INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT, ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING AND TEACHER COMPETENCE IN GOVERNMENT-AIDED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN SOUTH WESTERN UGANDA

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DECLARATION

I, Phiona Arineitwe, declare that this dissertation is my original piece of work and that it has not been presented for any academic or professional award.

Signature: ……. Date: ……..

APPROVAL

This dissertation by Arineitwe Phiona has been written under our supervision and guidance as university supervisors.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my loving mother, Meresi Nabarungi, my supportive husband, Xavier Akampurira Kyooma, and my dear children, Brian, Faith, Blaise, Morgan, Melissa, and Martha. I am eternally grateful for the unwavering love, care, and encouragement you have shown me throughout this academic journey. May the Almighty God bless you all and reward your selflessness in all your daily endeavours.

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the influence of institutional support on teacher competence as mediated by organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda. Specifically, the study investigated the influence of institutional support on teacher competence, sought to establish the influence of institutional support on organisational learning, to determine the influence of organisational learning on teacher competence and to test the mediating effect of organisational learning on the influence of institutional support on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda. Guided by the positivist paradigm, the study adopted a quantitative approach and employed a cross-sectional research design. Data were collected from a sample of 329 teachers using a self-administered questionnaire. The data were subsequently analysed using descriptive statistical methods and Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM), an advanced statistical technique used to examine complex relationships between variables. PLS-SEM results revealed that institutional support had a positive and significant influence on organisational learning, institutional support had a positive significant influence on teacher competence, and organisational learning had a positive and significant influence on teacher competence. The mediation results revealed that the influence of institutional support on teacher competence was positively and significantly mediated by organisational learning. With both the direct and indirect influence being positive and significant, organisational learning fully mediated the influence of institutional support on teacher competence. The study's findings led to the conclusion that institutional support is important for the development of teacher competence, institutional support is essential for organisational learning, and and organisational learning plays a crucial role in supporting teacher competence by facilitating institutional support. The study recommended that the Ministry of Education and Sports, head teachers, and other stakeholders such as Boards of Governors should establish institutional support that facilitates development of teacher competence through induction, continuous professional development, and rewards. The Ministry of Education and Sports, head teachers, and other stakeholders, including Boards of Governors, should establish institutional support crucial for organisational learning through continuous professional development and rewards. Head teachers should implement organisational learning, specifically continuous learning and dialogue and inquiry, to promote teacher competence; and head teachers should implement institutional support practices that foster organisational learning to enhance teacher competence.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Teacher competence is an imperative component to having a blossoming school environment that is basic to sustained school success. Teachers with exceptional capabilities are vital in establishing positive, inclusive, and stimulating learning environments, as their professional mastery significantly shapes educational quality and learner outcomes (Caena & Redecker, 2019). Darling-Hammond (2017) asserts that highly competent teachers demonstrate superior ability in designing interactive instructional activities, monitoring students' academic development, and nurturing classroom settings that advance both performance and holistic growth. This research explored how institutional support impacts teacher competence, emphasizing the intermediary function of organisational learning in this relationship. Chapter One offers a detailed overview of the study, presenting the background that integrates historical, theoretical, conceptual, and contextual perspectives. It also outlines the problem statement and articulates the specific research objectives, which guided the formulation of the study's hypotheses. Furthermore, the chapter introduces the conceptual framework, highlights the significance and scope of the research, and clarifies the operational definitions of essential terms, thereby establishing a strong foundation for the entire investigation.

1.1 Background of the Study

1.1.1 Historical Perspective

The concept of "competence" has existed throughout the history of mankind. The concept is found in the works of Plato, that is the "Lysis 2I5A of 380 BC" and was used to refer to the quality of being ikanos (capable). It explained the ability to achieve something with skill (Mulder, 2007). However, at first the concept was used in the management arena. For instance, Taylor in 1911 suggested that selection of employees required considering their competences (Wilcox, 2012). In Education, Dewey (1916) argued that teachers needed competence beyond knowledge of subject matter, but also about understanding the needs and interests of students. He explained that teachers should be able to connect the curriculum to students' experiences and make learning relevant and engaging. In the 1980s, the concept of teacher competence gained prominence, with researchers such as Albert Bandura arguing that teachers who believed in their ability to positively impact student learning were more likely to be effective (Bandura, 1986).

In 1987, in the United States of America the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1987) indicated that teacher competence included a range of skills and dispositions beyond content knowledge and instructional strategies. The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards identified five core propositions of accomplished teaching, including demonstrating a deep understanding of subject matter and pedagogy, creating a positive and inclusive learning environment, engaging in on-going professional development, using assessment and feedback to inform instruction, and being reflective and adaptive in

teaching practice (Cowan & Goldhaber, 2016). Previously in 1983, the US Federal government introduced a requirement for teacher candidates to demonstrate their proficiency by passing a specific test to be admitted into the teaching profession, emphasizing teacher preparation and accountability (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). This shift has led to widespread adoption of teacher certification, highlighting the importance of teacher quality in ensuring student success, with research consistently showing that effective teachers have a lasting impact on students' lives, making it essential to support and develop teachers throughout their careers, providing resources and opportunities for excellence in the classroom and access to high-quality education for all students. This sparked interest in evaluating teacher competence on a global scale (García et al., 2019).

In Europe, in the 1984 the United Kingdom government introduced competence education (Jessup, 1991). Competency-based teacher education was designed to equip both scholars and practitioners with the essential abilities to develop a workforce capable of meeting the demands of a contemporary economy (Valeeva & Gafurov, 2017). In response to this goal, the European Union introduced the Common European Principles in 2005, outlining the core qualifications and professional competencies expected of teachers. The principles are a profession that demands high qualifications; lifelong learning; professional growth anchored on mobility, and collaboration between teachers and institutions (Mikulec, 2019). In Asia, specifically in the rich East Asian countries, education reforms started with changed expectations of society in the new era. The countries first set out to identify the characteristics of a successful young person in the 21st century. In most East

Asian contexts, the term “21st-century competencies” is not explicitly used except in Singapore and Taiwan but the education reforms nonetheless share similar aspirations, aiming to align national education systems with the shifting demands of modern society (Cheng, 2017).

In 2016, the African Union launched the African Framework of Standards and Competences for the Teaching Profession (AFSCTP). This initiative aligns closely with the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA), which was developed in response to regional and global education priorities, particularly the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that call for a significant expansion in the number of qualified teachers by the year 2030 (Nwokeocha, 2019). However, despite the emphasis on teacher competence, many countries in Africa grapple with low teacher proficiency, particularly in implementing new curricula focused on competencies. For instance, in south Africa, a significant proportion of teachers, approximately 20% are devoid of the necessary qualifications and skills to fulfil their responsibilities effectively, emphasizing a critical requirement for teacher training and development programs to enhance their ability to deliver high-quality education (Beckmann, 2018). In Zimbabwe as well as Kenya, teachers do not have the competence to deliver the new competence based curriculum (Hwande & Mpofu, 2017; Kimosop, 2019).

In Uganda, up to 1924 when the Phelps-Stokes Commission recommended government takeover of schools in the country, formal education was completely managed by missionaries (Ochieng & Waiswa, 2019). Missionary trained teachers were equipped with religious and literally competences (Ssekamwa, 1997). The

Thomas Education Committee of 1940 recommended that the government establish teacher training colleges and technical schools (Kamya, 2019). Teachers developed high competences in terms of thinking abilities and instruction (Malunda, 2017). Nonetheless, in 1970s and 80s teachers' competences declined due to the turmoil in the country (Mazaki, 2017). To improve teachers' competences, in 2016, the secondary school teachers' competency profile was developed (Ministry of Sports and Education, 2016).

Since the secondary teachers' competence framework is recent, limited studies (e.g. Mutebi, 2019; Namae, 2020; Poro et al., 2019) have explored teachers' competences in secondary school settings in Uganda. Still, these studies looked at teacher competence as an independent variable hence did not consider factors that support it. Studies suggest that factors that are namely induction support (Aarts et al., 2020; Frederiksen, 2020), continuous professional development (Bruns et al., 2017; Köybasi & Ugurlu, 2019) and rewards (Mustafa & Ali, 2019) relate to teachers competence. These factors can generally be termed as institutional support. Although existing research has explored the link between institutional support and teacher competence, a crucial limitation is that none of these studies focused on the Ugandan teaching context, creating a need for context-specific research to address this gap in understanding. Further, studies Kumar et al. (2024), Oh and Kuchinke (2017), and Ladyshewsky and Taplin (2018) revealed that organisational learning mediated employee competence. This study was thus attracted how institutional support mediated by organisational learning relate to teachers competences in the context of schools.

1.1.2 Theoretical Perspective

The Perceived Organisational Support (POS) theory and the Organisational Learning theory guied the study. The POS theory, developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986), provided the theoretical basis for analysing how institutional support (independent variable), organisational learning (mediating variable), and teacher competence (dependent variable) interact. As a social exchange framework, the POS theory highlights how employees interpret the degree to which their organisation appreciates their efforts and is concerned about their welfare. Organisational support galvanises employees, fostering a profound sense of reciprocity that yields remarkable outcomes. Theses ourcomes include surge in job satisfaction, unshakeable commitment, stellar performance, and exceptional competence, as employees strive to reciprocate the support they receive from their organisation (Sungu et al., 2019). So, with adequate institutional support, teacher competences are expected to improve and they were involved in learning.

Furthermore, workers substantially adjust their work practices in alignment with the degree to which their employer acknowledges and appreciates their efforts, and the extent to which organisations prioritize their welfare and well-being, reflecting a powerful influence on employee motivation, job satisfaction, and productivity (Eisenberger et al., 2020). Consequently, when employees perceive that their organisation is genuinely invested in their professional growth through initiatives such as thorough induction programs, recognition and reward systems, and ongoing continuous professional

development (CPD) opportunities they tend to show notable improvements in competence. This heightened sense of being valued and supported fosters stronger motivation and engagement, thereby nurturing a culture of continuous learning and advancement. Consequently, employees are encouraged to build new capabilities, enhance their professional expertise, and remain aligned with emerging best practices, all of which contribute to higher levels of performance and competence (Maan et al., 2020), alongside greater organisational learning (Tian et al., 2018)

Lewing and York (2017) asserted that the organisational support theory contributes significantly to strengthening employees' dedication and commitment to performing their roles effectively within the organisation. In a related perspective, Zhang et al. (2020) found that teachers who perceive high organisational support tend to develop a strong emotional connection and sense of responsibility toward their institutions, which encourages greater creativity and innovation in classroom practice. Such a sense of ownership arises when teachers feel genuinely valued and supported, promoting their continuous professional growth and enhancing their overall competence. Although this study examined how perceived organisational support influences teacher competence, it also recognised that this theory alone may not sufficiently explain the dynamic role of organisational learning in that relationship. To bridge this conceptual gap, the organisational learning theory was also employed, emphasizing the collective processes through which institutions acquire, share, and apply knowledge to strengthen teacher competence. The integration of both

theories thus provided a richer and more comprehensive understanding of the diverse and interacting factors that shape teacher competence.

The organisational learning theory, first articulated by Argyris and Schön (1978), suggests that learning emerges through social interaction and collective experience within groups and organisations. It maintains that institutions enhance or sustain their performance by continuously revising their underlying assumptions, procedures, and knowledge systems in response to new experiences (Basten & Haamann, 2018). Through this adaptive learning process, organisations become better equipped to respond to shifting external conditions, fostering innovation and long-term growth (Martínez-Costa et al., 2019). As a foundational driver of innovation, organisational learning encompasses the discovery, absorption, and application of new ideas, leading to the creation and preservation of institutional knowledge that supports evolution and resilience in dynamic environments (Martínez-Costa et al., 2019). It further relies on sustained professional development, open dialogue, critical reflection, and collective collaboration factors that together empower organisations to continually adapt, share insights, and enhance overall performance through knowledge-driven improvement (Jyothibabu et al., 2010).

The establishment of a robust organisational learning culture serves as a critical mechanism through which institutions can strengthen employees' performance competencies, ultimately fostering heightened levels of innovation (Wilkens et al., 2004). Grounded in organisational learning theory which asserts that learning processes enhance individual and collective competencies, this

study employed the theoretical lens to examine the extent to which organisational learning impacts teachers' professional capabilities. Specifically, the research investigated how organisational learning facilitates teachers' adaptability to dynamic educational environments, promotes the development of innovative pedagogical practices, and contributes to the enhancement of student learning outcomes (Martínez-Costa et al., 2019). By scrutinizing the nexus between organisational learning and teacher competence, this study aimed to contribute to the development of teacher competences to improve educational quality.

1.1.3 Conceptual Perspective

Competence represents a dynamic and integrative construct comprising systematically organized capabilities that enable individuals to navigate context-specific challenges and execute tasks in accordance with established professional or disciplinary benchmarks (Poro et al., 2019). In the realm of education, teacher competence denotes the comprehensive ability of educators to convey knowledge meaningfully, foster learners' capacity for application, and cultivate intellectual and practical skills essential for holistic development (Sulaiman & Ismail, 2020). It is best understood as a multifaceted amalgamation of cognitive, affective, and technical attributes that collectively equip teachers to design, facilitate, and assess effective learning experiences (Pit-ten Cate et al., 2018). A growing body of empirical research highlights teacher competence as a critical determinant of learners' academic achievement, as well as a key predictor of educators' job satisfaction and professional persistence within the

teaching vocation (Krieg, 2020; Locke, 2020). Furthermore, genuine professional competence among teachers is sustained through continuous reflective practice, engagement in professional learning, and adaptability to evolving educational demands and policy environments (Nang-Sein, 2022). Within the framework of this study, teacher competence was conceptualized as an integrated set of ethical, pedagogical, subject matter and assessment and evaluation competences (Adediwura et al., 2020; Bakar, 2018; Denbel, 2023).

Institutional support denotes the organisational mechanisms, structures, and resources designed to foster employee learning, professional growth, and sustained development. It encompasses formal guidelines, procedural frameworks, developmental tools, and access to material and intellectual resources that collectively enable individuals to perform effectively within the organisational context (Saeed et al., 2018). Fundamentally, institutional support reflects the degree to which an organisation demonstrates commitment to the advancement of its workforce by providing strategic resources, expert mentorship, and consistent motivational reinforcement aimed at enhancing employees' competencies and overall performance (Ghosh et al., 2020). Moreover, it integrates a comprehensive range of organisational policies and practices intended to nurture professional capability, promote well-being, and create conditions conducive to continuous improvement and innovation (Kumar et al., 2019). Within the scope of this study, institutional support is operationalized as the set of structured provisions encompassing induction programmes, ongoing professional development opportunities, and reward

systems that collectively sustain teacher growth and effectiveness (Maan et al., 2020).

With respect to organisational learning, it encompasses the dynamic processes of knowledge creation, acquisition, and dissemination within an organisation (Park & Kim, 2018). Organisational learning embodies a deliberate and strategic process through which institutions generate, internalize, and disseminate knowledge to stimulate innovation, elevate performance, and strengthen adaptability amid dynamic and uncertain environments (Alerasoul et al., 2022). It reflects an organisation's inherent capacity to acquire insights, reinterpret experiences, and transform operational practices in response to both internal developments and external shifts in context (Alerasoul et al., 2022). Beyond mere information management, organisational learning constitutes a cyclical process of knowledge creation, exchange, and application that collectively drives organisational renewal, competitiveness, and sustained innovation (Antunes & Pinheiro, 2020). Within the present study, organisational learning is operationalized, following Jyothibabu et al. (2010), as a multidimensional construct encompassing continuous learning, open dialogue and inquiry, and collaborative team-based learning processes that collectively underpin institutional effectiveness and adaptive growth.

1.1.4 Contextual Perspective

Government supported secondary schools in south western Uganda were the focus. This area covers the districts in the sub regions of former Ankole and Kigezi. However, there are problems with teachers' competences in terms of ethical

competence, pedagogical competence, subject matter competence and assessment and evaluation. In terms of ethical competence, there was an outcry about increased general decline with teachers displaying lack of enthusiasm in their work shown by their engagement in excessive alcohol consumption which has harmed their careers by making them neglect their jobs hence poor job performance and loss of employment by some of them (Bashaija et al., 2021; Zikanga et al., 2021). Teachers frequently arrived late for work, others seldom showed up and had poor relationships with their colleagues, while others neglected to prepare lessons and finish the syllabus (Byaruhanga, 2018). Absenteeism of teachers in the schools was at 35%, teachers who made schemes of work are 73.3% and 58.2% of the teachers made lesson plans (Nuwatuhaire & Tushabirane, 2019; Zikanga et al., 2021).

Schools continue to grapple with significant challenges surrounding pedagogical competence, as classroom instruction in many cases does not align with the standards outlined by the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC), the Directorate of Education Standards (DES), and the Uganda National Examinations Board (UNEB). In numerous schools, teaching practices remained largely teacher-centred rather than learner-oriented, thereby restricting active participation, creativity, and independent thinking among students (Zikanga et al., 2021). Many teachers also demonstrated limited pedagogical proficiency, reflected in inadequate lesson preparation and the inconsistent use of effective instructional methods, which has contributed to the persistent underachievement of learners in national assessments. Furthermore, teachers seldom provide remedial sessions or enrichment activities for students experiencing academic difficulties, and often

neglect practical, hands-on learning particularly in science subjects, thus narrowing learners' exposure to experiential forms of education (Byaruhanga, 2018). A lack of professional motivation among teachers in schools further compounded these challenges, as some failed to fully execute their instructional and managerial responsibilities, including maintaining classroom discipline, fostering student engagement, and ensuring consistent attendance (Mugizi et al., 2020). With respect to assessment and evaluation, a large number of teachers did not carry out continuous class work assessment and report students' progress (Nuwatuhaire & Tushabirane, 2019).

Concerning institutional support, in the majority of the schools, teachers' were not adequately paid allowances and bonuses because most of the schools are poor and under the universal secondary education programme where parents are not supposed to pay fees (Abenawe, 2022). The above contextual evidence showed that teachers' competences were weak and institutional support poor. This gap in understanding highlighted an unresolved empirical question regarding the potential causal relationship between institutional support and teacher competence within secondary schools in South Western Uganda. Consequently, the present study was undertaken to explore the interconnections among institutional support, teacher competence, and organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools in the region. By analysing the mediating influence of organisational learning, the research sought to elucidate the internal processes through which institutional support contributes to the development of teacher competence. The findings were expected to generate insights that could guide the formulation of evidence-based

strategies aimed at strengthening teacher effectiveness and enhancing overall educational quality in South Western Uganda.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Teacher competence is central to the education system of any country that aims to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals. Competent teachers drive students' academic attainment, which in turn fosters national development (Ahupa, 2019). Teachers with advanced professional competence have the capacity to inspire meaningful learning, communicate ideas with clarity, and equip learners with essential intellectual and practical abilities (Sulaiman & Ismail, 2020). Such teachers do more than transmitting knowledge, they spark curiosity, encourage independent thinking, and foster inclusive spaces that cultivate academic growth and holistic development. Their refined expertise and pedagogical insight serve as the foundation for quality education and lasting student achievement (Caena & Redecker, 2019). Hence, schools must invest in and retain highly proficient teachers capable of designing interactive and engaging lessons, monitoring learners' progress effectively, and creating supportive classroom environments that enhance both educational outcomes and learners' overall well-being (Sulaiman & Ismail, 2020). Highly competent teachers are ethical, have high pedagogical knowledge, possess subject matter and are able to assess and evaluate learners (Adediwura et al., 2020; Bakar, 2018; Denbel, 2023).

