' self-efficacy

in Turkish primary and secondary schools, revealing a significant positive correlation through multiple regression analysis. However, their study's limited geographical scope and focus on primary and secondary schools created population and contextual gaps, underscoring the need for research in higher education settings, such as universities in Uganda. Similarly, Liu et al. (2021) analysed international data from the 2013 Teaching and Learning International Survey, demonstrating a direct and positive relationship between instructional leadership and teacher self-efficacy. Nevertheless, the study's global scope and lack of regional specificity highlighted the importance of conducting research tailored to the Ugandan context. Furthermore, Liu et al. (2022) conducted a comprehensive study in Chinese primary schools, exploring the interplay between principals' and teachers' instructional leadership, teacher self-efficacy, and student learning outcomes. Their findings showed significant links between principals' instructional leadership, teacher instructional leadership, and teacher self-efficacy. However, the study's focus on primary schools and non-Ugandan context necessitated an investigation in Ugandan universities to address the existing research gaps.

Ma and Marion (2021) conducted a pivotal study in a minority region of Western China, investigating the influence of principal instructional leadership on teacher efficacy, with teachers' trust serving as a mediating factor. Their results indicated that instructional leadership had a direct and positive impact on teacher efficacy, highlighting the critical role of leadership in fostering teacher confidence and effectiveness. The study was done in a non-Uganda context thus, the need for the study in Ugandan Public Universities. In a mixed method study, Özdemir et al. (2020) conducted a comprehensive analysis in Şahinbey Province, Turkey, examining the impact of principals' instructional leadership on primary and secondary school teachers' self-efficacy perceptions. Utilizing robust measurement tools, including the Teachers' Self-Efficacy Perception Scale and the Instructional Leadership Behaviours Scale, their regression

analysis revealed a moderate correlation between principals' instructional leadership behaviours and teachers' self-efficacy. However, this study raised an empirical gap by suggesting that the relationship was at the medium level, while others suggested a strong one. This means that scholars were not unanimous about the association between IL and SE, hence, the need for this study.

In a study involving middle school teachers, Xie et al. (2022) investigated the mediating role of teacher collaboration in the relationship between teacher-perceived principal leadership and teacher self-efficacy, as well as the moderating effect of teaching experience on this mediating process. Their study conducted in the context of middle schools revealed a significant and positive impact of the principal's leadership on teacher self-efficacy. However, the distinct environmental and organizational characteristics of middle schools, differing from those of higher education institutions, created a research gap. This study addresses this gap by exploring the same dynamics in a university setting, providing insights into the generalizability of previous findings and shedding light on the unique aspects of leadership and teacher self-efficacy in higher education.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design and Sample

This study employed a correlational research design, leveraging a quantitative approach to examine the interrelationships and associations between variables. By analyzing the connections between instructional leadership and teaching self-efficacy, this design facilitated an in-depth exploration of the patterns and correlations between these constructs (Kılınç et al., 2023). The study's primary focus was on investigating the relationship between instructional leadership and academic staff's self-efficacy. A sample of 327 academic staff members was selected from a larger population of 2225, using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sampling table. The sample represented four universities: Busitema (36), Gulu (22), Makerere (219) and Mbarara University of Science and Technology (50). While data were

collected from 256 participants (78.3%) of the expected sample, the response rate surpassed 50% thus, was considered representative and sufficient for analysis as proposed by Mellahi and Harris (2016). The results emanating from such a sample can be generalised.

Measurement of the Variables and Data collection Instrument

The study concentrated on two main variables: instructional leadership and academic staff self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was measured using four variables namely teacher sense of efficacy, behavioural management efficacy, instructional strategies efficacy and motivational strategies efficacy (Nie et al., 2012). Instructional leadership's measures included instructional supervision, curriculum coordination, professional development and monitoring students' progress (Lui et al., 2020; Akram et al., 2017; Mourão et al. 2022). Data collection was done using a self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire employed a 5-point Likert scale, with a range of response options, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with a neutral midpoint option, 3 (not sure). This ranking made it possible to collect quantitative data and precisely measure and analyse the belief of the academic in their personal sense of efficacy, capability in managing students' behaviour and using appropriate instructional and motivational strategies.

