

An Investigation into Self-Efficacy of Teacher Educators

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Abstract: This study investigated the self-efficacy of teacher educators in Myanmar. A descriptive research design and a questionnaire survey method were adopted in this study. Data were collected using a random sampling technique. The sample for this study consisted of 1010 teacher educators, 117 males and 893 females. To assess the self-efficacy of teacher educators, Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Bandura (1997) and validated by Tschannen Moran and Hoy (2001), was used in this study. Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale is a 5- points Likert-scale instrument that prompts teacher educators to reflect their belief in their capability to organize and execute actions required to effectively manage classroom tasks, student behaviors, and instructional strategies to foster student learning. It was composed of 30 items under 7 subscales such as Efficacy to Influence Decision making (3 items), Efficacy to Influence School Resources (3 item), Instructional Self-Efficacy (8 items), Disciplinary Self-Efficacy (4 items), Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement (3 items), Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement (3 items) and Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate (6 items). The reliability coefficient was found to be 0.901 According to the results of the descriptive analysis, the mean score and standard deviation for overall self-efficacy were 78.32 and 14.99, corresponding to a mean percentage of 60.24%. This finding indicated that teacher educators demonstrated a moderately high level of self-efficacy. Among the seven subscales, instructional self-efficacy recorded the highest mean percentage of 68.95%, second highest mean percentage was observed in disciplinary self-efficacy (60.33%), followed closely by efficacy to influence school resources (59.46%) and efficacy to create a positive school climate (58.9%), efficacy to enlist community involvement (53.3%), efficacy to influence decision making (52.6%), and efficacy to enlist parental involvement (51.8%) recorded comparatively lower mean percentages. Overall, these findings indicated that teacher educators demonstrated stronger confidence in instructional and classroom-related domains than in areas involving external engagement and institutional influence. It was hoped that the findings of this study would be useful to teacher-educators and will know the importance of self-efficacy.

Keywords: Self-Efficacy, Teacher Educators.

1. Introduction

A. Significance of the Study

Self-efficacy is an important factor in education as well as other settings such as business, sports and health (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that they are able to succeed any task that they encounter (Bandura, 1977). It can be general or task specific, allowing individuals to have a

range of self-efficacy beliefs about themselves at any one time. An individual's beliefs surrounding their own levels of self-efficacy can have an impact on how they feel, think and motivate themselves. This can lead to significant contrasts in behaviour between individuals with differing levels of self-efficacy. Those with a strong or high sense of self efficacy believe in their own capability deeply, seeing challenges as tasks to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy has significantly impacted the teaching profession for many years, as teachers choose their study techniques based on their satisfaction and behavior. Self-efficacy provides teachers with a high level of satisfaction. If teaching professionals are supplied with higher self-efficacy and a supportive environment, their work could be more fulfilling (Duyar, Gumus & Bellibas, 2013). For teachers to work with greater contentment and to offer comprehensive knowledge to many pupils in a single class, they must agree to work effectively and appropriately (Regier, 2021). On the other side, those teachers who were unsuccessful in acquiring self-efficacy could not work with satisfaction due to different limits.

Eysenck (2000) defined self-efficacy as an individual's assessment of his/her ability to cope with given situations. Self-efficacy is an individual's belief that he or she can perform some behavior or task successfully (Baron, 2001). It is a persons' belief in his or her ability to complete future task or solve a problem (Singh, 2015). In the context of education, teachers' self-efficacy can be defined as a teacher's judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Hence, teachers' self-efficacy influences on their teaching behaviors and their students' motivation and achievement (Skaal vik & Skaalvik, 2007; TschannenMoran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

According to Perrig and Grob (2013), self-efficacy is derived from various factors, including skills, work experience, and task characteristics. Previous teaching experience is the most influential source of self-efficacy among professionals engaged in the current activity (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2016). This demonstrates how prior experience contributes to current and future teaching effectiveness. Teachers' knowledge of good

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administration and control of the learning process contributes to enhancing their employment value. Moreover, according to Perrig and Grob (2013), this significantly contributes to the enhancement of social as well as individual advantages.