Acknowledging the critical role of teacher competence in improving education quality, the Government of Uganda has undertaken several initiatives

to strengthen it. For example, District Education Departments have carried out support supervision exercises led by District Education Officials to enhance instructional effectiveness and accountability (Abenawe, 2022). In addition, the Ministry of Education and Sports introduced the Secondary Science and Mathematics Teachers (SESMAT) programme, aimed at boosting performance in science-related disciplines by providing regular refresher training and professional development opportunities for teachers (Kariisa et al., 2015). Furthermore, to promote the competence of science teachers, the government increased their salaries (Nantale et al., 2022). Despite these efforts, teacher competence remained low. Many teachers fail to uphold professional standards, as evidenced by misconduct such as drunkenness while on duty, missing lessons without making up for them, tardiness, and teaching without adequate preparation and planning (Zikanga et al., 2021). Moreover, teachers demonstrated low pedagogical competence by relying on inadequate, teacher-centred methods instead of student-centred approaches that enhance learners' cognitive development (Byaruhanga, 2018; Zikanga et al., 2021). In addition, teachers exhibited low assessment competence, with many failing to assess students' work in a timely manner (Byaruhanga, 2018). If low competence of teachers remains, Uganda is unlikely to attain Vision 2040, which seeks to uplift the country from being a predominantly low-income and peasant-based economy to an upper middle-income economy (Mugizi, 2018).

While numerous studies (Aarts et al., 2020; Bruns et al., 2017; de Ree et al., 2018; Frederiksen, 2020; Gümüş, 2022; Köybasi and Ugurlu, 2019; Mustafa

and Ali, 2019) had examined the determinants of teacher competence, a significant empirical gap remained, as the Ugandan context was largely unexamined. The omission of the Ugandan context in prior research underscored the need for a localized study. The country's distinct cultural, social, and educational landscape was likely to offer unique insights into the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence.

This contextualized investigation aimed to uncover findings specific to Uganda's education system and to uncover the intricacies that influenced teacher competence in this setting. Although some studies were conducted in Uganda, such as those by Mutebi (2019), Namae (2020), and Poro et al. (2019), none of them examined the predictors of teacher competence, despite its persistent low levels. If this issue of teacher compenetnce is not addressed, student attainment would remain low, and the country would not be able to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals and Vision 2040. To address the problem of low teacher competence, this study investigated how institutional support influenced teacher competence.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the influence of institutional support on teacher competence as mediated by organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda.

1.4 Specific Objectives

The study was intended;

1. To investigate the influence of institutional support on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda.
2. To establish the influence of institutional support on organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda.
3. To determine the influence of organisational learning on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda.
4. To test the mediating effect of organisational learning on the influence of institutional support on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda.

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

H1: Institutional support has a significant influence on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools.

H2: Institutional support has a significant influence on organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools.

H3: Organisational learning has a significant influence on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools.

H4: Organisational learning has mediating effect on the influence of institutional support on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is important as far as promoting teachers' competence is concerned. The findings might thus be imperative to the body of knowledge, policy makers, and head teachers. To the body of knowledge, the study offers empirical insights into the relationships among these constructs in real-world educational settings. The study enriched existing literature by validating theoretical frameworks through data, highlighting context-specific dynamics, and identifying practical implications for improving teacher competence through targeted institutional and organisational interventions. To the policy makers such as the Executive, Parliament and Boards of Governors of schools, the findings of the study reveal important issues with respect to institutional support that need to be given attention and put into consideration when making policies to guide school managers in order to promote competence of teachers. Therefore, policy makers might use the findings of the study as benchmarks for making policies for schools in relation to competence of teachers. To the head teachers of schools, the study will reveal how school support promotes competence of teachers. Therefore, head teachers might implement those factors revealed in order to promote teachers' competence.

1.7 Scope of the Study

1.7.1 Geographical Scope.

The study was carried out in the districts of south western Uganda covering old districts of Ankole (Bushenyi, Ibanda & Mbarara) and Kigezi (Kabale, Kisoro, Rukungiri). Government-aided secondary schools in the districts were the focus

because teachers in those schools continued to exhibit low competences despite government and parents' investment in the schools. The study focused on teachers in these schools because they were beneficiaries of government-led initiatives aimed at enhancing teacher competence particularly since the introduction of the competence-based curriculum. Teachers in government-aided schools have participated in numerous capacity-building programs, and workshops organized or supported by the Ministry of Education and Sports (Ampereza et al., 2023). Despite these investments, concerns remain about the actual competence levels demonstrated by teachers in practice (Zikanga et al., 2021). This made government-aided schools a strategic focus for assessing the effectiveness of institutional support mechanisms in improving teacher competence.

1.7.2 Content Scope

The content scope was on teacher competence as a dependent variable, institutional support as independent variable and organisational learning the mediating variable. Teacher competence was studied in terms of ethical, pedagogical, subject matter competence and teacher's assessment and evaluation. Institutional support was studied in terms induction, teacher CPD and rewards. Organisational learning was considered in terms of continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team learning.

1.7.3 Time Scope

This study was anchored in a cross-sectional time horizon framework. As noted by Saunders et al. (2019), a study may adopt either a cross-sectional approach, capturing data at a single point in time, or a longitudinal approach, which tracks changes and developments over an extended period. In this research, a cross-

sectional design was deliberately chosen, with data collection conducted once between June 2024 and September 2024. This approach allowed the researcher to obtain a precise snapshot of respondents' perspectives on institutional support, organisational learning, and teacher competence within a defined temporal window. Employing a cross-sectional time horizon provided a practical and efficient means to examine the interrelationships among the variables, yielding timely and focused insights relevant to the study's objectives.

1.8 Conceptual Framework

This study hypothesized that institutional support has a positive impact on teacher competence, which is mediated by organisational learning. The conceptual framework (Figure 1.1) illustrates the relationships between these variables, depicting how institutional support influences teacher competence through the mediating effect of organisational learning.

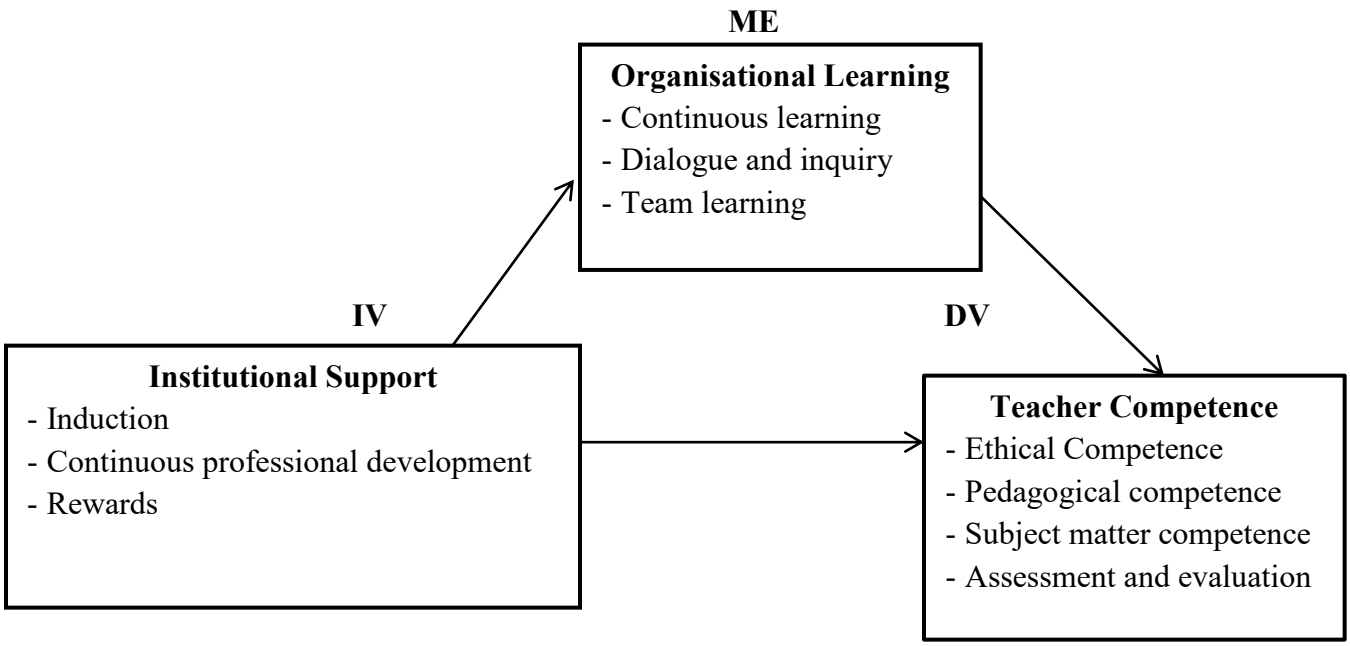

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework Relating Institutional Support and Teacher Competence mediated by Organisational Learning

Source: Developed on ideas adapted from Adediwura et al. (2020), Bakar (2018), Calaguas (2013), and and Maan et al. (2020).

The conceptual framework (Figure 1.1) illustrates the hypothesised casual linkage between institutional support, organisational learning, and teacher competence. Specifically, institutional support, comprising induction, continuous professional development, and rewards is thought to enhance teacher competence in in terms of ethical, pedagogical, subject matter, and assessment and evaluation. Furthermore, the framework suggests that organisational learning, characterised by continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team learning, plays a mediating role in the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence.

1.9 Operational Definitions

Institutional Support: Institutional support referred to induction, continuous professional development and rewards (Maan et al., 2020).

Organisational Learning: Organisational learning referred to continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team learning (Jyothibabu et al., 2010).

Teacher Competence: Teacher competence denoted a cluster of distinct knowledge and technical know how needed by teachers which are ethical competence, pedagogical competence, subject matter competence and assessment and evaluation (Adediwura et al., 2020; Bakar, 2018; Denbel, 2023).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter undertakes an in-depth exploration of both theoretical underpinnings and extant empirical literature pertaining to the effect of institutional support on teacher competence. The theoretical framework is anchored in Perceived Organizational Support Theory and Organizational Learning Theory. The literature review is systematically organized around several interrelated domains: first, the nexus between institutional support and teacher competence; second, the interplay between institutional support and organizational learning; third, the influence of organizational learning upon teacher competence; and finally, how organizational learning modulates the effect of institutional support on teacher competence. In alignment with the research objectives, the literature review adopts a structure that proceeds from conceptual definitions and theoretical expositions to the elucidation of variable interrelationships.

Throughout this review, conceptual clarity is maintained via precise definitions, and theoretical relationships are explicated, drawing attention to the mechanisms by which institutional support and organizational learning jointly contribute to teacher competence. Critical gaps in the existing scholarly work, those which this study sought to address were identified and discussed. By synthesizing prior studies, this chapter established a rigorous foundation for understanding how institutional support fosters the development of teacher competence, and how organizational learning may serve as a mediating or moderating factor in this

relationship. Ultimately, this review augments the scholarly discourse in this field and furnishes practitioners, policymakers, and future investigators with insights into strengthening teacher quality through institutional and organizational levers.

2.1 Theoretical Review

Different theories explain the association between institutional support and organisational learning with teacher competence. These include Knowledge Management Theory (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995), Organisational Support Theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), Job Demands-Resources Model (Demerouti et al., 2001), Social Support Theory (Cobb, 1976), Transformational Leadership Theory (Bass, 1985), Experiential Learning Theory (Kolb, 1984), and Organisational Learning Theory (Argyris & Schön, 1978). However, this study was underpinned by the Perceived Organisational support theory (POS) and Organisational learning theory (OLT).

Eisenberger et al. (1986) developed the concept of Perceived Organizational Support (POS), asserting that organisations must actively sustain their employees (Caesens et al., 2019). POS denotes the extent to which employees believe their organisation values their contributions, is concerned for their well-being, and gives priority to their interests (Roemer & Harris, 2018). Under Organisational Support Theory, employees cultivate overarching beliefs about whether their organisation appreciates their efforts and attends to their overall welfare. These beliefs are shaped by observable organisational behaviours—such as offering rewards and benefits that surpass mere contractual obligations (Satardien et al., 2019). When employees sense high POS, they tend to feel acknowledged, respected, and committed to their

organisation, which often results in elevated job satisfaction, stronger organisational commitment, and enhanced productivity.

POS theory holds that perceived organisational support largely springs from employees' interpretations of the organisation's willingness to treat them favorably (or unfavorably). Consequently, high POS triggers a reciprocity-based social exchange process: employees feel an obligation to contribute to the organisation's success and expect that their extra efforts will be reciprocated with greater recognition and rewards (Kurtessis et al., 2017). This reciprocal dynamic nurtures shared responsibility and increases employee investment in organisational aims, thereby fostering a more collaborative and productive environment that ultimately supports the competence of personnel.

The Perceived Organisational Support Theory (POST) posits that employees' willingness to satisfy the emotional requirements of their roles hinges on their appraisal of the rewards tied to their heightened exertion. In line with Caesens et al. (2019), individuals thus develop a broad-based perception of how much their organisation values their input and is attentive to their welfare. When organisational support is evident, employees reciprocate via heightened effort (Scanlan et al., 2018). According to POST, various facets of treatment by the organisation and its stewards impact this perception: these include access to professional training, equitable promotion practices, job enrichment initiatives, just organisational policies, and reward systems (Amjad et al., 2021). Employees tend to interpret the behaviour of managers and organisational agents as indicative of the organisation's fundamental motives (Knies et al., 2018). Those who perceive high

levels of organisational support usually cultivate affirmative work attitudes, which in turn enhance job performance (Kurtessis et al., 2017).

Moreover, when employees believe their organisation is genuinely committed to their development through mechanisms like induction programs, recognition, and ongoing professional development (CPD) their competence tends to improve (Maan et al., 2020), and organisational learning is boosted (Tian et al., 2018). POST underscores the centrality of support in forging a favourable work milieu that motivates employees, elevates competence, and stimulates organisational learning. By allocating resources, offering supportive structures, and demonstrating care for employee growth, organisations reveal their investment in their workforce's well-being. Such support typically yields greater job satisfaction, stronger performance, and deeper organisational commitment. Scholars continue to apply POST across varied professional domains to elucidate how employee attitudes, motivation, and performance are shaped by perceived support. For example, Caesens and Stinglhamber (2014) employed POST to examine the mediating role of perceived organisational support between job demands and employee well-being; they found that environments marked by robust organisational support mitigate stress and reduce burnout.

Within educational contexts, Tadesse and Muriithi (2021) utilized the Perceived Organizational Support Theory (POST) to investigate the extent to which institutional backing shapes educators' job satisfaction and retention outcomes. Their findings indicated that the perception of support plays a critical role in enhancing teachers' intrinsic motivation and instructional efficacy. In the Greek

telecommunications sector during the COVID-19 crisis, Katsaros (2024) adapted POST to examine how support mechanisms during organizational transitions influenced workforce dynamics, uncovering a strong positive link between support perceptions and both employee engagement and organizational performance. Similarly, Mahmood et al. (2024) applied the theoretical framework in Malaysia's banking sector, revealing that when employees sense meaningful organizational concern for their well-being, their engagement levels and overall productivity notably increase. In the realm of higher education, Hassanein et al. (2025) investigated Lebanese academic institutions and demonstrated that the impact of supportive leadership on staff well-being is significantly magnified when employees perceive robust organizational support within a constructive institutional climate.

However, one of its weaknesses is the tendency to oversimplify complex organisational dynamics by attributing all supportive or unsupportive experiences to the organisation, overlooking individual managerial differences (Shoss et al., 2013). Another limitation is that POS may not account for contextual variations that influence how support is perceived, especially in collectivist societies where group norms may outweigh individual perceptions (Ahmed et al., 2020). Another limitation of POST is that it can lead to blaming the organisation as a whole for unfair treatment by leaders, rather than holding individual leaders responsible for their actions (Eisenberger et al., 2020). This is due to the tendency to identify leaders with the organisation (organisational embodiment). Consequently, when employees encounter adverse treatment, they may interpret it as indicative of deficient

organisational support, which can, in turn, precipitate detrimental outcomes for overall organisational effectiveness (Shoss et al., 2013).

Significantly, the studies above reaffirm POST's robustness and adaptability in explaining various workplace outcomes such as engagement, innovation, and well-being. They also highlight that the mechanisms linking organisational support to positive employee outcomes often involve mediating variables such as psychological capital, person-organisation fit, and leadership support. Collectively, these findings demonstrate that when organisations consistently invest in employees' growth, welfare, and recognition, workers reciprocate with greater commitment, creativity, and performance.

Originally conceptualised by Argyris and Schön (1978), Organisational Learning Theory posits that learning is inherently a social process embedded within the collective interactions of individuals in organisational settings. It emphasizes that knowledge emerges through shared experiences and collaborative reflection, allowing employees to learn from one another and disseminate this knowledge across the organisation. Through such processes, organisations refine their cognitive frameworks, operational norms, and procedural systems, thereby enhancing performance and adaptability (Basten & Haamann, 2018). This continual evolution enables organisations to remain agile and competitive in dynamic environments. Organisational learning encompasses the creation, retention, and distribution of knowledge within institutional contexts (Park & Kim, 2018), drawing from diverse inputs such as internal experiences, client feedback, and external market intelligence. By embedding new routines and practices, organisations strengthen

their capacity to respond effectively to environmental shifts. As a result, organisational learning increases organisational knowledge, leading to new changes and strategic renewal, balancing continuity and change (Bratianu, 2015). In other words, organisational learning helps organisations to evolve and innovate while still maintaining their core identity. Organisational learning is structured around four essential processes: the acquisition of relevant information, its systematic distribution within the organisation, the interpretation of its implications, and the effective management of the knowledge generated (Martínez-Costa et al., 2019). These interrelated components serve as the foundation for fostering institutional learning and are instrumental in enabling organisations to adapt, evolve, and respond proactively to shifting internal and external conditions.

Organisational learning is a crucial precursor to innovation, as it enables the generation, assimilation, and implementation of new ideas. The organisational learning process typically commences with the identification of essential knowledge and culminates in its systematic storage for future application (Martínez-Costa et al., 2019). It encompasses multiple dimensions such as continuous learning, reflective dialogue, inquiry-driven practices, and collaborative team learning (Jyothibabu et al., 2010). These dimensions contribute to cultivating a culture that prioritises knowledge sharing, collective reflection, and ongoing improvement. Through such mechanisms, organisational learning not only strengthens employees' performance-related competencies but also serves as a catalyst for enhanced innovation and adaptability (Wilkens et al., 2004).