Data Analysis Methods

Data were analysed through partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) with the support of Smart PLS 4. At the beginning, descriptive analysis was done to calculate mean values and get insights into how the academic staff respondents saw and gaded their self-efficacy and leaders' instructional leadership. Then, inferential analysis was carried out through structural equation modelling (SEM) to determine the effect of instructional leadership on the academic staff self-efficacy. The models that were generated assessed the goodness of fit and indicated the association between instructional

leadership and self-efficacy in Ugandan public universities.

FINDINGS

Demographic Profiles of the Respondents

The study embraced a range of demographic factors, including gender, marital status, academic

rank, highest qualification, university responsibility, and teaching experience at the current institution. The demographic features enabled deep understanding of the participants in the study. Table 1 presents the details of the study participants.

Table 1: Demographic Profiles of the Academic Staff

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Per cent
Gender	Male	149	58.9
	Female	104	41.1
	Total	253	100.0
Highest academic qualification	Bachelor's Degree	9	3.6
	Master's Degree	88	34.8
	PhD	156	61.7
	Total	253	100.0
Academic Rank	Graduate Fellow	14	5.5
	Assistant Lecturer	72	28.5
	Lecturer	102	40.3
	Senior Lecturer	47	18.6
	Associate Lecturer	12	4.7
	Professor	6	2.4
	Total	253	100.0
Responsibility in the University	Administrator	34	13.4
	Non-Administrator	219	86.6
	Total	253	100.0
Working experience	1-2 Years	12	4.7
	3-4 Years	39	15.4
	5 Years and above	202	79.8
	Total	253	100.0

The results in Table 1 indicate a slightly higher representation of male participants (58.9%) compared to females (41.1%). Nevertheless, both genders were represented in the study. The majority of respondents were non administrators (86.6%), while 13.4% were administrators. The study encompassed academic staff with varying degrees: PhD holders (61.7%), master's degree holders (34.8%), and bachelor's degree holders (3.6%). Additionally, most participants (79.8%) had been in the universities for five years or more, while 15.4% had served for three to four years, and 4.7% for one to two years. This shows that the study's results can be applied to a wider range of academic staff members with varying levels of qualifications and experience.

Measurement models

To assess the suitability of structural modelling data, two measurement set measures were utilised. First, there was testing of validity through a two-stage process comprising convergent and discriminant validity. Variance Extracted (AVE) was used to evaluate the convergence of the measures (constructs) on the variable, determining whether they were related and meeting on the same fundamental concept. AVE was useful in assessing whether the different measures (constructs) were truly measuring the same thing, and if they were linked to each other as anticipated (Cheung et al., 2023). This is a significant phase in gauging the validity of the measures and making sure that they are exactly assessing the variable of interest. The Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio was calculated to

measure the discriminant validity of the thoughtfully measured constructs, scrutinizing whether each construct was distinct and uncorrelated with other constructs. This analysis helped to determine whether the constructs were measuring isolated and exclusive concepts,

instead of being redundant or highly connected with each other (Rönkkö & Cho, 2022). HTMT ratio correlations assisted in evaluating the degree to which each construct was empirically distant from others, thus, a sign for discriminant validity.

Table 2: AVE and Heterotrait Monotrait (HTMT) Discriminant Validity assessment

Measures	AVE	IL	CI	IS	MSP	
CI	0.588	0.499				
IS	0.581	0.798	0.737			
MSP	0.615	0.399	0.250	0.774		
PD	0.538	0.375	0.299	0.809	0.742	
Measures	AVE	TSE	BME	ISE	MSE	PSE
TSE						
BME	0.536	0.471				
ISE	0.670	0.301	0.523			
MSE	0.599	0.765	0.322	0.226		
PSE	0.529	0.851	0.751	0.622	0.811	

Abbreviations: BME= Behaviour Management Efficacy, CI= Curriculum coordination, IL= Instructional Leadership, IS Instructional Supervision, ISE = Instructional Strategies Efficacy, MSE = Motivational Strategies Efficacy, MSP= Monitoring Students' Progress, PES= Personal Sense of Efficacy, TSE: Teacher Self-Efficacy.