Numerous prior studies have examined the relationship between self-efficacy and job happiness. Most investigations (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Burić & Moe, 2020; Klassen & Chiu, 2011) have discovered positive associations. Self-efficacy is a human-related behavior; therefore, it ensures job happiness. In everyday life, individuals perceive things based on their perceptions. For decision-making, their judgments are influenced by their cognitive associations and emotions.

In fact, teacher self-Efficacy is an important application of Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory to educational setting (Sharma, 2018). Teachers having efficacious outlook fosters their intrinsic interests and deep engrossment in teaching activities such teachers holding high confidence in their capabilities approach difficult task as challenges to be mastered rather than to be avoided as threats. They set to themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to the fact the higher sense of self-efficacy in human beings includes great effort Persistence and resilience. So, modern system needs teachers having strong self-efficacy and health mental health.

A teacher with high efficacy exhibits less anger, less stress, use of fewer control tactics, use of cooperative learning and more enthusiastic towards teaching (Sharma & Kaur, 2015; Sharma, 2020). Teacher with high self-efficacy teach well due to their self- confidence and quality of motivating students (Khurshid, Quasim and Ashraf (2012). Teachers with high self-efficacy are more motivated than the teachers with low self-efficacy. This motivation enhances their work. Such teachers provide an opportunity for student having low self-efficacy to learn a lesson from them.

Human capital is one of the important determinants of nation's growth and teachers are the key persons responsible for shaping the destiny of the nation. Teacher is the heart and core of an educational process. Teachers have a pivotal role in social reconstructions and in the transmission of knowledge and experience of one generation to another. Thus, it is important that the teachers should possess high degree of self-efficacy.

Based on the sound theoretical and practical evidences from previous studies, teachers with high self-efficacy will be more successful in coping with stressful situations. However, there is scarcity of studies related to teacher's self-efficacy especially in the realm of teacher educators across Myanmar. Therefore, this study aimed to examine the self-efficacy of teacher educators.

B. Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study are:

- To investigate self-efficacy of teacher educators
- To investigate whether self-efficacy of teacher educators differ by gender

C. Scope of the Study

The participants for this study were chosen by using a random sampling technique. Data for 1010 teacher educators

were collected from Yangon University of Education, University for the Development of the National Races of the Union and Education Degree colleges in Myanmar.

D. Definition of Key Terms

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a persons' belief in his or her ability to complete future task or solve a problem (Singh, 2015).

Teacher self-efficacy. Teacher self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute course of action required to successfully accomplish specific teaching tasks (instruction, classroom management, influencing school climate, etc.) (Bandura, 1997).

Teacher educator. A teacher educator is a professional who is primarily responsible for the preparation and ongoing professional development of prospective and practicing teachers, typically through teaching, mentoring, and conducting research within teacher education programs (Loughran, 2014).

2. Review of Related Literature

Self-efficacy, a central concept in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), refers to an individual's belief in their ability to execute behaviors necessary to achieve desired outcomes. In other words, it can be defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy strongly influences the choices they make, the effort they expand, how long they persevere in the face of challenge, and the degree of anxiety or confidence they bring to the task at hand.

According to Bandura (1977), how people behave can often be better predicted by their beliefs about their capabilities than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing, although this is not meant to imply that they can accomplish tasks beyond their capabilities simply by believing that they can. Rather self-efficacy perceptions help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have. Competent functioning, however, requires accuracy of perception and harmony between self-efficacy beliefs on the one hand and possessed skills and knowledge on the other.

Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce these diverse effects through four major processes. They include cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes. Much research has been conducted on the four major psychological processes through which self-beliefs of efficacy affect human functioning (Bandura, 1998).

Cognitive Processes. The effects of self-efficacy beliefs on cognitive processes take a variety of forms. Much human behavior, being purposive, is regulated by forethought embodying valued goals. Personal goal setting is influenced by self-appraisal of capabilities. The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goal challenges people set for themselves and the firmer is their commitment to them. Most courses of action are initially organized in thought. People's beliefs in their efficacy shape the types of anticipatory scenarios they construct and rehearse. Those who have a high sense of efficacy, visualize success scenarios that provide positive

guides and supports for performance. Those who doubt their efficacy visualize failure scenarios and dwell on the many things that can go wrong. It is difficult to achieve much while fighting self-doubt.