Scholars have applied Organisational Learning Theory (OLT) to explore how knowledge creation affects employees attitudes inclduing learning. For example, Chen et al. (2024) employed Organisational Learning Theory (OLT) to explore the mediating role of organisational learning in the relationship between leadership styles and innovation capacity within higher education institutions. Their findings indicate that a culture grounded in continuous learning significantly enhances educators' capacity for innovative pedagogical practices. In a similar vein, Tahir et al. (2023) applied the theory within public sector organisations, demonstrating that sustained learning activities and active knowledge exchange contribute to greater employee adaptability and improved performance amid changing operational contexts. In the corporate sphere, Al-Zu'bi and Awamleh (2022) utilised OLT to examine how structured learning processes facilitate digital transformation, showing that organisations committed to ongoing learning are better equipped to navigate technological advancements. Likewise, Gupta and Agarwal (2023) adopted OLT in the healthcare domain, revealing that environments supportive of organisational learning contribute to higher service quality and enhanced employee competence through improved knowledge retention and dissemination. In educational settings, Nguyen and Pham (2022) applied organisational learning principles to assess how collaboration and reflective practice among teachers foster pedagogical improvement and institutional growth. These studies collectively show that organisational learning serves as a critical mechanism linking organisational antecedents and employee competence.

However, OLT also has notable weaknesses. One limitation is that it assumes all organisations have equal capacity and motivation to learn, overlooking contextual barriers such as limited resources, hierarchical rigidity, or resistance to change (Bratianu, 2015). Also, measuring organisational learning remains difficult because learning outcomes are often intangible and long-term (Crossan et al., 2019). The theory also risks over emphasising collective learning at the expense of individual learning, potentially neglecting the unique contributions of individuals to organisational knowledge (Loon, 2021). Despite these limitations, OLT remains a valuable lens for analysing how educational institutions can foster teacher competence, innovation, and school improvement through shared learning, reflection, and collaboration. OLT offers a comprehensive lens through which to understand how collective learning dynamics strengthen an organisation's capacity to adapt to evolving external conditions (Basten & Haamann, 2018; Park & Kim, 2018).

The theory's focus on knowledge creation and sharing fosters collaboration, enhances decision-making, and improves employee competence. It also offers practical applications for capacity building, as learning organisations tend to encourage reflection, feedback, and experimentation, leading to sustained performance improvement (Martínez-Costa et al., 2019). By applying organisational learning principles, such as continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team learning, schools can enhance the competences of teachers. Grounded in Organisational Learning Theory, this study examined the extent to which organisational learning processes influence teachers' professional

competencies, with the broader aim of enhancing instructional practices and ultimately improving student learning outcomes.

2.2 Review of Related Empirical Literature

This literature review examined the existing research on the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence and on the mediating role of organisational learning. The review encompasses theoretical, conceptual, and empirical literature to provide a comprehensive understanding of the topic. Through this review, gaps in the existing research were identified, highlighting the need for this study and its potential contributions to the field.

2.2.1 Institutional Support and Teachers Competence.

Institutional support, also referred to as organisational support, denotes the active encouragement and assistance provided by an organisation to its employees through various means, including policies, regulations, monetary and non-monetary support, aimed at enhancing their performance and productivity (Falola et al., 2020). This support encompasses the organisation's fulfilment of employees' social, emotional, and economic needs, including mentoring activities such as education, guidance, and counseling, employee retention and protection, and the creation of appropriate work environment. Institutional support is rooted in employees' beliefs about the organisation's willingness to provide assistance in challenging situations and forgive honest mistakes (Farooqi et al., 2019). It involves the organisation's recognition of individual efforts, often accompanied by assurances of well-being (Jehanzeb, 2020). Fundamentally, institutional support embodies an organisation’s commitment to valuing its employees’ contributions and safeguarding their well-being. Such

perceived support shapes employees' cognitive frameworks and workplace attitudes, engendering constructive emotional states such as optimism and self-assurance that in turn promote creative thinking and innovation (Yang & Zhou, 2022).

Organisations can cultivate employee growth and innovation by offering robust institutional backing, including the sharing of expertise, targeted skill-building initiatives, and access to essential technological tools (Yang & Zhou, 2022). Such support plays a pivotal role in enhancing employee capabilities, which in turn fuels creativity and job success. By allocating resources and creating developmental opportunities, organisations empower their workforce to acquire fresh competencies, driving both performance improvements and inventive outcomes. To secure employee dedication and engagement, institutions educational ones included must commit to offering meaningful support systems (Falola et al., 2020). This backing is fundamental in fostering a culture of trust and commitment, thereby increasing job satisfaction and decreasing staff turnover. When organisations extend comprehensive support, it often results in employees investing more effort in self-improvement, ultimately benefiting the organisation through heightened productivity and operational effectiveness (Jehanzeb, 2020).

Research has consistently linked strong institutional support to enhanced output, elevated motivation levels, and greater employee involvement. For organisations aiming to stay forward-thinking and competitive, it is essential to prioritise employee advancement. This includes creating pathways for career progression, offering incentives and benefits, and facilitating access to academic and

professional growth through conferences, workshops, and other knowledge-enhancing platforms (Farooqi et al., 2019). Through such strategic investments in human capital, organisations can cultivate a proficient, committed workforce that contributes to sustainable success and innovation.

Organisational support encompasses various aspects, including employees' recognition, training, job retention, fairness in rewards and promotion, and favourable working conditions (Farooqi et al., 2019). These factors collectively emphasize that voluntarily caring for teachers is a significant indicator of organisational support. The primary factors contributing to organisational support are fairness, supervisor support, organisational rewards, and working conditions (Farooqi et al., 2019). A substantial body of research has explored how institutional support correlates with employee competence, offering valuable insights. For example, a study by Chen et al. (2019) focused on employees in China's manufacturing industry and assessed how organisational backing affected their job performance. The findings indicated that enhanced support from the organisation had a positive impact on the evolving performance of frontline workers, implying that such support played a key role in strengthening their skills and competencies. In a similar vein, Falola et al. (2020) examined the role of institutional support mechanisms in boosting the effectiveness of academic staff in selected Nigerian public universities. Their results showed that faculty members who received institutional support demonstrated higher job performance, highlighting the critical link between supportive practices and the development of employee capabilities, which in turn led to improved workplace outcomes.

Jehanzeb (2020) investigated how employees in various bank branches across Pakistan's major cities perceive organisational support in relation to their development. The study found a strong association between perceived organisational support and employee development, which includes the enhancement of competence. Similarly, Sitindaon et al. (2021) assessed the impact of organisational and managerial support on employee competence within Indonesia's marketing industry. Their findings confirmed that organisational support significantly influenced the competence of employees. In a related study, Yang and Zhou (2022) focused on employees working in high-tech sectors in China to explore how perceived organisational support affects creativity in a digital environment. The results showed that such support positively influenced both the creative abilities and innovative confidence of scientific and technological staff. This implies that perceived organisational support plays a vital role in strengthening the work-related competence of employees.

The studies above revealed that while a number of studies had related institutional support and employee competence, population and empirical gaps emerged. With the population gaps, none of the studies involved secondary school teachers. With the empirical gap, the studies revealed that studies were all skewed outside Uganda. This thus called this study to be carried out in the context of secondary schools in Uganda. To note is that in this study, institutional support was operationalized basing on Maan et al. (2020) to refer to employee induction, employee continuous development and rewards. For organisational learning, it refers the generating, retaining, and sharing of knowledge. Here under, the literature

on to employee induction, employee continuous development and rewards with competence of teachers in secondary schools follows.

2.2.1.1 Induction and Teacher Competence.

When individuals enter an organisation, they carry with them a unique blend of personal dispositions shaped by their cultural heritage, personality traits, preferences, motivational drives, and internal locus of control which may diverge significantly from the prevailing ethos of the organisation. In other words, new employees introduce diverse beliefs, value systems, and behavioural tendencies that might not immediately align with the company's established identity. This divergence underscores the importance of achieving alignment or congruence between the employee's worldview and the organisation's culture, norms, and values. Facilitating this alignment is the fundamental purpose of employee induction (Dapper & Ezenwuba, 2019).

Induction is not merely a procedural formality; it is a dynamic and continuous process through which newcomers acclimate to the social and operational fabric of the organisation. It enables them to grasp unspoken expectations, behavioural codes, and communication styles, thus easing their integration into the collective organisational rhythm. As described by Coldwell et al. (2019), induction is multifaceted, it extends beyond initial orientation to include cultural immersion, whereby employees internalise the mission, vision, and core values that shape organisational identity. This stage allows new hires to contextualise their roles within the broader strategic framework of the organisation and understand how their contributions advance collective objectives.

Gregory et al. (2020) frame induction as a transformative learning process—one that facilitates the evolution of individuals from peripheral observers to engaged, participatory insiders. It supports their adaptation to new roles, clarifies expectations, and strengthens their connection to the organisational community. Liao et al. (2022) further emphasise that a well-designed induction framework equips employees with essential knowledge, familiarises them with institutional policies, and develops role-specific competencies needed for optimal performance. Ultimately, a thoughtfully executed induction process enhances newcomer engagement, reduces adjustment friction, and cultivates a sense of belonging. By investing in a structured and supportive onboarding experience, organisations can accelerate employee integration, boost morale, and foster long-term commitment to collective success.

Employee induction serves as a foundational mechanism through which newcomers acquire essential organisational knowledge, adapt to unfamiliar responsibilities, and become attuned to the cultural landscape of their new workplace, ultimately supporting their effective integration as contributing members of the organisation (Haueter et al., 2003). This introductory phase enables employees to internalise the organisation's overarching mission, vision, and core values (Kennedy & Widener, 2019), allowing them to harmonise their personal ambitions and conduct with the strategic aims of the organisation. For professionals entering specialised roles such as new teachers, induction holds particular significance, as it helps ease the transitional challenges associated with stepping into a new environment while also offering avenues for professional enrichment and

continuous learning (Mintz, 2019). A well-structured induction framework assists newcomers in decoding the organisation's cultural nuances, navigating formal policies and operational procedures, and mitigating potential barriers to effective learning and adjustment. Beyond its immediate impact, effective induction yields enduring benefits. It strengthens the alignment between individuals and their job roles often referred to as person-job fit—and significantly contributes to the development of employee competence over time (Haueter et al., 2003). In essence, a thoughtfully implemented induction process not only enhances initial acclimatisation but also lays the groundwork for sustained growth, engagement, and performance within the organisation

When organisations implement a well-designed and supportive induction programme, they create an environment where new employees can acclimate swiftly, feel valued and inspired, and begin contributing meaningfully to their teams. Such strategic onboarding fosters higher job satisfaction, minimises early-stage attrition, and contributes positively to overall organisational performance. Induction represents a pivotal stage in an employee's professional journey, easing the transition into a new role and enabling individuals to build the confidence and become competent in fulfilling their responsibilities. Investing in comprehensive induction processes yields enduring advantages, such as enhanced staff retention, improved efficiency, and stronger institutional outcomes (Haueter et al., 2003). To fully capitalise on these benefits, it is essential for organisations to treat induction as a strategic imperative, one that nurtures inclusion, supports early career development, and fosters long-term engagement. In the educational sector,

induction for teachers has evolved into a vital professional development practice. It plays a key role in attracting, empowering, and retaining novice educators, equipping them with the tools, mentorship, and support needed to flourish in their teaching careers and contribute to educational excellence.. This comprehensive process involves providing new teachers with a manageable workload, introducing them to the school culture and policies, implementing personalized professional development plans, and offering classroom support through feedback, coaching, and collaborative lesson planning with experienced mentors (van der Pers & Helms-Lorenz, 2021).

According to Haueter et al. (2003), teacher induction encompasses three essential components: group, organisation, and task induction. Group induction focuses on helping new teachers acquire knowledge about their colleagues and the school community, establishing clear expectations and priorities, and building social networks within the organisation. This aspect of induction is crucial, as it facilitates individual career success and creates social capital, which provides access to valuable resources such as information, support, and guidance (Choi, 2014). Group induction enables newcomers to establish communication networks, reducing uncertainty and facilitating learning about organisational goals and norms. By fostering quality relationships and social capital, group induction sets the stage for a supportive and collaborative work environment, essential for teacher success and retention. By investing in comprehensive teacher induction programs, schools can promote teacher development, improve student outcomes, and enhance overall educational quality (Van der Pers & Helms-Lorenz, 2021).

Group induction fosters a sense of interconnectedness among employees, leading to enhanced employer-employee relations and a harmonious work atmosphere (Arimie, 2019). This, in turn, promotes effective communication, collaboration, and a culture of mutual respect, where employees recognize and value each other's contributions, leading to increased motivation and morale. By fostering positive relationships between colleagues, group induction sets the stage for the development of positive expectations and attitudes within the group (Bulińska-Stangrecka & Bagieńska, 2021). Moreover, group induction facilitates knowledge transfer and skills development, as newcomers receive guidance and training from experienced mentors and coaches. This supportive environment enables new employees to quickly adjust to the organisation's culture and norms, feel integrated into the team, and become productive members of the workforce. By investing in group induction, organisations can build a cohesive and high-performing team, enhance employee engagement, and drive business success. By implementing group induction programmes, organisations can cultivate a supportive and collaborative workplace atmosphere that fosters team cohesion, encourages mutual learning, and facilitates the personal and professional growth of employees, ultimately contributing to the development of competence (Arimie, 2019).

Adeogun et al. (2018) investigated the group induction approach, specifically focusing on coaching and mentoring practices among staff at the University of Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. Their findings revealed that group-based induction significantly enhanced the effectiveness of newcomers and contributed to the development of learning capabilities among academic personnel. Notably, the

integration of mentors and coaches within the induction process was found to strengthen employees' competence. Organisational induction serves as a strategic tool that equips new employees with the foundational knowledge, practical skills, and cultural literacy essential for succeeding in their roles and becoming impactful members of the institution (Bauer, 2018). This structured onboarding journey enables entrants to internalise the organisation's core values, behavioural standards, and expectations, while also cultivating the competencies necessary for high performance (Leidner et al., 2020).

Moreover, as highlighted by Edeh and Dan-Jumbo (2019), the induction experience deepens employees' understanding of the organisation's mission, vision, and guiding philosophy, thereby facilitating smoother integration into teams and helping individuals realise their full potential. In today's dynamic and rapidly evolving professional landscape, effective induction practices are indispensable, they not only boost employee engagement, retention, and output but also serve as a catalyst for broader organisational success (Billot & King, 2017). By prioritizing organisational induction, companies can ensure a smooth transition for new employees, promote a positive work culture, and drive business growth.

Organisational induction represents a vital process through which individuals develop a comprehensive grasp of the organisation's goals, cultural expectations, and duties, facilitating their transition into essential contributors within the workplace (Adil et al., 2021). This onboarding phase equips new employees with the critical knowledge, mindset, and behaviours needed to excel in their positions, while also helping them shape their social identity and sense of

belonging within the organisation (Liao et al., 2022). This process facilitates a swift assimilation into the organisation, enabling new employees to leverage organisational resources, build connections with team members, and enhance their skills, ultimately fostering an environment conducive to innovation (Bauer, 2018). Effective organisational induction strategies are vital, as they significantly impact newcomer adjustment and subsequent workforce outcomes (Hall & Paul, 2020).

The organisational induction process is vital for three key reasons. Firstly, the transition into a new organisation or role can be stressful, anxiety-provoking, and uncertain, and induction helps alleviate this by providing essential information about the role, responsibilities, colleagues, and organisation, enabling new employees to feel more comfortable and integrated (Klein et al, 2015; Sollova, 2019). Secondly, induction facilitates new employees' understanding of their suitability for their role by enabling them to receive feedback from managers, supervisors, mentors, subordinates, and colleagues, helping them determine their fit and potential for growth (Bauer, 2018). Lastly, the organisation's future success relies heavily on the performance of its employees, and investing in effective induction processes is crucial for maximizing the return on investment in selection and recruitment (Sollova, 2019).

With respect to task induction, it involves acquiring a thorough understanding of job responsibilities and tasks, which is essential for new employees to become valuable assets to the organisation (Haueter et al, 2003). This process, also known as task socialization, sets the stage for successful socialization outcomes (Mchete & Shayo, 2020). With respect to effective onboarding, task induction plays

a crucial role in equipping new employees with the necessary knowledge and skills to perform their tasks successfully, including understanding their responsibilities, prioritizing tasks, and interacting with colleagues (Dapper & Ezenwuba, 2019). With respect to organisational efficiency, task induction is essential for new, transferred, re-categorised, and promoted employees to settle quickly into their new roles (Noe et al., 2017). With respect to best practices, organisations should develop comprehensive formal task induction programs for all new employees, accompanied by a training policy with clear procedures for employee training that is mandatory and enforced across all departments (Mugo & Guyo, 2018).

A number of scholars have related induction and competence of employees. For example, in their study, Aarts et al. (2020) explored the concerns of beginning teachers in secondary education and the support provided using Dutch teachers in their first and second year of employment. The study revealed that support received during induction enhanced their competence by enabling them to overcome challenges including worries about conducting of lessons and transiting to their professional teacher role. On his part, Baker (2018) examined the relationship between socialization and knowledge amongst various levels that were subordinates and managers in overall organisation, non-managers and first level managers, and first level managers and second level manager in a company in the USA. The study indicated that socialisation of new employees with their senior colleagues lead to knowledge sharing enhancing the competences of newcomers.Dapper and Ezenwuba (2019) investigated the socialization/ induction on employees work behaviour in selected Microfinance Banks in Portharcourt, Nigeria. The study used

staff members of micro-finance banks. The findings indicated that induction including task induction was a critical factor that facilitates positive work behaviour of employees. Such positive work behaviour included employee competence.

In their study, Edeh and Dan-jumbo (2019) examined the link between organisational socialisation/induction and employee spontaneous behaviour in the Nigerian airlines sector. The results revealed a substantial correlation between organisation induction and employee spontaneous behaviour, leading to enhanced employee proficiency (meaning that employees became more skilled and effective in their roles). Eisenschmidt and Poom-Valickis (2020) conducted a review of Estonia's 15-year induction experience, highlighting the induction year as a pivotal opportunity for augmenting professional growth and workplace learning in schools, thereby bolstering teachers' expertise (emphasizing the importance of the induction year in helping teachers develop their skills and knowledge). Similarly, Frederiksen (2020) analysed support for newly qualified teachers through teacher induction programs and found that induction fosters teachers' skill development, mitigates burnout (reduces stress and exhaustion), fortifies resilience (helps teachers cope with challenges), and facilitates on-going professional development and job stability (enables teachers to continue growing and thriving in their careers).