The convergent validity results, as measured by average variance extracted (AVE), show that all values exceeded the minimum threshold of 0.5. Additionally, the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations was below the maximum threshold of 0.90 (Purwanto & Sudargini, 2021). These findings indicate that the instrument was valid. Specifically, the AVE values above the minimum threshold confirm that the constructs effectively converged on the variables they intended to measure, making them appropriate measures. Meanwhile, the HTMT ratio below the minimum threshold indicates that the constructs were independent and distinct measures, demonstrating discriminant validity.

The second measurement model assessed the reliability of the constructs using two measures of internal consistency, namely Cronbach's alpha (CA [α]) and Composite Reliability (CR). These metrics evaluate the extent to which the indicators for each construct are correlated, providing insight into the consistency of the measurements. In addition, the model examined collinearity results to determine whether the variables were independent and not highly correlated with each other. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 3, offering a comprehensive understanding of the reliability and independence of the variables.

Table 3: Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability Results

Measures	α	CR
Curriculum coordination	0.882	0.909
Instructional Supervision	0.853	0.892
Monitoring Student Progress	0.841	0.887
Professional Development	0.855	0.890
Behaviour Management	0.827	0.874
Instructional Strategies	0.898	0.923
Motivational Strategies	0.885	0.912
Personal Sense	0.878	0.905

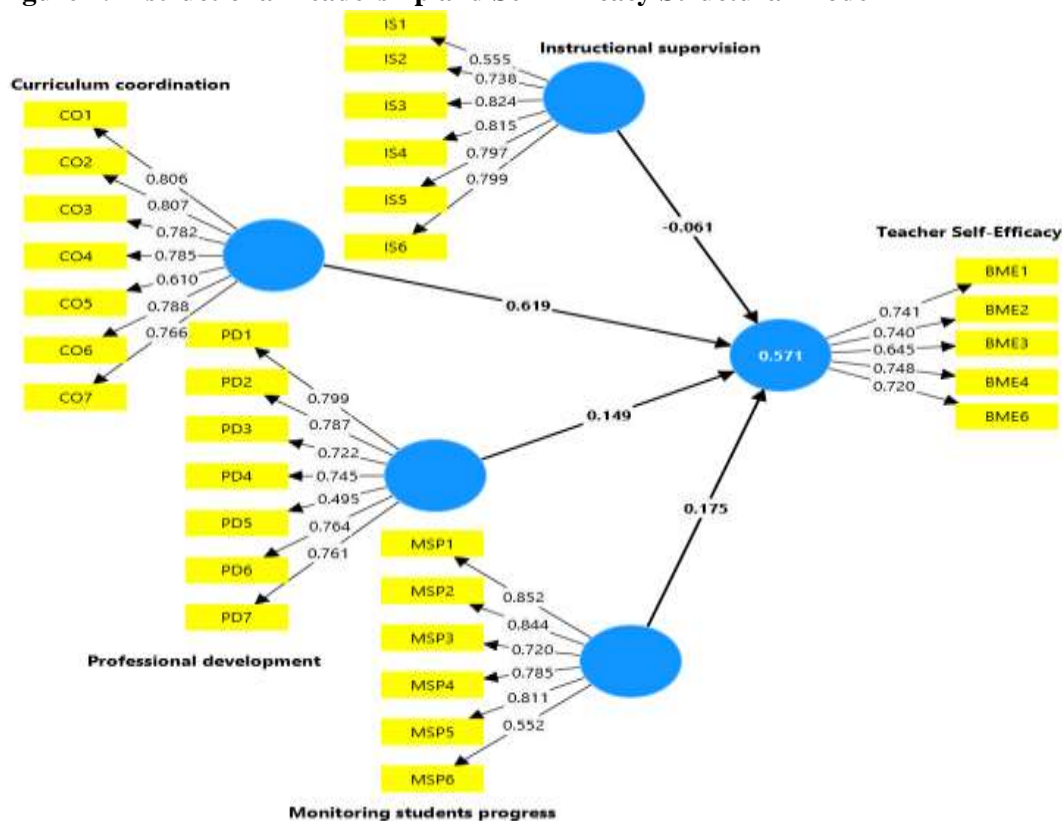
As indicated in Table 3, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients and composite reliability values for specific constructs surpassed 0.70, showing an acceptable level of reliability for exploratory research. However, owing to the limitations of Cronbach's alpha, which assumes equal indicator traits in the population and may underestimate reliability, composite reliability was preferred. Composite reliability is a more flexible and liberal measure that accounts for the unique outer traits of indicator variables Hair Jr et al., (2021). Thus, the indicators of the measures were reliable.