A major function of thought is to enable people to predict events and to develop ways to control those that affect their lives. Such skills require effective cognitive processing of information that contains many ambiguities and uncertainties. In learning predictive and regulative rules, people must draw on their knowledge to construct options, to weight and integrate predictive factors, to test and revise their judgments against the immediate and distal results of their actions, and to remember which factors they had tested and how well they had worked. It requires a strong sense of efficacy to remain task oriented in the face of pressing situational demands, failures and setbacks that have significant repercussions.

Indeed, when people are faced with the tasks of managing difficult environmental demands under taxing circumstances, those who are beset by self-doubts about their efficacy become more and more erratic in their analytic thinking, lower their aspirations and the quality of their performance deteriorates. In contrast, those who maintain a resilient sense of efficacy set themselves challenging goals and use good analytic thinking which pays off in performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1998).

Motivational Processes. Self-beliefs of efficacy play a key role in the self-regulation of motivation. Most human motivation is cognitively generated. People motivate themselves and guide their actions anticipatorily by the exercise of forethought. They form beliefs about what they can do. They anticipate likely outcomes of prospective actions. They set goals for themselves and plan courses of action designed to realize valued futures. There are three different forms of cognitive motivators around which different theories have been built. They include causal attributions, outcome expectancies, and cognized goals. The corresponding theories are attribution theory, expectancy-value theory and goal theory, respectively.

Self-efficacy beliefs operate in each of these types of cognitive motivation. Self-efficacy beliefs influence causal attributions. People who regard themselves as highly efficacious attribute their failures to insufficient effort, those who regard themselves as inefficacious attribute their failures to low ability. Causal attributions affect motivation, performance and affective reactions mainly through beliefs of self-efficacy. In expectancy-value theory, motivation is regulated by the expectation that a given course of behavior will produce certain outcomes and the value of those outcomes. But people act on their beliefs about what they can do, as well as on their beliefs about the likely outcomes of performance. The motivating influence of outcome expectancies is thus partly governed by self-beliefs of efficacy. There are countless attractive options people do not pursue because they decided that they lack the capabilities for them. The productiveness of expectancy-value theory is enhanced by including the influence of perceived self-efficacy.

The capacity to exercise self-influence by goal challenges and evaluative reaction to one's own attainments provides a

major cognitive mechanism of motivation. A large body of evidence shows that explicit, challenging goals enhance and sustain motivation. Goals operate largely through self-influence processes rather than regulate motivation and action directly. Motivation based on goal setting involves a cognitive comparison process. By making self-satisfaction conditional on matching adopted goals, people give direction to their behavior and create incentives to persist in their efforts until they fulfill their goals. They seek self-satisfaction from fulfilling valued goals and are prompted to intensify their efforts by discontent with substandard performances.

Motivation based on goals or personal standards is governed by three types of self-influences. They include self-satisfying and self-dissatisfying reactions to one's performance, perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, and re-adjustment of personal goals based on one's progress. Self-efficacy beliefs contribute to motivation in several ways: They determine the goals people set for them; how much effort they expend; how long they persevere in the face of difficulties; and their resilience to failures. When faced with obstacles and failures people who harbor self-doubts about their capabilities slacken their efforts or give up quickly. Those who have a strong belief in their capabilities exert greater effort when they fail to master the challenge. Strong perseverance contributes to performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1998).

Affective Processes. People's beliefs in their coping capabilities affect how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations, as well as their level of motivation. Perceived self-efficacy to exercise control over stressors plays a central role in anxiety arousal. People who believe they can exercise control over threats do not conjure up disturbing thought patterns. But those who believe they cannot manage threats experience high anxiety arousal. They dwell on their coping deficiencies. They view many aspects of their environment as fraught with danger. They magnify the severity of possible threats and worry about things that rarely happen. Through such inefficacious thinking they distress themselves and impair their level of functioning.

Both perceived coping self-efficacy and thought control efficacy operate jointly to reduce anxiety and avoidant behavior. A low sense of efficacy to exercise control produces depression as well as anxiety. It does so in several different ways. One route to depression is through unfulfilled aspiration. People who impose on themselves standards of self-worth they judge they cannot attain drive themselves to bouts of depression.