In their empirical study, Hagos et al. (2019) conducted a groundbreaking study in Ethiopia, exploring the relationship between induction programs and the formation of novice teachers' professional identity. Their research, which involved primary school teachers from various regions, revealed that comprehensive induction processes significantly enhance teachers' competence and professional

development. In a separate review, Jeske and Olson (2022) synthesized recent literature on recruitment and selection processes, uncovering novel insights and opportunities for both practitioners and new hires. Their analysis showed that effective organisational induction offers new employees a high degree of autonomy, tailoring, and personalization, enabling them to successfully complete tasks and achieve crucial organisational objectives while minimizing stress. By leveraging induction programs, organisations can empower new employees to showcase their unique strengths and optimize their work performance.

In an empirical study, Köybasi and Ugurlu (2019) sought reveal teacher candidates' experiences from the beginning of their service until being a teacher using teachers Suşehri and Akıncılar districts of Sivas province in Turkey in the academic year 2014-2015. The study revealed that during the first months teacher candidates had the most intense emotional responses towards the teaching profession such as excitement, warmly welcome and nervousness. Induction improved teachers' competence in terms of teaching methods by learning from their more experienced colleagues. In their study, Lan et al. (2022) studied group induction in a three-month knowledge sharing program in a five-star hotel chain in Hong Kong. The results revealed that knowledge sharing during group induction led to job clarity. This means that group induction enhanced competences of employees which lead to job clarity. Further, Liao et al. (2022) analysed the influence of new employees' organisational socialization on team innovation using new employees and leaders in major Chinese innovation companies. The findings revealed that

organisational induction directly promotes team innovation. This was because of employees' competence enhancement.

In his research on induction and the self-efficacy of new teachers, Mintz (2019) investigated how induction influences the self-efficacy of beginning teachers and found that it significantly boosted both their confidence and competence, with these improvements persisting throughout their early careers. In a study conducted in Zimbabwe, Mukomana (2021) examined the effect of teacher salaries on the quality of education in secondary schools, demonstrating a strong connection between remuneration and key teaching qualities, including pedagogical competence. Njegovan and Kostić (2014) offered a thorough review emphasizing the vital role of organisational socialisation in aiding employees' social adjustment and competence development. Their work stressed that effective induction is fundamental to employee achievement, fostering constructive interactions among colleagues and positively affecting productivity, job performance, and professional attitudes. The depth of social integration within the workplace emerged as a critical factor influenced substantially by induction programmes.

Further, Olsen et al. (2020) reviewed mentoring and induction practices in the Nordic region, providing valuable perspectives on how these initiatives contribute to employee growth and overall organisational success. Their analysis revealed that induction programs for newly trained teachers improved teachers' competences by equipping them with tacit knowledge from instruction by their more experienced colleagues and imitating them. Further, Onyemaechi and Ikpeazu (2019) examined the effect of the group induction practice of mentoring new

lecturers of Abia State University Uturu, Nigeria. The study's outcomes divulged a profound and statistically significant nexus between mentor-led group initiation and knowledge transmission, culminating in the efficacious development of novice employees' proficiency. In essence, when mentors spearhead a collective induction process, it catalyses the dissemination of expertise and skills, empowering new recruits to acquire the requisite aptitudes and excel in their roles.

In their study, Raina et al. (2016) explored the effects of organisational induction on employees' workplace attitudes across diverse sectors in India, including banking, information technology, automotive, consulting, and financial services. Their findings revealed that induction practices were relatively well-integrated within the Indian corporate landscape. Nonetheless, statistical analysis indicated only a tenuous link between induction and employee competence, particularly in the realm of organisational identification. In a thorough literature synthesis, Ratković-Njegovan and Kostić (2014) highlighted the pivotal function of organisational socialisation as a mechanism through which employees assimilate crucial knowledge that bolsters their social integration and cultivates social competence, both vital for organisational success. Their review underscored that induction, encompassing task-specific orientation, empowers employees to navigate complex social dynamics effectively. This process fosters professional competence, sharpens role clarity, enhances interpersonal communication, deepens self-awareness and empathy, encourages conformity to organisational norms, and supports emotional self-regulation.

Symeonidis et al. (2023) conducted an empirical investigation in Tyrol, Austria, examining newly qualified teachers' perceptions of the support received and challenges encountered during induction. The study revealed that induction significantly fortified novice teachers' competences in instructional delivery and classroom management. Collectively, these studies demonstrate substantial scholarly engagement with the nexus between induction and teacher competence. However, notable contextual and methodological lacunae remain. Contextually, the bulk of research such as studies by Aarts et al. (2020), Köybasi and Ugurlu (2019), and Symeonidis et al. (2023) was situated within Western settings, with only sparse attention to African contexts, exemplified by Hagos et al.'s (2019) research in Ethiopia. This indicates a conspicuous gap regarding the unique socio-cultural and educational milieu of Uganda. Methodologically, prominent scholars like Eisenschmidt and Poom-Valickis (2020), Frederiksen (2020), and Olsen et al. (2020) have primarily conducted literature reviews, underscoring the imperative for more empirical investigations. These identified contextual and empirical deficiencies highlighted the critical need for this study within the Ugandan setting, rigorously examining the interplay between teacher induction and competence development specific to this locale.

2.2.1.2 Continuous Professional Development and Teachers Competence.

Continuous professional development (CPD) constitutes an enduring and dynamic journey of acquiring knowledge, refining skills, and receiving ongoing support, which may unfold in formal external settings or organically within the workplace itself (Vansteelandt et al., 2020). This lifelong learning process encompasses a wide

array of intentionally crafted educational programmes and experiential opportunities designed not only to supplement and refresh existing professional expertise but also to deepen and broaden individuals' competence, ensuring their capabilities remain relevant and robust amid evolving industry demands (Peleman et al., 2018). By engaging in CPD, professionals actively sustain and elevate their proficiency, adapt to emerging challenges, and contribute meaningfully to their fields over the course of their careers. Since learning and teaching always take place in schools, those settings should also be the sites of CPD activities, with a particular emphasis on those that take place in classrooms (Corral-Granados, 2022). Teacher continuous professional development is implemented with the purpose of enhancing both the pedagogical skills and overall professional competence of educators. This ongoing development process is tailored to address the specific needs of teachers, aiming to help them meet established professional competency benchmarks and further elevate their competence beyond these standards (Prihidayanti et al., 2019). By systematically assessing teachers' developmental requirements, CPD initiatives foster continual growth and refinement in teaching practice, empowering educators to excel and adapt in their profession.

In their study, Bruns et al. (2017) explored how competence-driven continuous professional development influences early childhood educators within Berlin's preschool institutions. Their study revealed that engaging in sustained professional learning substantially enhanced teachers' pedagogical content expertise. Continuous professional development (CPD) refers to a perpetual sequence of educational, training, and supportive activities conducted either in

external contexts or directly within the workplace (Vansteelandt et al., 2020). This process includes carefully curated learning programmes designed to augment, refresh, and solidify an individual's professional knowledge and competence (Peleman et al., 2018). Given that teaching and learning predominantly unfold within school environments, these locations should function as central hubs for CPD efforts, with special attention to initiatives embedded within classroom practice (Corral-Granados, 2022). The purpose of teacher continuous professional development is to elevate both instructional abilities and broader professional competence. Accordingly, CPD for educators is implemented following thorough evaluations of their developmental needs, aiming to help them fulfill and exceed predefined professional competency benchmarks (Prihidayanti et al., 2019). In their study, Bruns et al. (2017) examined the effects of competence-oriented continuous professional development of early childhood using pre-schools in Berlin. The results showed that continuous professional development affected teachers' pedagogical content knowledge.

In their study, Cirocki and Farrell (2019) showed that although teachers had ample opportunity to develop professionally through CPD, not all of them did so. Additionally, their study showed that some CPD activities had a greater impact than others and emphasized how CPD gave teachers the necessary underpinnings to mediate their teaching activities, respond to their students' needs, and develop their teaching competencies appropriately. To be appealing and valued, CPD must be of a high calibre. Ghazvini et al. (2014) looked into how a faculty development workshop affected faculty educational research skills and found that the session had

a favorable effect on teaching competences. Since the workshops appeared to enhance the research output of medical faculty, it was suggested that additional studies be undertaken to evaluate the extent to which institutional support is utilized. This research sought to bridge that gap by investigating institutional support as a strategy to improve teacher competence. In their study, Gore et al. (2017) evaluated the effects of professional development on the teaching effectiveness of primary and secondary school teachers in public schools in New South Wales (NSW), Australia. The results demonstrated that professional development exerted a meaningful and positive influence on teaching quality.

In their study exploring the influence of CPD in promoting quality teaching leading to enhanced student achievement in south African schools, Hasha and Wadesango (2020) investigated the impact of continuous professional development (CPD) on enhancing instructional quality and student success. Their findings underscored CPD as an essential factor in advancing educators' professional capabilities and directly contributing to improved student outcomes. Nevertheless, their research employed a qualitative design with a small sample size comprising five principals and ten teachers. In contrast, this study intends to utilize a mixed-methods approach, expanding the participant pool to include not only principals and head teachers but also deputy head teachers, department heads, and classroom instructors. In a related study, Islam and Ahmed (2019) explored the connection between training transfer and perceived organizational support (POS), identifying job satisfaction as a mediating variable. They concluded that elevated POS among teachers enhanced their self-confidence, which subsequently improved their

teaching efficacy. This highlights the potential for institutional backing to serve as a catalyst for bolstering teacher competence, benefiting both educators and their institutions.

Similarly, Jennings et al. (2017) assessed the influence of an ongoing professional development programme on the social-emotional competence of urban elementary teachers and the quality of classroom engagement in a socioeconomically disadvantaged area of New York City. Their results revealed that continuous CPD significantly strengthened teachers' social and emotional skills, leading to more positive classroom interactions. Kasule et al. (2016) conducted a study within Ugandan universities to identify CPD activities deemed critical for enhancing the performance of academic staff. Their research revealed infrequent participation in CPD opportunities such as conferences, seminars, and professional networks, despite their recognized importance in cultivating teaching competence. Given that their study was situated in a higher education context, there is a compelling need to examine CPD dynamics within secondary school environments, which differ considerably from university settings.

Kim et al. (2019) underscored the imperative to contextualize assessments of the social dynamics within teaching practices, particularly as the cultivation of 21st-century competencies garners growing emphasis as a transformative strategy for elevating educators' instructional caliber and expertise. Their investigation revealed a persistent gap in how educators are evaluated and professional growth is fostered, calling for a radical reimagining of teacher appraisal and development frameworks to forge competencies aligned with the demands of modern learners

prepared for the complexities of the 21st century. In parallel, Mukan et al. (2019) examined the continuum of teacher professional evolution in Australia, portraying it as an ongoing voyage of deepening intellectual mastery, skill refinement, and ethical pedagogical advancement essential to holistic teacher effectiveness. Nevertheless, the comparative nature of their study, juxtaposing Australia with Ukraine both economically advanced nations and its concentration in metropolitan areas, may limit the applicability of findings to more diverse or rural contexts. Still, this work enriched the existing body of knowledge on CPD within public education systems by offering nuanced insights.

Peleman et al. (2018) conducted a sweeping review across European Union member states, analyzing the efficacy of protracted, embedded professional learning interventions targeting early childhood educators. Their findings illuminated that sustained, practice-integrated development activities such as targeted pedagogical mentoring and collaborative reflective practice groups yielded significant gains irrespective of whether the national systems were well-resourced with rigorous qualification demands or underfunded with minimal certification prerequisites. Focusing on Indonesian elementary education, Prihidayanti et al. (2019) explored the ramifications of digitally delivered continuous professional development on teachers' pedagogical and professional competencies in Kendal Regency. Their data demonstrated an appreciable uplift in pedagogical skills, although professional competence remained unaffected, suggesting differentiated impacts across competency domains. In a complementary vein, Rich et al. (2021) evaluated the impact of sustained professional learning on the instructional efficacy of elementary

school teachers in the United States. Their research substantiated that ongoing CPD initiatives markedly bolstered teacher competence by enhancing self-efficacy and classroom instructional performance.

Despite the considerable strides made by researchers in exploring the nexus between continuous professional development (CPD) and teacher competence, several critical gaps remain evident. A notable contextual void exists, as the bulk of these investigations have overlooked the African educational landscape, resulting in a dearth of localized insights into CPD practices within this region. From a knowledge perspective, while most studies affirm a positive correlation between ongoing professional growth and teachers' competence, Prihidayanti et al. (2019) present a clear finding highlighting that CPD enhanced pedagogical competence but fell short of influencing professional competence, thereby signaling a compelling need for more granular inquiry into this dynamic interplay. Furthermore, a demographic or population-based gap is apparent; whereas prior research such as Vansteelandt et al. (2020) centered on elementary school settings over a year-long CPD initiative, the current study pivots to secondary schools, underscoring the distinct developmental contexts and challenges faced there. These overlapping contextual, conceptual, and demographic lacunae underscore the urgency and relevance of the present investigation, aimed at deepening understanding of how continuous professional development shapes teacher competence within a secondary school framework.

2.2.1.3 Rewards and Teacher Competence.

Rewards are provisions to employees for doing certain tasks beneficial to an organisation. Rewards encompass any form of compensation or incentives that an organisation bestows upon its employees in recognition of their contributions and efforts (Victor & Hoole, 2017). Such rewards are dispensed not only to acknowledge outstanding performance but also to prevent the development of a hostile or unsatisfactory work atmosphere. They play a pivotal role in organisational strategy, serving as essential tools to attract skilled personnel and bolster employee retention (Hussain et al., 2019). Rewards can be classified into two broad categories: monetary and non-monetary. Monetary rewards involve financial remuneration, including base salaries, performance-based pay, and bonuses. Non-monetary rewards consist of intangible benefits such as empowerment, opportunities for competency enhancement, and formal recognition (Mustafa & Ali, 2019).

The attributes of effective rewards include being positively perceived by employees, established prior to employment commencement, tailored to individual roles and workers, fixed to ensure stability, guaranteed by the organisation to foster trust through consistent delivery, and issued promptly following the completion of work (Ngwa et al., 2019). In an experimental study, De Ree et al. (2018) investigated the outcomes of an unconditional salary raise, doubling teachers' base pay, which significantly improved their satisfaction with income, decreased secondary job engagements, and alleviated financial stress, all contributing to improved job competence. Similarly, Gümüs (2022), through a comprehensive review, emphasized that adequate remuneration is crucial for developing the competencies

needed by twenty-first-century educators. Idris et al. (2017) empirically demonstrated that both financial and non-financial compensation positively affect the professionalism and competence of certified lecturers at private universities in Indonesia.

In Zimbabwe, Mukomana (2021) found that teacher remuneration is intricately linked to the delivery of quality education in secondary schools, notabl influencing pedagogical competence. Mustafa and Ali (2019) examined how different reward types affect autonomous motivation among employees in Pakistan's public sector banks, revealing that monetary incentives significantly enhance professional competence by boosting self-driven motivation. Obulejo (2019) studied the relationship between salaries and work efficiency among science teachers in Uganda's Adjumani district, finding a strong positive correlation between rewards and teacher performance. Although this study focused on science educators and head teachers, its conclusions were largely relevant to science teachers. The current research, however, seeks to understand how rewards impact the overall competence of teachers in government secondary schools.

Okuna et al. (2020) explored the effect of non-financial rewards on the pedagogical and professional competence of primary school teachers in Uganda's Kole District. Their findings indicated that personal development was the primary motivating factor. Nevertheless, their research was confined to non-monetary incentives in a primary school context, leaving out the influence of financial rewards and their effect on teaching efficacy. Orji and Abolarin (2012), through a critical review, identified a strong positive association between enhanced teacher welfare

packages and improvements in teacher competence and classroom instruction quality. Collectively, the literature highlights considerable academic interest in the interplay between rewards and teacher competence. However, there exists a noticeable void concerning studies conducted within the Ugandan environment. This gap underscores the necessity of the present study to explore the nexus between rewards and teacher competence specifically within Uganda's public secondary education system.

2.2.2 Institutional Support and Organisational Learning of Teachers.

Organisational learning represents a continuous, dynamic process that propels ongoing enhancement and fosters innovation, equipping organisations to maintain a competitive edge in today's rapidly evolving market (Tan & Olaore, 2020). This mechanism is crucial for enterprises aiming to remain agile and resilient in a fast-paced business landscape. It transcends individual knowledge acquisition by integrating the collective expertise and insights of employees and teams, cultivating a shared and collaborative comprehension of organisational aims and strategic objectives. A vital component of organisational learning is error correction, where companies systematically identify and address gaps impacting customer satisfaction. This involves not only pinpointing flaws but also implementing creative solutions, while encouraging organisational-wide participation, which instills a culture of accountability and mutual responsibility. When institutionalized as an ongoing practice, this nurtures an environment of continuous learning, refinement, and innovation (Inthavong et al., 2023), enabling organisations to adeptly navigate shifting conditions and outperform competitors.

Robust organisational learning harnesses the collective wisdom and experiences within the enterprise, empowering it to adapt fluidly to external changes such as evolving market demands, consumer preferences, or technological breakthroughs (Pandita et al., 2023). By capitalizing on these learning processes, organisations can transform obstacles into strategic advantages, driving sustainable development and long-term success. Organisational learning strategies facilitate knowledge transfer from experienced and skilled employees to less experienced ones, ensuring the dissemination of essential skills and knowledge required to run organisational processes effectively (Odor & Samuel, 2018). This process enables the organisation to build a robust knowledge base, which evolves through past experiences and learning. A learning organisation is an outcome of organisational learning, characterised by a complex and multidimensional approach that fosters continuous growth and transformation (Odor & Samuel, 2018). In a learning organisation, members are encouraged to learn and develop, and the organisation continuously adapts to remain competitive (Odor, 2018). Organisational learning focuses on creating, retaining, and sharing knowledge across various levels, including individual employees, groups, leadership, and even inter-organisational learning through knowledge co-creation and exchange with other organisations in the same sector (Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021). This comprehensive approach enables organisations to leverage collective knowledge, drive innovation, and stay ahead in a dynamic business environment.

Organisational learning is a vital mechanism that enables organisations to cope with uncertainty and adapt to changing environments, ultimately contributing

to organisational sustainability (Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021). Cultivating a learning-oriented culture empowers organisations to strengthen their internal capacities, gain a strategic edge over competitors, and elevate overall performance. In the face of today's rapidly shifting and unpredictable business environment, forward-thinking organisations acknowledge that continuous learning and innovation are not just beneficial, they are critical competencies for long-term survival and success (Tamayo-Torres et al., 2016). However, there is a need for more focused research on this topic. Organisational learning occurs within a complex context that encompasses both internal and external environments. The internal environment includes variables within management control, such as organisational structures, people, and processes. In contrast, the external environment comprises variables outside management control, including competitors, clients, political, economic, and legal systems that shape the business operating environment (Odor & Samuel, 2018). The environmental context can vary significantly in terms of volatility, uncertainty, interconnectedness, and munificence, which in turn affects the experiences and knowledge acquired by the organisation. By understanding these factors, organisations can better navigate their environment and leverage learning to drive success.