Structural Equation Models for the Variables

A structural equation model was developed to examine the association between instructional

leadership and academic staff self-efficacy. The model conceptualizes instructional leadership as encompassing instructional supervision, curriculum coordination, professional development and monitoring students' progress. On the other hand, according to the model, academic staff self-efficacy consists of four dimensions including personal sense of efficacy; behaviour management, instructional strategies and motivational efficacies. The model (Figure 1) is a visual representation of the link between these variables, providing a detailed framework for in-depth of understanding the degree to which instructional leadership affects the academic staff's self-efficacy.

Figure 1: Instructional Leadership and Self-Efficacy Structural Model



The structural equation model (Figure 1) shows the links among constructs indicating factor loadings, path coefficients as well as coefficients of determination (R^2). The factor loadings indicated that teaching self-efficacy entailed only behaviour management efficacy. Instructional leadership on the other hand, encompassed instructional supervision, curriculum

coordination, professional development and monitoring students' progress. The structural equation model tested four hypotheses which conjectured that instructional supervision, curriculum coordination, professional development, and monitoring students' progress have a significant influence on self-efficacy of the academic staff. The analysis details are indicated

in Table 4. The table contains beta coefficients (β s), t-statistics, p-values and coefficients of determination-R² and adjusted R²- which show the predictive power of instructional leadership on

self-efficacy, representing the percentage of variance in self-efficacy that can be associated with instructional leadership measures.

Table 4: Instructional Leadership and Self-efficacy Path Estimates

	B	Mean	STD	T	p
Curriculum coordination → Teaching Self-Efficacy	0.619	0.627	0.123	5.014	0.000
Instructional Supervision → Teaching Self-Efficacy	-0.061	-0.054	0.050	1.220	0.223
Monitoring Students Progress → Teaching Self-Efficacy	0.175	0.172	0.080	2.195	0.028
Professional Development → Teaching Self-Efficacy	0.149	0.137	0.082	1.831	0.067
R ² = 0.571					
R ² Adjusted = 0.564					

The structural equation estimates (Table 4) indicate that of the four instructional leadership aspects, only curriculum coordination ($\beta = 0.619$, $t = 5.014$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) and monitoring students' progress ($\beta = 0.175$, $t = 2.195$, $p = 0.028 < 0.05$) had a positive and significant influence on teacher self-efficacy. While, professional development ($\beta = 0.149$, $t = 1.831$, $p = 0.067 < 0.05$) had a positive but insignificant influence on teaching quality, instructional supervision ($\beta = -0.061$, $t = 1.220$, $p = 0.223 > 0.05$) had a negative and insignificant influence on teaching self-efficacy. R² suggested that the four instructional leadership elements explained 57.1% (R² = 0.571) of the variation in teaching self-efficacy of academic staff. Adjusted R² showed that the only significant instructional leadership element of professional development, explained 56.4% (adjusted R² = 0.564). Therefore, of the four instructional leadership constructs, only curriculum coordination and monitoring students' progress influence teacher self-efficacy.

DISCUSSION

The findings of the study indicated that instructional leadership has a profound impact on the teaching self-efficacy of academic staff, aligning with the fundamental tenets of the Instructional Leadership Theory. This theory posits that effective instructional leadership fosters teachers' professional growth and visibility, thereby amplifying teaching self-efficacy (Kurnia & Purwanto, 2021). This finding resonates with the overwhelming consensus of

prior research. For instance, Alanoglu (2022) demonstrated a direct correlation between principals' instructional leadership and teachers' self-efficacy. Similarly, Calik et al. (2012) reported a significant and positive correlation between instructional leadership and collective teacher efficacy. Cansoy and Parlar (2018) also uncovered a robust and significant relationship between school leadership and teacher self-efficacy. Furthermore, Çoğaltay and Boz (2023) found that instructional leadership exerted a profound and significant influence on collective teacher efficacy.