A second efficacy route to depression is through a low sense of social efficacy. People who judge themselves to be socially efficacious seek out and cultivate social relationships that provide models on how to manage difficult situations, cushion the adverse effects of chronic stressors and bring satisfaction to people's lives. Perceived social inefficacy to develop satisfying and supportive relationships increases vulnerability to depression through social isolation. Much human depression is cognitively generated by dejecting ruminative thought. A low sense of efficacy to exercise control over ruminative thought also contributes to the occurrence, duration and recurrence of

depressive episodes.

Other efficacy-activated processes in the affective domain concern the impact of perceived coping self-efficacy on biological systems that affect health functioning. Stress has been implicated as an important contributing factor to many physical dysfunctions. Controllability appears to be a key organizing principle regarding the nature of these stress effects. It is not stressful life conditions per se, but the perceived inability to manage them that is debilitating. Thus, exposure to stressors with ability to control them has no adverse biological effects. But exposure to the same stressors without the ability to control them impairs the immune system. The impairment of immune function increases susceptibility to infection contributes to the development of physical disorders and accelerates the progression of disease.

There are other ways in which perceived self-efficacy serves to promote health. Lifestyle habits can enhance or impair health. This enables people to exert behavioral influence over their vitality and quality of health. Perceived self-efficacy affects every phase of personal change--whether people even consider changing their health habits; whether they enlist the motivation and perseverance needed to succeed should they choose to do so; and how well they maintain the habit changes they have achieved. The stronger the perceived self-regulatory efficacy the more successful people are in reducing health-impairing habits and adopting and integrating health-promoting habits into their regular lifestyle. Comprehensive community programs designed to prevent cardiovascular disease by altering risk-related habits reduce the rate of morbidity and mortality (Bandura, 1998).

Selection Processes. The discussion so far has centered on efficacy-activated processes that enable people to create beneficial environments and to exercise some control over those they encounter day in and day out. People are partly the product of their environment. Therefore, beliefs of personal efficacy can shape the course lives take by influencing them types of activities and environments people choose. People avoid activities and situations they believe exceed their coping capabilities. But they readily undertake challenging activities and select situations they judge themselves capable of handling. By the choices they make, people cultivate different competencies, interests and social networks that determine life courses.

A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. They set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. They quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable. They approach threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them. Such an efficacious outlook produces personal accomplishments, reduces stress and lowers vulnerability to

depression.

In contrast, people who doubt their capabilities shy away from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter, and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully. They slacken their efforts and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. They are slow to recover their sense of efficacy following failure or setbacks. Because they view insufficient performance as deficient aptitude it does not require much failure for them to lose faith in their capabilities. They fall easy victim to stress and depression. The case for contextual and mediational role of efficacy in human functioning can also be made by exploring the four sources from which these beliefs are developed (Bandura, 1998).

3. Methodology

A. Research Method

A descriptive research design and questionnaire survey method were used in this study.

B. Sampling

1010 teachers (males = 117, females = 893) from Yangon University of Education, University for the Development of the National Races of the Union and Education Degree Colleges in Myanmar were selected as a sample to participate in this study. The study employed a simple random sampling method.

C. Research Instrumentation

To assess the self-efficacy of teacher educators, Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Bandura (1997) and validated by Tschannen Moran and Hoy (2001)), was used in this study. Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale is a 5- points Likert-scale instrument that prompts teacher educators to reflect their belief in their capability to organize and execute actions required to effectively manage classroom tasks, student behaviors, and instructional strategies to foster student learning. It was composed of 30 items under 7 subscales such as Efficacy to Influence Decision making (3 items), Efficacy to Influence School Resources (3 item), Instructional Self-Efficacy (8 items), Disciplinary Self-Efficacy (4 items), Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement (3 items), Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement (3 items) and Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate (6 items).) The items were reviewed by 10 experts from Yangon University of Education for face and content validity, followed by a pilot test with 30 teacher educators and a subsequent field test with 1010 teacher educators from selected institutions.

4. Data Analysis and Findings

A. Descriptive Statistics of Teacher Educators' Self-Efficacy

To investigate teacher educators' self-efficacy, the Bandura's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale was administered. The scale consisted of 30 items representing seven subscales. Since

the number of items differed across subscales, mean percentages were calculated to allow meaningful comparison. Descriptive statistics for the seven subscales and overall self-efficacy were presented in Table 1.