There are several studies that have related institutional support and organisational learning. For example, Gil and Mataveli (2016) examined how reward-based incentives for training influenced organisational learning among employees in Spain's wine industry. Their analysis highlighted that reward systems, as a structural organisational element, held a strong and meaningful correlation with

the enhancement of learning across the organisation. In a related study, Khan and Khan (2019) evaluated the role of institutional support manifested through transformational leadership on learning dynamics within municipal committees in Pakistan. Their findings revealed that such leadership support significantly fostered organisational learning and facilitated the active exchange of knowledge among personnel. Consistently, both organisational learning and knowledge-sharing practices were shown to be pivotal drivers of employee innovation and creative contribution in the workplace. Also in a review, Law and Cao (2020) investigated factors of organisational learning. The review revealed that individual and organisational factors facilitated organisational learning. Organisational factors included supportive organisational environment. Therefore, supportive organisational environment influenced organisational learning.

Chiva-Gómez (2004), in a study focusing on a diverse range of firms within Spain's ceramic tile industry, aimed to identify the key enablers that underpin and promote effective organisational learning processes. The findings indicated that formal structures such as organised training systems influenced organisational learning. Lin and Sanders (2017) examined the relationship between institutional support in terms of HRM practises and organisational learning in a systematic analysis. The study revealed that institutional support including recruitment practices, performance pay, job rotation and training predicted organisational learning. Oh and Han (2020) examined how organisational learning functions as a mediating mechanism between institutional support—specifically organisational culture—and employee performance within Korean corporate settings. Their

investigation confirmed that a supportive organisational culture significantly influenced the development and reinforcement of organisational learning capacities. Similarly, Real et al. (2014), in their study involving firms in Spain, observed that internal organisational dynamics, including structured training initiatives, served as catalysts for fostering organisational learning.

In a scholarly review, Shilviani and Riyanto (2022) investigated the effects of professional training and employee competence on overall workplace performance. Their findings demonstrated that organisational learning, particularly in the form of targeted training interventions, enhanced employee cognitive and practical capabilities in alignment with both individual needs and institutional goals. Such programmes were shown to significantly boost employee competence, which in turn contributed to elevated job performance at the individual level. Likewise, Soomro et al. (2021) conducted a qualitative exploration involving CEOs from diverse companies across Asia to understand the role of strategic enablers in advancing organisational learning. Their study highlighted that elements such as supportive leadership and an enabling organisational ecosystem had a marked and positive influence on organisational learning trajectories. In another review, Srirahayu et al. (2022) systematically analysed factors influencing organisational learning within library institutions and identified that intrinsic forms of institutional supportlike non-financial incentives and professional recognition served as crucial antecedents of effective learning within organisations.

Tsui et al. (2017) sought to establish how institutional support in terms of mentorship, consultation and coaching affected organisational learning in Chinese

organisations. Their analysis indicated that institutional support in terms of mentorship, consultation and coaching predicted organisational learning. While literature above reveals that institutional support predict organisational learning, none captured the context schools. Still, none of the studies was done in the context of developing countries of Africa. Further, methodological gaps emerged as a number of the scholars (Lyman et al., 2018; Lin & Sanders, 2017) carried out reviews. This contextual and methodological gaps called for this empirical study in Ugandan schools.

2.2.3 Organisational Learning and Teachers Competence.

Organisational learning is a strategic lever that allows companies to nurture a culture of ongoing improvement, transformation, and competitive resilience. By putting learning at the forefront, firms can build the capabilities needed to thrive amid rapid shifts in today's marketplace. This involves cultivating an environment that bolsters staff growth, refines their competencies, and fosters acquisition of fresh skills. Organisational learning triggers shifts in mental paradigms, enabling people to reason more critically, appreciate interdependencies, unify around a shared vision, and harness technological and economic innovations (Cik et al., 2021). A thriving learning organisation heightens employees' organisational competence, spanning emotional, social, and cognitive intelligence fueling behaviours that drive achievement. To actualise this, organisations may deploy a variety of learning methods such as formal training, open learning hubs, e-learning platforms, job rotation, multidisciplinary team work, and structured career development tools, which when synergized propel growth and learning (Tamayo-Torres et al., 2016).

Through embracing organisational learning, enterprises create agile, inventive, and resilient cultures that sustain long-term competitiveness.

In a study by Cik et al. (2021), the positive effects of a learning organisation and training on employee competence were examined among banking staff in South Jakarta, Indonesia. Their results confirmed a significant influence of learning organisation practices on competence. Similarly, Ermawati and Syahlan (2021) investigated the impact of training interventions among employees in Indonesia, finding that training significantly boosted employee competencies. Grosemans et al. (2020) also explored how personal attributes develop through workplace learning in final-year higher education students at a Belgian university. The results revealed that work-related learning influenced employees' performance ability of self-efficacy which implied employee competence. In a comprehensive review, Kyndt and Baert (2013) investigated how learning at work is assessed and probed the link between employees' willingness to learn and their actual participation in workplace learning. Their findings showed that organisational learning strengthens employee self-efficacy and supports career development through skill enhancement—ultimately heightening overall employee competence.

In a study of small and medium-sized Russian enterprises, Lapteva et al. (2019) discovered that self-directed learning activities strongly correlate with professional skill growth, illustrating that organisational learning efforts are instrumental in cultivating competence among employees. Masra et al. (2020) explored the effect of organisational learning and self-efficacy on lecturers' effectiveness at an Indonesian university. They showed that organisational learning

has a direct, affirmative relationship with self-efficacy which is a core dimension of teacher competence, implying that fostering a learning climate boosts both confidence and capability among lecturers.

Similarly, Oh and Han (2020) examined the mediating role of organisational learning between organisational culture and employee performance in Korean firms. Their results indicated that institutional culture influences organisational learning, which in turn elevates performance, implying high levels of competence among staff. Song et al. (2018) analyzed how a learning-organisation culture affects teacher self-efficacy in South Korea. They found that organisational learning appreciably enhances self-efficacy, considered akin to competence in this field.

In Nigeria, Tan and Olaore (2022) studied banking staff and found organisational learning greatly improves employee effectiveness, suggesting that such learning also boosts competence. Tamayo-Torres et al. (2016) conducted a detailed examination of how learning and innovation enable organisations to prosper under volatile conditions. They demonstrated that organisational learning significantly amplifies leadership competence, enabling decision-makers to navigate complexity with strategic intelligence. Vega-Gómez et al. (2020) delved into key drivers of skill development among academic professionals, identifying that targeted training investments and deliberate cultivation of knowledge, attitudes, and abilities are fundamental to unlocking competence and fostering growth.

Werlang and Rossetto (2019), studying the leisure sector in Brazil's Santa Catarina, found that organisational learning has a positive, direct impact on

institutional innovativeness and that innovation, in turn, heightens employee competence. Though the existing scholarship illustrated strong associations between organisational learning and teacher competence, many studies proxied "competence" through related constructs such as self-efficacy, performance, or effectiveness. This research dexamine teacher competence explicitly. In addition, while prior conceptualisations of organisational learning revolved around continuous learning, inquiry, dialogue, and team learning. Its connections to employee competence across different environments remained under-explored, particularly in school settings and developing regions like Uganda

2.2.3.1 Organisational Continuous Learning and Teacher Competences

Continuous learning represents an evolving and perpetual journey encompassing both formal instruction and informal experiential learning. It begins with autonomous, self-guided learning at the individual level, broadens through cooperative group knowledge sharing, and ultimately manifests as organisational-wide learning, each tier influencing and reinforcing the others (Chanani & Wibowo, 2019). This ongoing process emphasizes cultivating knowledge, abilities, and aptitudes, enabling individuals to remain agile and flourish amid the swiftly transforming economic and professional landscapes (Halmaghi & Todăriță, 2023). By adopting continuous learning, both individuals and organisations can counteract skill degradation and maintain a competitive advantage. Unlike conventional training methods that rely on passive reception of information, continuous learning motivates individuals to proactively steer their own growth, actively expanding their expertise and welcoming challenges as catalysts for development (da Fonseca et al.,

2019). Such an approach fosters a relentless pursuit of mastery that transcends mere competency, embedding a culture of ongoing refinement and creativity.

In workplaces grounded in continuous learning, employees recognize that knowledge is a critical driver of organisational success and individual career progression. Consequently, learning becomes an ingrained responsibility and an indispensable element of professional life, fostering an atmosphere where proactive skill acquisition is standard practice (da Fonseca et al., 2019). Organisations nurture this culture by providing the necessary infrastructure, tools, and opportunities for skill enhancement, while encouraging personnel to assume ownership of their educational journey and to actively seek new challenges. This environment equips all organisational members with the expertise required to excel in their roles (Halmaghi & Todăriță, 2023). Establishing a continuous learning culture yields multifaceted benefits, including stimulating innovation, boosting job satisfaction, and enhancing the organisation's adaptability in fast-evolving markets (Chanani & Wibowo, 2019). Such a culture enables organisations to consistently innovate, sustain competitiveness, and achieve enduring success.

For example, Achdiat et al. (2021) reviewed how an organisational learning culture facilitates the collection, exchange, interpretation, and distribution of knowledge, which subsequently fosters innovation. This culture enhances employee skill sets, empowering innovation in their functional roles. Bibi and Akram (2022) investigated public schools in Punjab, India, uncovering that a strong organisational learning culture positively influenced school effectiveness by strengthening teachers' professional skills. Similarly, da Fonseca et al. (2019) conducted

qualitative research identifying work settings that foster continuous learning, revealing that such environments contribute to competitive positioning, innovative capacities, and market relevance by elevating workforce competencies.

Furthermore, Halmaghi and Todăriță (2023) in their review emphasized that organisationspromoting and facilitating ongoing employee development successfully embed a learning culture that cultivates workforce agility and inventive thinking, thereby advancing employee competence. Purwanto et al. (2023) explored organisational learning culture's influence on innovation capacity within Indonesian elementary schools and found a significant positive impact, indicating that enhanced employee skills drive innovation. Sharma and Sharma (2016) reported that a culture of continuous learning significantly boosted training outcomes in India's insurance industry, which translated into improved employee competencies. Despite the rich insights offered by these studies, there remained a notable scarcity of empirical research examining continuous learning and its influence on teacher competence within the Ugandan context. This gap called for focused investigation, particularly among secondary school educators in Uganda, to illuminate how continuous learning cultures can foster professional growth in this unique setting.

2.2.3.2 Dialogue and Inquiry and Teacher Competences

Dialogue refers to a collaborative and interactive process of exploring ideas, perspectives, and experiences through open and respectful conversation. It involves active listening, shared understanding, mutual respect, open-mindedness, critical thinking and constructive feedback. Dialogue seeks to nurture profound awareness of one another's ideas, values, and beliefs, enabling the co-creation of mutual

understanding and collective meaning (Littlejohn, 2019). In contrast, inquiry denotes the deliberate quest for information or knowledge by means of questioning, examining, or probing. It involves a systematic and intentional process of questioning, investigating, and analysing to deepen understanding and knowledge. Inquiry is a critical and reflective approach to learning, problem-solving, and decision-making. It involves asking questions and seeking answers, exploring and investigating ideas and issues, analysing and interpreting data and information, drawing conclusions and making informed decisions, and reflecting on and learning from the process. Inquiry is an active and iterative process that fosters critical thinking, creativity, and collaboration. It inspires individuals to investigate, question, and learn from their experiences, leading to a deeper awareness of themselves and the world they inhabit. Through the practice of inquiry, people develop a mindset oriented toward growth, become more inquisitive and receptive, and improve their capacity for critical thinking and effective problem-solving (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2018). Thus, dialogue and inquiry involve the process of jointly exploring and comprehending a topic or issue through open, collaborative conversation, probing questions, and careful examination.

Dialogue and inquiry serve as fundamental pillars within a learning organisation, cultivating an environment of curiosity, feedback exchange, and experimentation (Jyothibabu et al., 2010). By promoting open communication and inquisitive exploration, organisations establish a secure and supportive atmosphere where employees feel empowered to ask questions, voice concerns, and offer feedback without fear of negative consequences. This openness helps diminish

employee resistance, uncertainty, and anxieties related to change, as individuals feel acknowledged and appreciated (Malik & Garg, 2017). Constructive communication and developmental feedback build trust and respect between employees and the organisation, resulting in a workforce that is more engaged and motivated. Additionally, mechanisms that encourage employee voice enhance their sense of competence and foster stronger relationships with supervisors, increasing adaptability to change and encouraging a sense of ownership over their responsibilities. By valuing and acknowledging employees' input, organisations nurture positive attitudes and stimulate active involvement in the learning journey (Jiang & Men, 2017). Through dialogue and inquiry, organisations can tap into the collective intelligence of their workforce, spur innovation, and secure long-term success, thereby becoming more agile and responsive to evolving market demands. Embracing a culture centered on inquiry and dialogue enables organisations to build a competitive edge, boost performance, and maintain leadership in a fast-evolving world.

High-quality performance feedback has a profound effect on employees' self-perceived competence, driving significant performance enhancements (Luffarelli et al., 2016). When employees receive constructive and positive feedback, particularly when their performance is exceptional, it substantially boosts their confidence in their abilities and motivates them to strive for excellence. Supervisor developmental feedback is instrumental in this process, offering actionable and insightful guidance that empowers employees to learn, grow, and excel in their roles (Su et al., 2019). This type of feedback creates a supportive and

relaxed work environment, fostering divergent thinking and creativity. By focusing on learning, development, and improvement, supervisor developmental feedback helps employees form behavioural guidance, leading to enhanced employee competencies. In essence, feedback is a powerful tool that empowers employees to grow, develop and excel, leading to improved performance and organisational success (Luffarelli et al., 2016). By providing regular and constructive feedback, organisations can cultivate a culture of continuous learning and improvement hence increased employee competence.

Liu and Xiang (2018) conducted a comprehensive study on the mechanisms by which employee feedback fosters positive learning behaviours in the workplace, surveying full-time employees across various industries in China. Their research yielded significant findings, demonstrating that feedback has a profound and positive impact on employee learning, driving workplace development and growth. Specifically, their study showed that engaging in constructive dialogue and inquiry stimulates employee learning, leading to enhanced employee competence. In a study involving employees from the manufacturing sector in south Korea, Park (2022) examined the effects of informal communication on organisational creativity. The research demonstrated that informal communication exerted a significant and positive influence on employees' creative output. Consequently, dialogue and inquiry manifested through informal communication enhanced employee competence, which subsequently boosted their creative performance.

Su et al. (2019) investigated employees across four firms in Beijing, China, highlighting the crucial role of supervisor developmental feedback in promoting

innovative behaviour. Their findings underscored that feedback from supervisors is instrumental in strengthening employees' creative self-confidence, which ultimately fuels innovation in the workplace. By providing constructive and developmental feedback, supervisors empower employees to tap into their creative potential, leading to a significant increase in innovative behaviour and ultimately, enhanced employee competence. Therefore, dialogue and inquiry in organisations in form of feedback influence employee competence. Although the preceding studies suggest that dialogue and inquiry contribute to the development of employee competence, these concepts were often indirectly referenced through terms like feedback and communication. This indirect treatment highlighted the necessity for a focused investigation that explicitly examined dialogue and inquiry as distinct constructs. Furthermore, an empirical gap was identified, as there was a noticeable absence of related research within the Ugandan context. This underscored the importance of the present study in generating primary data specific to Uganda, thereby enriching the existing body of knowledge with contextually grounded insights.

2.2.3.2 Team Learning and Teacher Competence

Team learning is an interactive and evolving activity where individuals within a group collaborate, exchange insights, and cultivate a unified comprehension aimed at attaining their collective objectives (Rupčić, 2022). Through communication, both implicit and explicit, team members form patterns of interaction that facilitate learning (London, 2022). This cyclical process involves seeking feedback, gathering information, discussing errors, and integrating new knowledge to improve team performance (Wiese & Burke, 2019). Team learning manifests at both the individual

and group levels, where members may function separately or in collaboration to fulfill joint, complementary, or personal objectives (Kérivel et al., 2022). Its value lies in its capacity to enhance organisational growth and efficiency, as the experiences and knowledge generated within teams can be disseminated across various divisions, thereby advancing the organisation's overall performance (Dixon, 2017). Encouraging a spirit of team learning allows organisations to leverage shared expertise, inspire creativity, and achieve enduring prosperity.

Team learning plays a pivotal role in organisational success, acting as the cornerstone for transformative initiatives that can be expanded across the entire organisation (Darwin, 2017). Furthermore, it serves as a fundamental element in creating a learning-oriented organisation, where collaboration, knowledge exchange, and continuous enhancement are embedded within the organisational culture (Rupčić, 2022). It embodies a distinctive integration of personal and organisational excellence, demanding continuous reflection, a unified vision, and a holistic approach to systems thinking. Teams are the primary complex, adaptive, and learning systems within organisations, driving organisational dynamics and momentum for change. Effective team relations foster multiple skills in individual members, including creative problem-solving and easy learning when introducing new concepts (Wanyeki et al., 2019). By placing team learning and growth at the forefront, organisations can elevate staff proficiency, stimulate both individual and corporate progress, and pave the way for lasting excellence.

In research conducted among professionals engaged in research and development, market analysis, and strategic planning in China, Li et al. (2023)

explored the influence of a team learning environment on innovation outcomes, with knowledge integration capability serving as a mediating factor. The study revealed that a strong team learning atmosphere positively impacted both knowledge integration and innovative performance. This indicates that team learning enhances employee skills, thereby boosting creativity and innovation. Likewise, in a Swedish study, Lundkvist and Gustavsson (2018) analyzed how structured competence enhancement programs promoted learning and employee-initiated innovation within small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). The study revealed that workplace development programmes including team learning led to competence development. Salas (2008) carried out an extensive meta-analysis to evaluate the effectiveness and constraints of team training programs in enhancing team outcomes. The results demonstrated a strong positive association between team training initiatives and multiple team dimensions, including cognitive, emotional, procedural, and performance aspects. These findings indicate that structured team learning and development efforts substantially strengthen team capabilities, fostering better interaction, collaboration, and ultimately superior performance results.

Widmann and Mulder (2020) conducted a comprehensive study on vocational teacher teams in Germany, examining the intricate relationships between team learning behaviors, team mental models, and performance outcomes in educational settings. Their findings unequivocally demonstrated that team learning behaviors have a profound positive impact on team effectiveness, efficiency, and innovativeness, ultimately enhancing employee competence and leading to exceptional performance outcomes. In a seminal review, Wiese and Burke (2019)

synthesized the extant literature to develop a unified framework for understanding team learning dynamics and explored how teams operate within the context of time. Their analysis revealed that team learning outcomes precipitate significant changes in collective knowledge, underscoring the critical role of team learning in shaping employee competence. While substantial evidence underscores the essential influence of team learning in advancing employee capabilities, scholarly inquiry into their direct correlation remains relatively scarce. This evident shortfall in research calls for deeper examination, accentuating the relevance of the present study in unpacking the nuanced dynamics between team learning and workforce competence.