Similarly, Hosseingholizadeh et al. (2023) and Kaya and Koçyiğit (2023) both found a positive and significant influence of instructional leadership on teacher self-efficacy. In the same vein, Khan and Gupta (2024) revealed a strong correlation between school principals' instructional leadership and teacher self-efficacy. Kılınç et al. (2023) and Liu et al. (2021) also reported significant relationships between instructional leadership and teacher self-efficacy. Furthermore, Liu et al. (2022) discovered a direct and positive link between principals' instructional leadership, teacher instructional leadership, and teacher self-efficacy, underscoring the critical role of instructional leadership in enhancing teacher confidence and effectiveness.

Furthermore, the finding of the study was consistent with Ma and Marion (2021) who demonstrated a direct and positive impact of instructional leadership on teacher efficacy, while

Özdemir et al. (2020) uncovered a substantial link between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' self-efficacy. Similarly, Xie et al. (2022) showed that teacher-perceived principal leadership has a positive and significant influence on teacher self-efficacy. The consistency of these findings across studies confirms that instructional leadership has a profound impact on teaching self-efficacy. Consequently, it can be concluded that augmenting instructional leadership will lead to a corresponding improvement in teaching self-efficacy, underscoring the importance of targeted investments in instructional leadership development of various leaders in universities.

CONCLUSIONS

The study concluded curriculum coordination and monitoring students' progress are crucial for teacher self-efficacy while professional development and instructional supervision have a slight contribution to development of teachers' self-efficacy. With curriculum coordination, this is when management encourages academic staff to carry out teaching planning, designates those responsible for coordinating curriculum coordination, and encourages academic staff to engage their students in innovative activities. This also when the leadership ensures academic staff mark and provide grades to students in a timely manner, converts university goals into common objectives of the curriculum, and makes follow-up to ensure that academic staff implement the curriculum as demanded by the programs. With monitoring of students, this is when superiors meet academic staff individually to discuss issues of students' progress, discuss students' results with academic staff, and devise appropriate instructional programmes for students whose test results indicate very low performance. While professional development minimally contributed to teaching efficacy and instructional supervision had a negative influence.

Recommendations

To foster teacher self-efficacy, instructional leaders in universities should prioritize effective curriculum coordination and monitoring of students' progress. They should encourage academic staff to carry out teaching planning, designate those responsible for coordinating curriculum coordination, and promote innovative student engagement activities. Additionally, leaders should ensure that academic staff mark and provide grades to students in a timely manner, align the university's academic goals with the common objectives of the curriculum, and conduct regular follow-up to ensure that the curriculum is implemented as required by the programs. Furthermore, they should meet individually with academic staff to discuss issues related to students' progress, review students' results, and devise appropriate instructional programs for students whose test results indicate very low performance. By focusing on these key areas, instructional leaders can significantly enhance teacher self-efficacy, leading to improved teaching effectiveness and student outcomes, and ultimately contributing to a positive and productive learning environment that benefits both academic staff and students.

Limitations

The study makes an important contribution with respect to showing how instructional leadership influences teacher self-efficacy. However, the indirect relationships structural equation model results revealed that only curriculum development and monitoring students' development influenced teacher self-efficacy and for teacher self-efficacy, only teacher personal sense of efficacy influenced teaching quality. This suggested that the original model should be retested embracing more universities inclusive of private universities. Further, the study was only quantitative, therefore there is a need for future research includes the qualitative approach for in-depth analysis.

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Appendix A: Study Instrument

Section A: Demographics		
Demographic Profiles (DP)	BC1	Sex (1 = Male, 2= Female)
	BC2	Education level (1 = Bachelor Degrees; 2 = Masters, 3 = PhD)
	BC3	Appointment level (1 = Graduate Fellow, 2 = Assistant lecturer, 3 = Lecturer, 4 = Senior lecturer, 5 = Associate Professor, 6 Professor)
	BC4	Responsibility in the university hierarchy (1 = Administrator, 2 = non-administrator)
	BC5	Working experience (1 = Less than 1 year, 2= 1-2 years, 3= 3-4 years, 4 = 5 years and above)
Instructional leadership		
Instructional Supervision	IS1	My superiors in this university visit classes regularly to observe teaching and learning
	IS2	My superiors in this university provide constructive feedback after observing lectures' lessons
	IS3	My superiors in the department/faculty/ school/college sometimes conduct informal observations in classrooms
	IS4	My superiors in this university frequently observe lectures teach and discuss strategies for improvement.
	IS5	My superiors in the department/faculty/ school/college meet with academic staff about how to conduct effective teaching
	IS6	My superiors in this university are actively involved in teaching quality development