According to the results of the descriptive analysis, the mean score and standard deviation for overall self-efficacy were 78.32 and 14.99, corresponding to a mean percentage of 60.24%. This finding indicated that teacher educators demonstrated a moderately high level of self-efficacy. The result suggested that, in general, teacher educators possessed a relatively strong sense of confidence in their professional capabilities and effectiveness in performing their roles.

Among the seven subscales, instructional self-efficacy recorded the highest mean percentage of 68.95%, indicating that teacher educators were most confident in their instructional skills. From this finding, it can be interpreted that they perceived themselves as highly capable of planning lessons, employing effective teaching strategies, facilitating student learning, and adapting instruction to meet diverse learner needs. Such confidence may reflect their professional training, academic experience, and accumulated pedagogical expertise.

The second highest mean percentage was observed in disciplinary self-efficacy (60.33%), followed closely by efficacy to influence school resources (59.46%) and efficacy to create a positive school climate (58.9%). These findings implied that teacher educators felt reasonably confident in managing classroom discipline, accessing or influencing institutional resources, and fostering a supportive and positive educational environment. This may indicate their perceived competence not only in instructional matters but also in broader institutional and organizational aspects of their professional roles.

Efficacy to enlist community involvement (53.3%), efficacy to influence decision making (52.6%), and efficacy to enlist parental involvement (51.8%) recorded comparatively lower mean percentages. Although these scores still reflected a moderate level of self-efficacy, teacher educators seemed to feel relatively less confident in influencing administrative decisions and engaging parents and the wider community. This may be due to structural limitations, centralized decision-making processes, or limited opportunities for external collaboration within institutional settings.

Overall, these findings indicated that teacher educators demonstrated stronger confidence in instructional and classroom-related domains than in areas involving external engagement and institutional influence. This highlights the importance of empowering teacher educators through participatory leadership practices, collaborative decision-making structures, and strengthened partnerships with parents and the community to further enhance their professional self-efficacy.

B. Comparison of Teacher Educators' Self-Efficacy by Gender

To examine whether self-efficacy of teacher educators differed by gender, descriptive statistics and independent samples *t*-tests were conducted. The means and standard deviations for the seven subscales and overall self-efficacy, as well as the results of the independent samples *t*-tests for male and female teacher educators were presented in Table 2.

The results of the descriptive analysis indicated that male teacher educators reported slightly higher mean scores than female teacher educators in most subscales and overall self-efficacy. However, the observed mean differences between

Table 1
Descriptive statistics of teacher educators' self-efficacy

Variable	No. of Items	N	M	M%	SD
Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	3	1010	7.89	52.6%	2.28
Efficacy to Influence School Resources	3	1010	8.92	59.46%	2.34
Instructional Self-Efficacy	8	1010	27.58	68.95%	4.87
Disciplinary Self-Efficacy	4	1010	9.05	60.33%	2.24
Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement	3	1010	7.77	51.8%	2.79
Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement	3	1010	5.33	53.3%	1.76
Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	6	1010	11.78	58.9%	3.13
Self-Efficacy	30	1010	78.32	60.24%	14.99

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations and results of independent samples *t*-test for teacher educators' self-efficacy by gender

Variable	Gender	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	Male	117	8.32	2.27	2.198*	1008	.028
	Female	893	7.83	2.28			
Efficacy to Influence School Resources	Male	117	9.30	2.02	1.856	1008	.064
	Female	893	8.87	2.38			
Instructional Self-Efficacy	Male	117	27.97	5.26	.911	1008	.363
	Female	893	27.53	4.82			
Disciplinary Self-Efficacy	Male	117	9.31	2.28	1.319	1008	.187
	Female	893	9.02	2.24			
Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement	Male	117	7.89	2.91	.485	1008	.628
	Female	893	7.76	2.77			
Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement	Male	117	5.33	1.86	.017	1008	.986
	Female	893	5.33	1.75			
Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	Male	117	11.73	3.19	-0.183	1008	.855
	Female	893	11.78	3.12			
Self-Efficacy	Male	117	79.85	15.79	1.172	1008	.265
	Female	893	78.12	14.88			

**p* < .05

genders were generally small.