2.2.4 Institutional Support and Teacher Competences Mediated by Organisational Learning

Institutional support encompasses discretionary practices that organisations voluntarily offer to demonstrate their care and commitment to employee wellbeing, exceeding what is required by company policy, union contracts, or national laws (Mugizi et al., 2015). This support is a gesture of goodwill, recognizing the value of employees' contributions. Employees perceive organisational support as a manifestation of the organisation's genuine concern and caring, fostering a sense of reciprocity (Eisenberger et al., 2020). In response, employees exhibit positive attitudes, including engagement in organisational learning, which enhances their competences and promotes personal and professional growth. Organisational learning is a crucial catalyst for long-term organisational survival and performance, enabling adaptation and innovation in a rapidly changing environment (Tan &

Olaore, 2021). Through organisational learning, organisations access and utilize information and knowledge from various sources, including employee feedback, market research, and industry trends, to inform decision-making and drive improvement in employee competences.

Studies have assessed the mediating effect of organisational factors on a number of organisational behavioural variables. For example, Kumar et al. (2023) assessed the mediating effect of organisational learning on the relationship between the institutional support factor of transformational leadership and organisational performance using workers manufacturing companies in India. The findings revealed that organisational learning significantly mediated institutional support and organisational performance which pointed to employee competence. Khan and Khan (2019) discovered that institutional support, manifested through transformational leadership, had an indirect impact on employee innovation, mediated by organisational learning and knowledge sharing. This suggests that transformational leadership fosters a culture of learning and knowledge sharing, which in turn, enables employees to develop innovative solutions. Moreover, employee innovation is a proxy for employee competence, implying that institutional support, through transformational leadership, ultimately enhances employee competence.

In their study, Oh and Kuchinke (2017) examined the link between quality management practices and organisational performance using workers in Korean manufacturing enterprises. Their analysis showed that organisational learning fully mediated the relationships between institutional support factors of leadership,

people focus, process management, and organisational performance. However, employee competence in their study was obliquely indicated by organisational performance as it results from employee competence. In their study, Ladyshewsky and Taplin (2018) assessed the effect of organisational learning culture, coaching and self-efficacy on employee work engagement. The study revealed that the relationship between the institutional factor of coaching and self-efficacy was mediated by organisational learning. Overall, the literature above reveals that scholars have showed the mediating effect of organisational learning. However, the concept of competence was reflected in variables such as performance and self-efficacy. Still, institutional support was reflected in sub variables such as leadership, coaching and knowledge management. This thus called for testing how the relationship between institutional support and teacher competences was mediated by organisational learning.

2.3 Summary of Literature Review

This section is a summary of the literature review, covering the theoretical and review of related literature. The study is grounded in the Perceived Organizational Support (POS) Theory by Eisenberger et al. (1986) and the Organizational Learning Theory (OLT) by Argyris and Schön (1978). POS emphasizes that when employees perceive that their organization values their contributions and well-being, they reciprocate with higher commitment and competence. Institutional practices such as induction, continuous professional development (CPD), and rewards enhance such perceptions, thereby improving performance and organizational learning. However, POS assumes that unfair treatment reflects the organization as a whole, which can

undermine performance. OLT, on the other hand, explains how organizations acquire, share, and utilize knowledge to adapt and innovate. It highlights that organizational learning fosters employee competence through continuous learning, dialogue, and collaboration.

Related liteeature in terms of empirical literature reveals that institutional support through institutional support through induction, CPD, and rewards positively influences teacher competence and organizational learning. However, population, contextual, and methodological gaps emerged. Population gaps exist because mlost previous studies did not focus on secondary school teachers and were in other sectors such as banks and industry. Contextually, most studies were conducted in Western countries, leaving Ugandan realities unexplored. Methodologically, many scholars (e.g., Eisenschmidt & Poom-Valickis, 2020; Lyman et al., 2018; Lin & Sanders, 2017) relied on literature reviews rather than empirical investigations. These contextual, population, and methodological gaps justified the need for the present empirical study to examine how institutional support and organizational learning influence teacher competence in Ugandan secondary schools.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology used in this study, including the philosophical framework, research approach, design, target population, sample selection, sampling procedures, data collection methods, and strategies for ensuring data quality and ethical standards. This chapter provides a detailed account of the research process, from data collection to the measures taken to ensure the integrity and validity of the finding, data management and analysis.

3.1 Philosophical Orientation

This study was underpinned by positivism, a research philosophy that aims to study social phenomena in a scientific and objective way, just as natural scientists study the physical world. It is based on the idea that reality exists independently of individual perceptions or understanding and that it can be studied through systematic observation, measurement, and experimentation (Majeed, 2019). This means that positivism assumes reality is objective and can be investigated in a neutral and unbiased manner. In this study, the main constructs, namely institutional support, organisational learning, and teacher competence, were considered objective realities that could be empirically observed and measured.

Positivism strives for objectivity, meaning that the researcher attempts to remain neutral and unbiased in observations and conclusions. It relies on empirical data, which refers to data that can be observed, measured, and verified through sensory experience (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). This emphasis on empirical data

ensures that research findings are grounded in tangible evidence. Accordingly, this study employed a structured questionnaire to collect data from teachers in government-aided secondary schools. The instrument was designed with standardised items covering all three constructs and was validated to ensure that responses reflected observable characteristics of the variables under investigation.

Positivism adopts the scientific method, involving hypothesis formulation, data collection, and analysis to draw conclusions. It often requires quantifying data and applying statistical techniques to describe and examine phenomena. Guided by this principle, the study developed and tested hypotheses regarding the direct and mediating relationships among institutional support, organisational learning, and teacher competence. These hypotheses were tested using Structural Equation Modelling, a statistical technique suitable for examining complex relationships in an objective and systematic way. This aligned with the positivist orientation of identifying causality based on empirical data. By adopting this approach, the study aimed to generate knowledge that is dependable, objective, accurate, and generalisable (Dawadi et al., 2021).

In practice, adopting a positivist approach meant that the study sought to collect and analyse data in a systematic, objective, and empirical manner in order to draw valid conclusions about the phenomenon under investigation. This approach enabled the researcher to uncover patterns, relationships, and trends, and to make informed interpretations based on evidence. The study followed these principles by investigating the influence of institutional support on teacher competence, both directly and through the mediating role of organisational learning. By adhering to

the positivist tradition, the research maintained rigour, reliability, and objectivity, thereby contributing to the accumulation of credible knowledge in the field. Thus, the knowledge generated about the variables under study was grounded in observable evidence (Majeed, 2019).

From an epistemological perspective, the study aimed to establish objective knowledge using research tools that were free from personal bias or interpretation. The research sought to uncover the actual relationships among institutional support, organisational learning, and teacher competence without being influenced by subjective assumptions. This was achieved through the administration of a structured questionnaire, ensuring internal consistency through statistical reliability tests, and confirming the structure of the constructs using confirmatory factor analysis. Hypotheses were then tested using Structural Equation Modelling, which enabled the researcher to examine both direct and indirect effects between the variables (Dawadi et al., 2021). The use of this technique was consistent with the positivist principle of validating theories through empirical testing.

Although positivism has its limitations, such as the challenge of applying methods developed for the natural sciences to complex social settings (Alharahsheh and Pius, 2020), it was an appropriate guiding philosophy for this study. This is because the study adopted a quantitative approach and employed a structured questionnaire to measure objectively defined constructs. Positivism provided a suitable framework for investigating these relationships in a structured and empirical manner. As a result, the study was grounded in an objective ontology, epistemology, and methodology. This ensured that the research questions were

explored systematically and that findings were based on verifiable data. Through this philosophical lens, the study upheld neutrality, allowed for replication, and contributed robust evidence to understanding teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in Uganda.

3.2 Research Approach

This study employed a quantitative research approach, which involves testing a identified social phenomenon based on theory. This approach relies on numerical data and statistical analysis to determine whether the predictive generalizations of a theory or hypotheses are true or false. In this study, quantitative data was collected and numerically analysed using statistical procedures to make generalizations (Zyphur & Pierides, 2017). Specifically, descriptive and inferential statistics, including partial least squares structural equation modelling, were used to analyse the data. This allowed for the drawing of inferences using deductive reasoning on the variables under study. Quantitative research is a systematic and empirical approach that aims to uncover patterns and relationships between variables. By using statistical techniques, researchers can test hypotheses and theories, and make predictions about future phenomena. In this study, the quantitative approach enabled the researcher to test the relationships between the variables and make generalisations about the findings.

3.3 Research Design

This study employed a cross-sectional research design, which involves the collection of data from a defined population at a single point in time to examine causal linkages among variables. The design enables the researcher to capture a

snapshot of existing conditions and analyse how variables are related without manipulating them (Saunders et al., 2019). Cross-sectional research is particularly appropriate for social and educational studies that aim to describe patterns or associations among naturally occurring variables (Cohen et al., 2021). In this study, the cross-sectional design was used to collect data from teachers in government schools in south-wetsren Uganda to examine the relationships among institutional support, organisational learning, and teacher competence. This design was suitable because it allowed the researcher to measure these variables simultaneously and determine how institutional support and organisational learning predict teacher competence without altering the school environment.

Through quantitative analysis, the study identified the strength and direction of the associations among the constructs, thereby providing empirical insights into how these factors interact. Furthermore, the cross-sectional design aligns with the positivist paradigm, which underpins quantitative inquiry by emphasizing objectivity, measurement, and statistical testing of relationships (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2018). Within this framework, the design facilitated the exploration of how organisational learning mediates the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence. The findings derived from this approach offered valuable evidence to inform strategies for strengthening teacher competence through improved institutional and organisational practices in government schools..

3.4 Population

The total population for this study comprised 3,873 secondary school teachers from the southwestern region of Uganda (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2023), spanning across 18 districts within the sub-region. However, due to practical limitations such as time and financial resources, the researcher opted to focus on a more accessible portion of this population, forming the study's sample. The selected sample included teachers from the traditional districts within the sub-region, specifically, three districts each from Ankole and Kigezi. From Ankole, the districts were Bushenyi (15 schools), Ibanda (11 schools), and Mbarara (20 schools); from Kigezi, the districts included Kabale (35 schools), Kisoro (11 schools), and Rukungiri (26 schools) (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2022). The corresponding teacher population within these districts totaled 3,873, distributed as follows: Bushenyi (570), Ibanda (424), Mbarara (624), Kabale (811), Kisoro (494), and Rukungiri (950) (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2023). This sample was deemed adequate and provided a robust dataset to support the objectives of the research.

3.5 Sample size and Sampling Strategies

3.5.1 Sample Size

The sample for the questionnaire survey was 351 teachers randomly selected from a population of 3873 determined basing on the Table for Sample Determination by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). From each district, the sample was obtained by proportionate sampling. From each school, the sample of male and females was proportionately represented. This was ascertained during data collection.

Table 3.1:Population Distribution and Sample Size

Category	Population	Sample size	Sampling method
Bushenyi	570	52	Cluster cum Simple Random Sampling
Ibanda	424	38	Cluster cum Simple Random Sampling
Mbarara	624	57	Cluster cum Simple Random Sampling
Kabale	811	73	Cluster cum Simple Random Sampling
Kisoro	494	45	Cluster cum Simple Random Sampling
Rukungiri	950	86	Cluster cum Simple Random Sampling
Total	3873	351	

Source: Uganda Education Statistical Abstract (2022)

3.5.2 Sampling strategies.

This study used two sampling strategies, namely cluster sampling and simple random sampling. With cluster sampling, the researcher employed a multistage cluster sampling strategy to select a representative sample of secondary school teachers in southwestern Uganda. The first stage involved clustering all government secondary schools by district, specifically Bushenyi, Ibanda, Mbarara, Kabale, Kisoro, and Rukungiri, the traditional districts in the region. From each district, the researcher used simple random sampling to select two schools: one located in an urban area and the other in a rural area. This approach ensured geographical diversity and helped capture contextual variations in teaching environments. According to Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2019), cluster sampling is particularly effective when a population is spread over a large area and it is impractical to sample individuals directly. In the second stage, teachers within the selected schools were also selected through simple random sampling, ensuring that each teacher present during the data collection period had an equal chance of participation. This method aligned with Creswell and Creswell's (2018) recommendation of using random selection within clusters to enhance representativeness and reduce selection bias.

The combination of district-level clustering and random sampling at both the school and individual teacher levels provided a balanced and manageable approach for studying a widely dispersed population.

3.8 Common Method Data Bias Control

Common method bias refers to the variation caused by the instrument rather than the actual predisposition of the respondents that the instruments attempt to measure which might undermine the validity of results (Kock et al., 2021). To ensure that there were no measurement errors due to high exposure to potential biases, the researcher ensured that there was no item complexity and/or ambiguity by developing items that were as clear, concise and specific as possible to measure study constructs. The researcher also followed Chang et al. (2019) suggestion of respondents' anonymity and confidentiality to reduce evaluation apprehension. Further, the questionnaire items were adapted meaning they had been already tested by previous scholars. In addition, the researcher avoided use of words with multiple meanings, technical jargon and unfamiliar or infrequently used words. Further, there was altering of scale anchors in the questionnaire to overcome common methods data bias. This enabled controlling of common data bias.

3.6 Measurement

Table 3.2 indicates the measurement variables to be used in the study, describing their nature, indicators and number of items, scale, the source and reliability of the variables.

Table 3. 2: Measurement of variables

Variable	Nature of variable	Indicators	Source & Reliability
Teacher competence	Dependent Variable (IV1)	Ethical; pedagogical; subject matter; and assessment and evaluation	Calaguas (2013); Adediwura et al. (2020)
Institutional Support	Independent Variable (IV1)	Induction Continuous professional development	Haueter et al. (2003) Mugizi & Bakkabulindi (2018); Truitt (2011)
		Rewards	Heneman & Schwab (1985)
Organisational learning	Mediating Variable	Continuous learning	Jyothibabu et al. (2010); Yavas & Celik (2020).
		Dialogue and inquiry Team learning	Jyothibabu et al. (2010)

3.7 Data Collection Instrument

In this study, data were gathered using self-administered questionnaires. This instrument was selected due to its practicality in collecting and processing data from a large respondent base, allowing for efficient quantification and statistical analysis (Creswell, 2014). Moreover, because the research aimed to examine teachers' viewpoints, emotional responses, beliefs, and perceptions, the questionnaire proved to be a fitting tool for capturing consistent and measurable insights (Kumar, 2019). Allowing participants to complete the questionnaire independently and at their own convenience helped to reduce potential response bias and encouraged greater honesty in their answers.

3.8 Validity and Reliability

3.8.1 Validity

Validity represents the degree to which a research instrument accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure (de Souza et al., 2017). In this study, content validity was verified through both convergent and discriminant validity analyses, conducted on pilot data using SmartPLS4 software. Convergent validity was determined using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), while discriminant validity was evaluated through the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations. Upon completion of the primary data collection phase, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was utilized to assess the measurement model. Items with factor loadings greater than 0.40 were retained, while those falling below this benchmark were excluded from further analysis (Hair Jr et al., 2021). The findings from the factor analysis are elaborated in Chapter Four and visually represented through structural equation modeling diagrams. These validation procedures contributed to ensuring that the research instruments consistently measured the appropriate theoretical constructs, thereby reinforcing the credibility and precision of the study's results (de Souza et al., 2017). The application of CFA and the clear presentation of validation metrics underscore the methodological robustness of the study (Hair Jr et al., 2021). A summary of the convergent and discriminant validity results is provided in Table 3.3.

Table 3. 3: Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Correlations for Discriminant Validity

Measures	**AVE**	**TC**	**AE**	**EC**	**PC**	**SMC**
TC						
AE	0.573	0.215				
EC	0.781	0.526	0.310			
PC	0.702	0.157	0.083	0.052		
SMC	0.544	0.713	0.567	0.755	0.408	
Measures	**AVE**	**IS**	**CPD**	**ID**	**RW**	
IS						
CPD	0.528	0.324				
ID	0.601	0.616	0.474			
RW	0.529	0.716	0.146	0.773		
Measures	**AVE**	**OL**	**CL**	**DI**	**TL**	
OL						
CL	0.666	0.307				
DI	0.615	0.722	0.868			
TL	0.578	0.265	0.623	0.822		

Key: AE= Assessment and evaluation enhancement, CL =Continuous learning, CPD = Continuous Professional Development, DI = Dialogue and inquiry, EC= Ethical competence, ID = Induction, PC = Pedagogical competence enhancement, RW = Rewards, SMC = Subject matter competence, TL = Team Learning

The credibility of the data collected was established through rigorous evaluation of both convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity, which examines the degree to which multiple indicators of the same construct align, was confirmed as the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values exceeded the benchmark of 0.50 (Rasooli & Bagheri, 2020; Hair Jr et al., 2021). This outcome implies that the indicators consistently reflected the intended latent variables, affirming their suitability as measurement tools. Discriminant validity, which ensures that each construct is conceptually and statistically distinct from others within the model, was also verified. The Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations remained below the critical threshold of 0.90, demonstrating sufficient separation between

constructs (Rasooli & Bagheri, 2020; Latan & Ghozali, 2021). These validity tests confirmed that the measurement model reliably captured the theoretical distinctions among variables and appropriately represented the constructs under investigation.

3.8.2 Reliability of the Data.

Reliability pertains to the extent to which a measurement instrument produces consistent and dependable results, accurately reflecting the construct it aims to assess (Taber, 2018). It evaluates the stability of an instrument's outcomes when applied repeatedly under similar conditions. To determine the internal consistency of the tools used, both Composite Reliability (CR) and Cronbach's Alpha (α) were employed. A threshold of 0.70 or higher is widely regarded as acceptable for establishing construct reliability (Dash & Paul, 2021). Cronbach's Alpha measures the average interrelatedness among items, serving as an estimate of shared variance within a set of responses (Taber, 2018). However, its assumption that all items contribute equally can sometimes lead to an underestimation of reliability and the omission of valuable indicators. On the other hand, Composite Reliability (CR) offers a more comprehensive evaluation by incorporating the distinct contributions of each item, yielding a more accurate and robust measure of internal consistency (Hair Jr et al., 2021). For these reasons, CR was preferred over Cronbach's Alpha when assessing the reliability of the constructs in this study.

Table 3.4:Reliabilities

Measures	α	CR
AE	0.884	0.912
EC	0.933	0.953
PC	0.914	0.934
SMC	0.832	0.877
CPD	0.842	0.883
ID	0.864	0.899
RW	0.840	0.882
CL	0.891	0.921
DI	0.841	0.888
TL	0.810	0.870

The reliability outcomes displayed in Table 3.4 reveal that the internal coherence of the measurement scales was commendable, with both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability indices exceeding the accepted threshold of 0.70 for every construct (Purwanto & Sudargini, 2021). This indicates that the items within each construct were strongly interrelated and consistently reflected the intended theoretical dimensions. Specifically, Cronbach's alpha values varied between 0.810 and 0.933, demonstrating a high degree of internal uniformity among the indicators. Similarly, composite reliability scores ranged from 0.870 to 0.953, reinforcing the soundness and reliability of the measurement of instruments.