Curriculum coordination	CI1	University management encourages academic staff to plan so as to make curriculum effective.
	CI2	Management of the university has clearly designated those responsible for coordinating curriculum coordination across all departments
	CI3	University management encourages academic staff to engage their students in innovative activities
	CI4	Management of the university requests for reports from departments about curriculum coordination by academic staff
	CI5	Management has ensured that academic staff mark and provide grades of students in time
	CI6	My superiors in this university ensure that the university's academic goals are converted into common objectives of the curriculum.
	CI7	University management makes follow up to ensure that academic staff implement the curriculum the way the programme demands
Professional Development	PD1	I have developed all the necessary skills to carry effective teaching
	PD2	My superiors exhibit confidence in my development as a professional
	PD3	I have had a significant professional development since I started working
	PD4	Over time my performance has improved as a professional university teacher
	PD5	My colleagues appreciate my professional growth
	PD6	With my current knowledge, I am able to teacher satisfactorily
	PD7	I feel I have become a more competent as a professional university teacher
Monitoring Students' Progress	MSP1	Superiors in this university meet academic staff individually to discuss issues of students' progress
	MSP2	Superiors in this university discuss students' results with academic staff which helps to strengthen curricula implementation
	MSP3	Superiors in this university discuss results with academic staff to point out strengths and areas of improvement in instruction
	MSP4	My superiors in this university identify students whose test results indicate a need for remediation or enrichment
	MSP5	My superiors in this university identify students whose test results indicate a need for remediation or enrichment
	MSP6	Management devises appropriate instructional programmes are devised for students whose test results indicate very low performance
Personal Sense of Efficacy	PSE1	I know how to adjust my teaching to suit the students' level of understanding
	PSE2	I freely let students express their thoughts and feelings in class
	PSE3	I try to be innovative in the way I deliver lectures
	PSE4	I am always flexible in the way I conduct lectures
	PSE5	I make effort to be adaptive to new ways of delivering lectures
	PSE6	I know how to identify my students' problems before they get worse
	PSF7	I freely let my students express their feelings and ideas as I teach
	PSF8	I know how to identify my students' problems before they get worse
	PSF9	I freely let my students express their feelings and ideas as I teach
Behaviour Management Efficacy	BME1	If a student interrupts a lesson, I am able to redirect him or her quickly
	BME2	I let students know that expect appropriate behaviour from them
	BME3	I am able to handle any kind of student with ease
	BME4	I am able to keep defiant students involved in my lesson
	BME5	I ensure that students adhere to my expectations
	BME6	I am always able to prevent problem students from ruining class activities
	BME7	If students stop working, I can put them back on track
Instructional Strategies Efficacy	ISE1	I am able capture students' attention through voice modulation, facial expression and proximity control even in large classes
	ISE2	I help students make links and build on their previous knowledge to encourage successful learning
	ISE3	While in class, I use different questions to test students' understanding at different levels
	ISE4	I adapt the curriculum to every student's needs to ensure that all students learn successfully
		Prior to teaching a skill, I analyse the task and establish the necessary procedure for achieving my objective.

	ISE5	I allow students to present their course work in various ways to enhance their creativity
	ISE6	All the time provide students with clear guidelines on how to arrange their work which promotes their understanding
Instructional Strategies Efficacy	MSE 1	I am establishing rapport with my students and listen to them to show that I care
	MSE2	Honestly, I spare time to give chance to my students to share their personal experiences with me to guide them
	MSE3	I have been able to encourage my students to formulate goals and develop action plans for their learning
	MSE4	I always counsel students to work hard and achieve their goals with in their stated timelines
	MSE5	I make sure that the assignments I give to students are manageable to build their confidence
	MSE6	I engage students in collaborative learning to facilitate engagement in and enjoyment of learning experiences
	MSE7	I ensure that I give targeted positive reinforcement and feedback to students to motivate them