To determine whether these mean differences were statistically significant, independent samples *t*-tests were performed. The results revealed that a statistically significant gender difference was found only for efficacy to influence decision making ($t = 2.198, p = .028$), with male teacher educators reporting significantly higher levels of confidence than their female counterparts. This finding indicated that male teacher educators perceived themselves as more capable of influencing institutional decisions and participating in decision-making processes within their educational settings.

For the remaining subscales, no statistically significant gender differences were observed. Specifically, no significant differences were found for efficacy to influence school resources, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, efficacy to create a positive school climate, and overall self-efficacy.

The lack of significant gender differences in most subscales of self-efficacy was consistent with several previous studies suggesting that teacher self-efficacy tends to be relatively stable across gender when teachers operate under similar professional expectations and institutional contexts. As the consistent previous studies, Klassen and Chiu (2010) reported minimal gender differences in overall teacher self-efficacy, while Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) found that contextual factors such as teaching experience and organizational climate were stronger predictors of teacher self-efficacy than gender.

However, the significant difference observed in efficacy to influence decision making may reflect structural or cultural factors within institutions where leadership roles and participation in decision-making processes are perceived differently across genders.

Overall, the findings indicated that teacher educators, regardless of gender, demonstrated comparable levels of self-efficacy across instructional, disciplinary, and engagement-related domains. The only notable difference was related to perceived influence in decision-making processes. Therefore, efforts to enhance teacher educators' self-efficacy should focus on fostering equitable participation in institutional decision making while continuing to support professional development across all domains of teaching effectiveness.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

This study investigated the self-efficacy of teacher educators in Myanmar. A descriptive research design and questionnaire survey method were adopted, with data collected from 1010 teacher educators (117 males and 893 females) using the self-efficacy Scale comprising 30 items across seven dimensions. The findings revealed that teacher educators demonstrated that teacher educators demonstrated a moderately high level of self-efficacy ($M\% = 60.24\%$). Among the seven subscales, instructional self-efficacy demonstrated the highest mean percentage (68.95%), followed by disciplinary self-efficacy (60.33%). Efficacy to influence school resources (59.46%) and efficacy to create a positive school climate (58.90%) yielded near-comparable results. Conversely, the remaining three

dimensions—efficacy to enlist community involvement (53.3%), efficacy to influence decision-making (52.6%), and efficacy to enlist parental involvement (51.8%)—exhibited notably lower mean percentages.

A statistically significant gender difference emerged solely for efficacy to influence decision making ($t=2.198, t=2.198, p=.028, p=.028$), with male teacher educators reporting significantly higher confidence in this domain than their female counterparts. Conversely, no significant differences were observed across the remaining subscales, including efficacy to influence school resources, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental and community involvement, efficacy to create a positive school climate, and overall self-efficacy. This general absence of gender-based variation aligns with prior scholarship; for instance, Klassen and Chiu (2010) reported minimal gender differences in overall teacher self-efficacy, while Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) similarly emphasized that contextual factors such as teaching experience and organizational climate serve as stronger predictors of efficacy beliefs than gender alone. The singular significant disparity in decision-making efficacy, however, may reflect underlying structural or cultural dynamics within institutions, wherein leadership opportunities and participatory roles are differentially perceived or accessed according to gender. Collectively, these findings indicate that teacher educators, irrespective of gender, exhibit comparable efficacy across instructional, disciplinary, and engagement-related domains, with the sole exception being perceived influence over institutional decisions. Consequently, efforts to enhance teacher educator self-efficacy should prioritize fostering equitable participation in decision-making processes, while simultaneously sustaining comprehensive professional development across all dimensions of teaching effectiveness.

In conclusion, this study contributes to the limited body of research among teacher educators, particularly in the context of Myanmar. The findings demonstrate that teacher educators possess moderate levels of self-efficacy.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will be useful to teacher educators in Myanmar to understand the importance of self-efficacy in their professional lives. Educational administrators and policymakers may use these findings to design supportive working environments and professional development programs that foster self-efficacy among teacher educators. These findings underscore the importance of self-efficacy as a protective resource for teacher educators facing occupational stress and highlight the need for targeted interventions to strengthen this construct. Future research should explore the antecedents and consequences of self-efficacy among teacher educators using longitudinal designs to establish causal relationships and should consider qualitative approaches to gain deeper insights into the lived experiences of teacher educators in Myanmar's unique educational context.

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