3.9 Data Management

The data collected were first processed before analysis. The data collected were managed through two processes namely; data processing and data management.

3.9.1.1 Data Processing

Data processing included coding, entering them into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists. Data were also presented and screened to identify outliers and remove them, and detect missing data and replace them. Data were also subjected to parametric tests namely; normality, linearity and Collinearity. The data processing follows here under.

3.9.1.2 Missing Data Analysis

Missing data occurs when information is incomplete, indicating that one or more variables lack values or contain inaccurately recorded responses. It is crucial to identify and address these issues, as missing data can compromise the representativeness of the sample, lead to bias, and reduce the statistical power of the data, ultimately distorting inferences made about the population studied. The treatment of missing data depends on the extent of the missing values. If more than 15% of the data is missing from a questionnaire, the entire case is typically excluded from the data file. However, if the overall missing data is below this threshold, the case may be retained, and alternative methods, such as imputation or interpolation, may be used to estimate the missing values. However, if data for an entire construct is missing, it is typically excluded from the analysis (Hair Jr. et al., 2021). This is because a construct represents a conceptual entity, and missing data for all indicators of that construct means that there is no information to support meaningful analysis or interpretation. Missing data in the data collected was as indicated in Figures 3.1-3.3. The extent of missing data in the collected data is illustrated in Figures 3.1-3.3. These figures provide a visual representation of the missing data patterns, indicating

which variables or constructs have missing values and the frequency of these missing values.

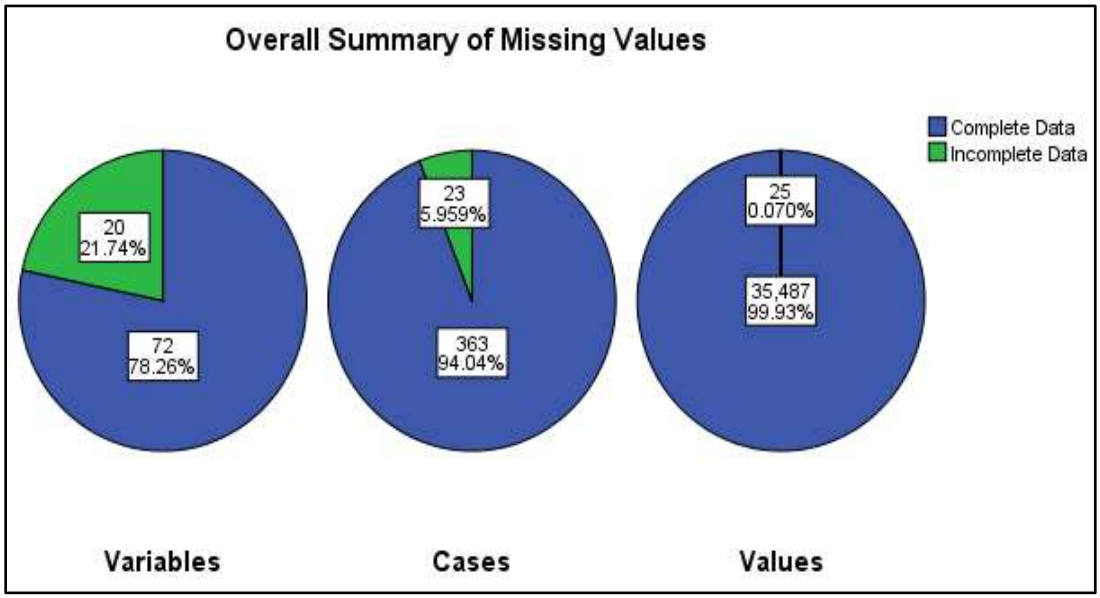

Figure 3.1: Overall Summary of Missing Values

Figures 3.1 display the missing data patterns according to variables, cases, and values. The variable-level analysis revealed that 20 variables (21.74%) had incomplete data, indicating that respondents left some questions blank on the questionnaire. At the case level, 23 cases (5.959%) had incomplete data, but none were excluded from the analysis since the missing data threshold of 15% was not exceeded. Additionally, only 25 values (0.070%) were missing. Overall, the figures indicate that the data was suitable for analysis after replacing missing values. To determine the appropriate treatment for missing data, a missing value pattern analysis was conducted (Figure 3.4). The resulting chart provides a more detailed view of the missing data distribution across the study variables, helping to inform the decision on how to handle missing values.

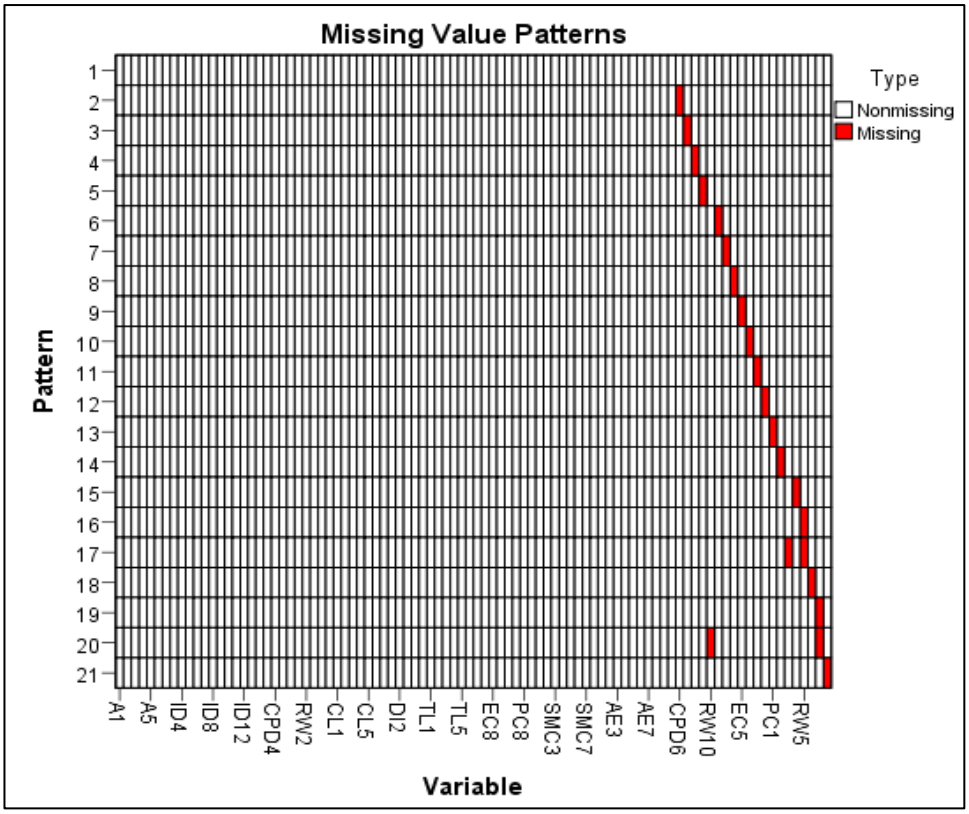

Figure 3. 2: Missing Value Patterns

The data patterns in Figure 3.2 reveal the incomplete data for various cases that provided data. Each pattern represents a cluster of cases with missing values on a specific variable. However, the data pattern figure shows that the missing data are randomly distributed, indicating that they are Missing Completely At Random (MCAR). When data is MCAR, there is no correlation between the missingness of the data and any observed values, suggesting that no systematic factors are at play that could increase the likelihood of some data being missing compared to others (Peng et al., 2023). The statistical advantage of MCAR data is that it does not introduce bias during analysis, thereby preserving statistical power. The remaining data can be considered a simple random sample of the complete data set when it is MCAR. With such data, missing values can be replaced, ensuring that the sample

size remains as planned, preventing biased parameter estimates, loss of information, and reduced statistical power (Alruhaymi & Kim, 2021).

To address the missing data, series mean imputation was employed, which assumes that the mean of a variable is a suitable estimate for any case with missing data on that variable. This method imputes each missing value with the mean of known values for the same variable, ensuring that the data remains unbiased and suitable for further analysis. Unlike listwise deletion and pairwise deletion, which can lead to biased results under MAR and MCAR, series mean imputation was chosen as a more appropriate method, particularly given its theoretical underpinnings (Li et al., 2024). By using series mean imputation, the aim was to prevent data bias and ensure that the data could be used for further analyses without compromising statistical power.

3.9.1.3 Outlier Analysis.

The data entered in SPSS was displayed using frequency tables which were examined to detect outliers, which could have resulted from erroneous data entry or incorrect responses. The identified outliers were removed and replaced with accurate values after verifying with the original data provided by the respondents in the questionnaire. This ensured that extreme values that could have led to exaggerated results were eliminated. Outliers are extreme scores or responses that deviate significantly from the majority of the data. They are observations that differ substantially from the rest of the sample. Outliers exhibit a deviation from the distribution behaviour of the remaining data points in a statistical sample (Osborne & Overbay, 2019). In this study, outliers were identified as data values that deviated

significantly from the distribution of values in a column. Handling outliers provides valuable insights into the data and enhances confidence in the conclusions drawn from the dataset (Hair et al., 2021). Outliers were identified using boxplots. In this study, boxplots were used to identify outliers by respondent number, as shown in Figures 3.3 to 3.5.

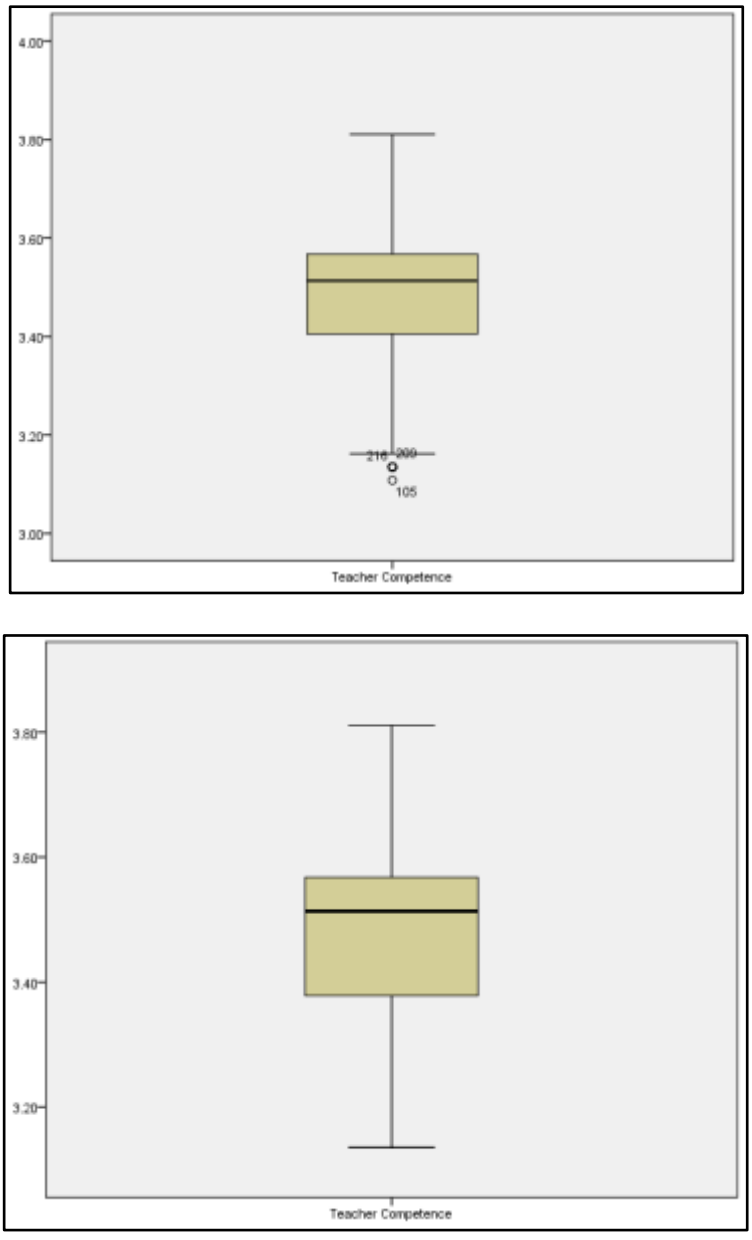

Figure 3.3: Boxplots for Teacher Competence

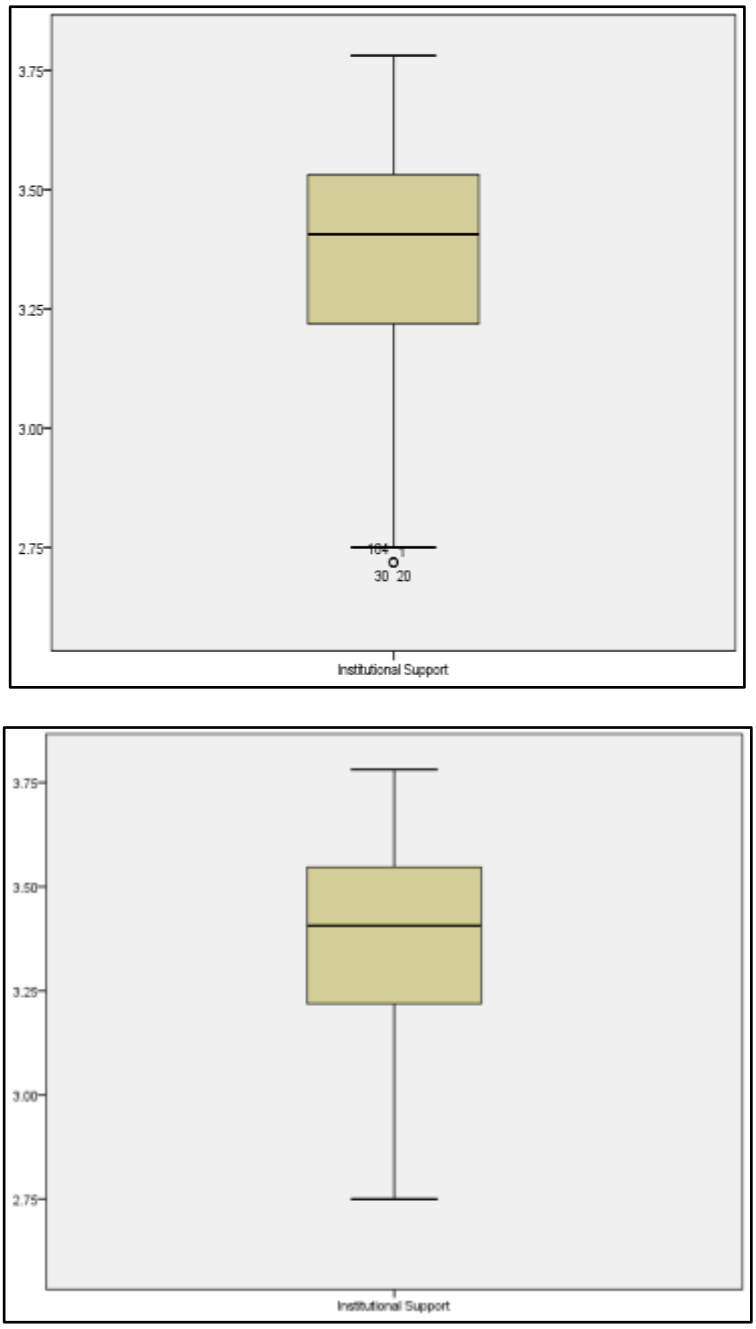

Figure 3.4: Boxplots for Institutional Support

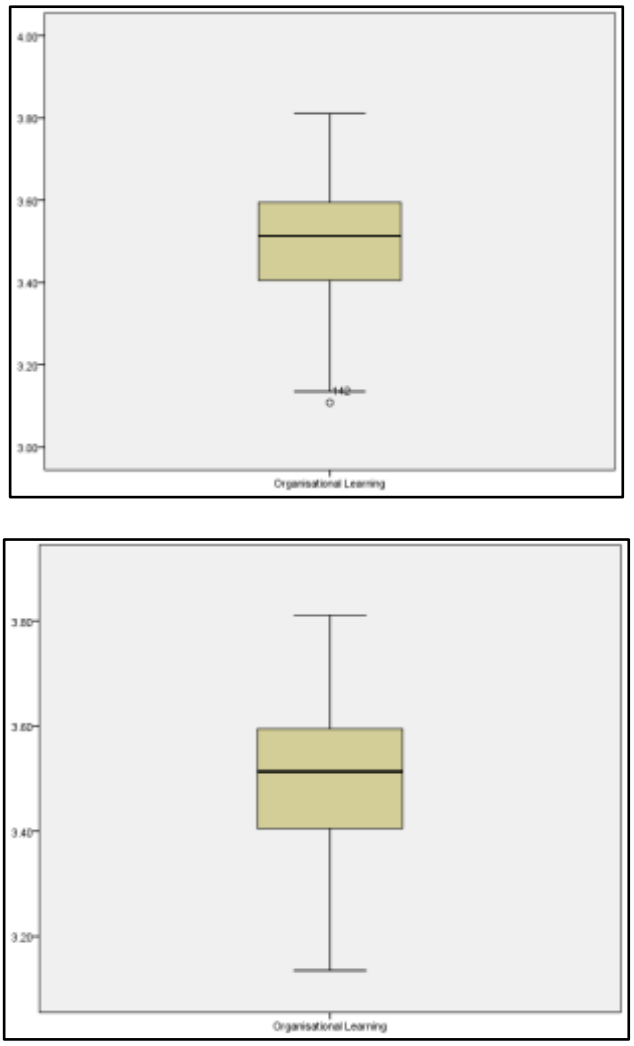

Figure 3.5: Boxplots for Organisational Learning

The boxplots in Figures 3.4 and 3.5 reveal that the variables - teacher competence, institutional support, and organisational learning - initially had outliers. However, after removing the outliers, the data became free from extreme values. Consequently, the issue of outliers was resolved, and the data was deemed suitable for analysis.

3.9.1.4 Parametric Analyses.

To ensure that the data met the parametric assumptions of normality and linearity, normality and linearity tests were conducted. Normality tests involved creating histograms for each construct and variable, which are presented in Chapter Four. The histograms display normality curves, allowing for a visual inspection of normality. Linearity tests were performed using scatter plots to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and determine how well they converged on the line of best fit (β). Specifically, the relationships between human resource development practices and academic staff job performance, and information technology and academic staff job performance, were tested to ensure that they met the assumption of linearity, as shown in Figures 3.6 and 3.7.

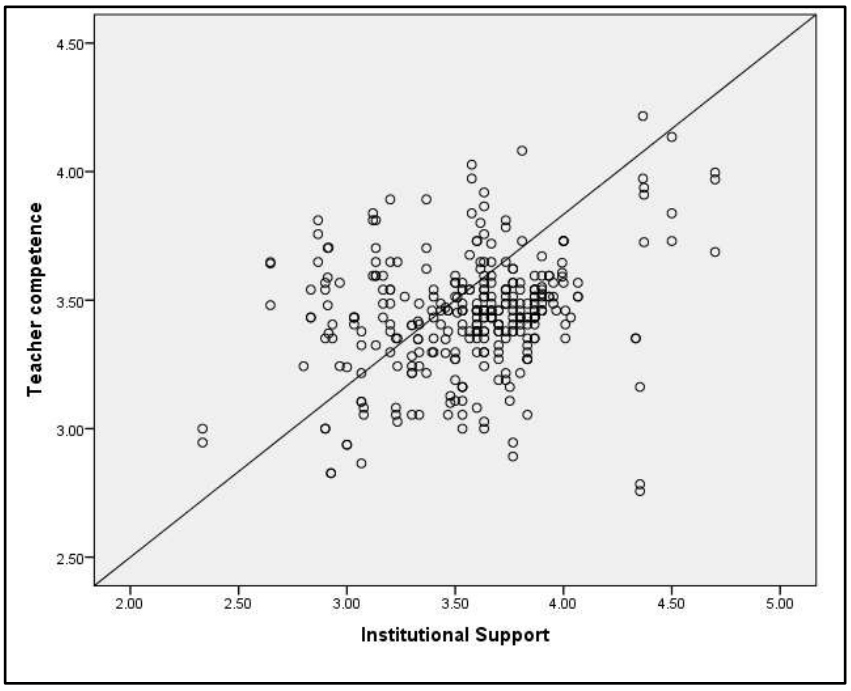

Figure 3.6:Linearity Graph for Institutional Support and Teacher Competence

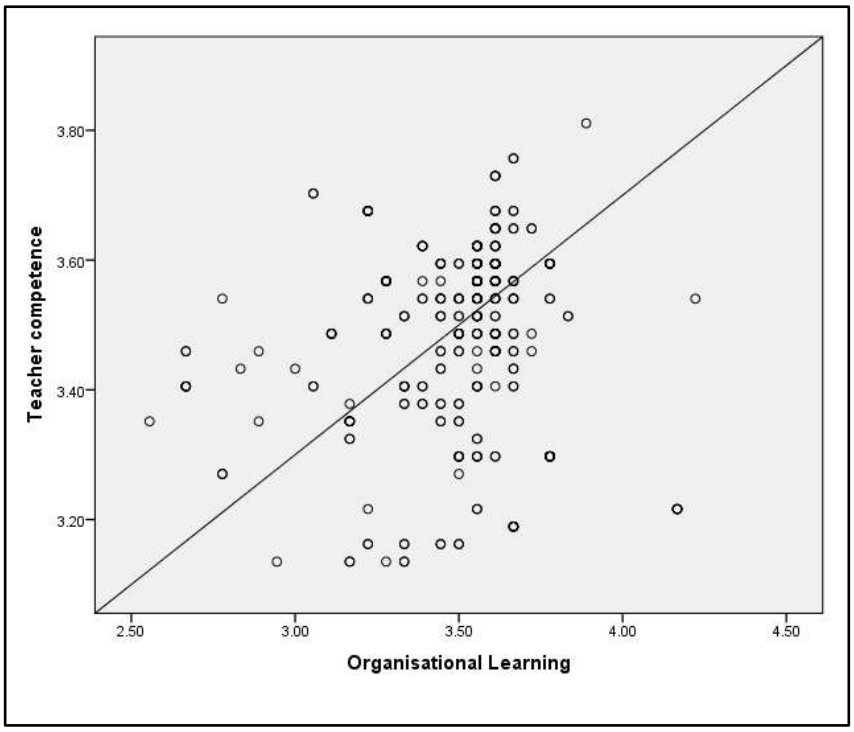

Figure 3.7:Linearity Graph for Organisational Learning and Teacher Competence

The linearity plots (Figures 3.6 and 3.7) illustrate how the independent variable (x-axis) interacts with the dependent variable (y-axis). The trend line, often referred to as the beta line (β), depicts the anticipated linear connection between the two variables. Although some data points diverge from this line, a significant number are closely aligned with it, reflecting a strong correlation. This clustering near the line implies that the dataset is appropriate for linear modeling, and the outcomes derived from such an analysis are considered trustworthy. Essentially, the proximity of many observations to the trend line supports the presence of a strong linear association, an essential assumption in numerous statistical methods. Minor deviations from the line do not undermine the validity of the analysis, provided the overall trend remains linear. Consequently, the analysis affirms that the relationship

between the independent and dependent variables is sufficiently linear to justify further interpretation and inference.

3.9.2 Data Analysis

The study utilized both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data. Descriptive techniques were used to outline the profiles of participants and summarize core variables by calculating metrics such as means, standard deviations, percentages, and frequency distributions. To assess the interconnections among variables, inferential analysis was performed through structural equation modeling (SEM), which allowed for the evaluation of both direct relationships and intermediary (mediating) effects. SEM was performed using SmartPLS software integrated with SPSS, following the procedures outlined by Hair Jr. (2021), who emphasized SEM's ability to simultaneously assess complex cause-effect relationship models while accounting for measurement errors. This analytical approach provided a robust framework for testing the hypothesized structural paths and the overall fit of the proposed model.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Prior to beginning data collection, the researcher secured ethical clearance from both the Research and Ethics Committee at Kampala International University and the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST), ensuring adherence to institutional and national research regulations. Throughout the data collection phase, participants were guaranteed that all information shared would remain confidential. They were clearly informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any point, without facing any adverse consequences. Each participant

provided informed consent, indicating their full understanding of the study's aims, procedures, possible risks, and their role in the research. To maintain anonymity, no personally identifiable details were recorded, and all responses were handled with the utmost confidentiality. Participants were also encouraged to ask questions at any stage of the process of data collection to address any uncertainties. Upholding the ethical principle of beneficence, the researcher pledged to publish the findings in peer-reviewed journals, aiming to contribute valuable insights for educators, practitioners, and policymakers, and to support evidence-based decision-making in future academic and professional contexts.

During data collection, however, the researcher encountered several ethical challenges and dilemmas, including non-response and lack of cooperation from some teachers who were either skeptical about the study's purpose or constrained by time. Other challenges included delays in securing appointments with school administrators, and limited access to some schools due to tight academic schedules. In all instances, the researcher maintained professionalism, reiterated confidentiality assurances, and respected participants' decisions to decline participation, in line with ethical research practice.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the study's findings on institutional support and teacher competence, with a focus on the mediating role of organisational learning. The presentation of the findings begins with the results on response rate and demographic characteristics, followed by the results of the dependent variable. The subsequent sections are organized according to the study objectives, under the following subthemes: institutional support and teacher competence, institutional support and organisational learning, organisational learning and teacher competence, and mediating influence of organisational learning on the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence. This structure allows for a clear and logical presentation of the findings, aligning with the study's objectives. The findings are presented in a continuous narrative, with each section building on the previous one to provide a comprehensive understanding of the study's results.

4.1 Response Rate

The study aimed to collect data from all 351 teachers, but fully filled questionnaires were retrieved from 329 teachers, representing a response rate of 93.5%. This sample size was deemed sufficient, as research suggests that a response rate of at least 50% is acceptable in social science studies (Pielsticker & Hiebl, 2020). With a response rate significantly higher than the recommended threshold, the study's findings can be considered reliable and representative of the population under investigation.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

An analysis was conducted on the participants' demographic profiles, focusing on variables such as gender, age range (in years), educational attainment, years of professional experience, and roles held within their respective schools. These demographic factors formed the basis for assessing differences in teachers' self-perceived competence. A detailed summary of these characteristics is displayed in Table 4.1, offering a clear snapshot of the respondent distribution across key background categories.

Table 4. 1: Demographic Characteristics of Teachers

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Per cent
Gender	Male	135	41.0
	Female	194	59.0
	Total	329	100.0
Age Groups	Up to 30 years	69	21.0
	31- 40 years	191	58.1
	41-50 years	62	18.8
	51 and above years	7	2.1
	Total	329	100.0
Education Level	Diploma	82	24.9
	Bachelors	170	51.7
	Postgraduate	77	23.4
	Total	329	100.0
Working Experience	less than 5 years	91	27.7
	5 - 10 years	153	46.5
	10 years and above	85	25.8
	Total	329	100.0
Responsibility	Subject teacher	84	25.5
	Class teacher	108	32.8
	Head of department	114	34.7
	Senior administrator	23	7.0
	Total	329	100.0

The gender distribution (Table 4.1) of the respondents revealed that females comprised the majority (59.0%), while males accounted for 41.0%. Although

females made up the larger percentage, the sample included a significant number of males, making the data representative of both gender groups. This allowed for a meaningful analysis of gender-based differences in teacher competence using Student's t-Test. Regarding the age groups of the respondents, the majority (58.1%) fell within the 31-40 years range, followed by 21.0% who were 30 years or younger. The remaining respondents were distributed between 41-50 years (19.8%) and 51 years or older (2.1%). Notably, each age group had at least five respondents, making the data suitable for Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to examine variations in teacher competence across different age groups.

Examination of participants' academic backgrounds revealed that the largest segment (51.7%) held undergraduate degrees. Additionally, 23.4% had attained postgraduate-level education, while 24.9% were diploma holders. To assess how academic qualifications influenced teachers' perceived competence, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed. When it came to professional experience, nearly half of the respondents (46.5%) had been in the teaching profession for between 5 and 10 years. Meanwhile, 27.7% were relatively new, with under five years of experience, and 25.8% had served in the field for over a decade. This diverse distribution suggests that insights were drawn from educators across varying levels of career maturity. The ANOVA test was applied to identify any statistically significant differences in perceived competence linked to years of experience. In terms of roles within the school system, 34.7% of the participants were heads of departments, 32.8% served as class teachers, 32.5% identified as subject specialists, and a smaller group (7.0%) held senior administrative roles. This variety in

responsibilities contributed to a wide-ranging dataset. The variance analysis revealed notable differences in how teacher competence was viewed across these occupational roles, highlighting the influence of position on professional self-assessment

4.3 Teacher Competence in Schools

In this study, teacher competence, identified as the dependent variable, was understood as a multi-layered construct made up of four principal dimensions: ethical integrity, teaching proficiency, subject expertise, and skills in assessment and evaluation. The upcoming sections detail the findings for each dimension separately, providing a comprehensive understanding of the different facets that contribute to the overall concept of teacher competence.

4.3.1 Ethical Competence.

The concept of ethical competence was studied using nine indicators. The results presented in Table 4.2, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4.2: Ethical Competence of Teachers

Ethical Competence	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
My dress code has improved in this school	13 4.0	123 37.4	5 1.5	169 51.4	19 5.8	3.18	0.99
I report to work on time each work day in this school	17 5.2	133 40.4	14 4.3	152 46.2	13 4.0	3.03	0.88
I teach with passion in this school	- -	68 20.7	15 4.6	234 71.1	12 3.6	3.58	0.99
I respect all policies of this school	- -	84 25.5	19 5.8	201 61.1	25 7.6	3.51	0.88
I am ready to observe norms of conduct in the teaching profession in this school	6 1.8	88 26.7	17 5.2	206 62.6	12 3.6	3.40	0.92
I give appropriate assessment of students	5 1.5	93 28.3	8 2.4	208 63.2	15 4.6	3.41	0.83
I observe professional conduct of the teaching profession	6 1.8	84 25.5	17 5.2	204 62.0	18 5.5	3.44	0.82
I show dedication to the teaching profession	- -	69 21.0	15 4.6	233 70.8	12 3.6	3.57	0.89
I serve as positive role model to students	- -	83 25.2	10 3.0	215 65.3	21 6.4	3.53	0.91

The results in the first row in Table 4.2 asked teachers if their dress code had improved, and cumulatively, a larger percentage (57.2%) agreed, while 41.4% disagreed, and 1.5% were undecided. With an evarage mean (mean = 3.18, Std = 0.99) close to the average code 3, teachers fairly indicated that their dress code had improved. Regarding if teachers reported to work on time each work day, a higher percentage (50.2%) agreed, while 45.6% disagreed, and 4.3% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.03, Std = 0.88) suggested that fairly, teachers reported to work on time each work day. With respect to if teachers taught with passion, the

majority percentage (74.7%) agreed, while 20.7% disagreed, and 4.6% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.58, Std = 0.99) close to code 4 for agreed, suggested that teachers indicated that they taught with passion.

A majority of teachers (68.7%) reported adherence to all school policies, with 30.8% disagreeing and 5.8% undecided. The mean score (mean = 3.51, Std = 0.92), close to the "agreed" code 4, suggests a high level of policy compliance among teachers. Regarding teachers' readiness to observe norms of conduct in the teaching profession, a larger percentage (66.2%) agreed, while 28.5% disagreed and 5.2% were undecided. This moderate mean (mean = 3.40, Std= 0.83) suggested that fairly, teachers were willing to uphold professional conduct norms in schools. Teachers' assessment of students was deemed appropriate by a larger percentage (67.8%) agreed, while 29.8% disagreed and 2.4% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.41, Std = 0.82) suggested that, on the whole, teachers provided suitable evaluations of their students. Most teachers (67.5%) reported observing professional conduct, while 27.3% disagreed and 5.2% were undecided. The mean score (mean = 3.44,Std = 0.89) indicated that, overall, teachers demonstrated fair commitment to upholding professional standards in their practice.

A significant majority of teachers (74.4%) indicated that they exhibited a strong sense of dedication to their profession, while 21.0% disagreed and 4.6% were undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.57, Std = 0.88) reflected a high degree of commitment among teachers. Concerning teacher dedication, a substantial majority (74.4%) affirmed their commitment, while 21.0% disagreed and 4.6% were undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.57, Std = 0.92) indicates a strong sense

of dedication to the teaching profession. Regarding teachers' role as positive role models for students, a significant majority (71.7%) confirmed their positive influence, while 25.2% disagreed and 3.0% were undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.53, Std= 0.89) indicated that teachers generally served as positive role models for their students. In terms of making effective content communication in teaching, a slightly higher proportion of teachers (57.5%) reported doing so effectively, while 34.0% disagreed and 8.5% were undecided. The mean score (mean 3.18, Std = 0.91) suggested that, on average, teachers communicated content fairly effectively in their teaching practices. To provide an overall picture of teacher ethical competence, an average index was calculated based on the nine indicators. The resulting moderate mean is presented in Figure 4.1, indicating how teachers rated their own ethical competence. The figure also shows the normality of the results, providing a visual representation of the distribution of responses, with the moderate mean indicated.

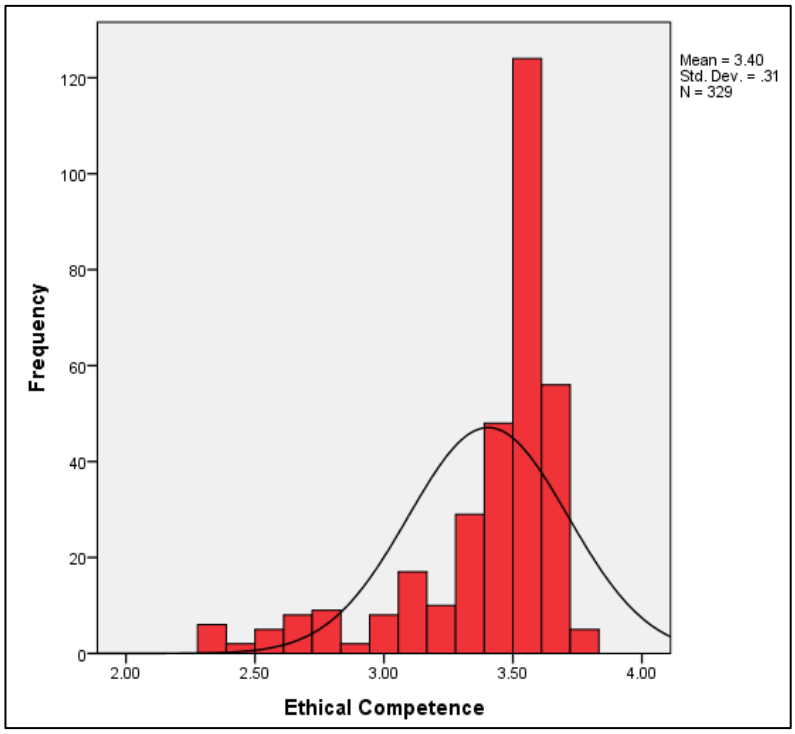

Figure 4.1: Histogram for Ethical Competence of Teachers

Figure 4.1 reveals an overall moderate mean of 3.40, indicating that the ethical competence of teachers was moderate. The moderate level suggests there is room for improvement in teachers' ethical competence. The standard deviation (Std = 0.31) was low and consistent with the mean, further confirming that responses were moderately distributed. This alignment between the mean and standard deviation supports the interpretation that teachers generally exhibited a moderate level of ethical competence. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.3.2 Pedagogical Competence

The concept of pedagogical competence was studied using nine indicators. The results presented in Table 4.3, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4.3: Pedagogical Competence

Pedagogical Competence	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
I communicate content effectively when teaching	5 1.5	107 32.5	28 8.5	176 53.5	13 4.0	3.60	1.14
I make learners the centre of learning during lessons because I am not distracted	23 7.0	29 8.8	49 14.9	189 57.4	39 11.9	3.58	1.04
I involve students in discussions during lessons	33 10.0	45 13.7	41 12.5	167 50.8	43 13.1	3.43	1.04
I encourage students to analyse content and provide feedback	22 6.7	37 11.2	42 12.8	174 52.9	54 16.4	3.61	1.09
I allow students to ask questions and respond to them	30 9.1	33 10.0	15 4.6	154 46.8	97 29.5	3.78	1.23
I link lessons to real life situations when teaching because I am provided with necessary resources	26 7.9	42 12.8	32 9.7	162 49.2	67 20.4	3.61	1.17
I make effort to make learning enjoyable for students because of the available resources	5 1.5	34 10.3	32 9.7	218 66.3	40 12.2	3.77	0.85
I find time to interact with students during class discussions	7 2.1	54 16.4	46 14.0	195 59.3	27 8.2	3.55	0.93
I make sure that my instructional methods are flexible enough to accommodate the various demands of my different learners	7 2.1	52 15.8	56 17.0	196 59.6	18 5.5	3.50	0.90
I use a variety of teaching materials or aids provided by the school	4 1.2	49 14.9	55 16.7	200 60.8	21 6.4	3.56	0.86

The question in Table 4.3 inquired from teachers whether they carried out effective content communication in teaching. Cumulative results revealed that a slightly higher proportion of teachers (57.5%) reported doing so effectively, while 34.0% disagreed and 8.5% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.60, Std = 1.14) suggested that teachers communicated content effectively in their teaching activities. Regarding if teachers made learners the centre of learning during lessons because of not being distracted, a higher percentage (69.3%) agreed, while 15.8% disagreed, and 14.9% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.58, Std = 1.04) suggested that teachers made learners the centre of learning during lessons because of not being distracted. With respect to if teachers involved students in discussions during lessons, the higher percentage (63.9%) agreed, while 23.7% disagreed, and 12.5% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.43, Std = 1.04), close to code 3 for undecided, suggested that teachers involved students in discussions during lessons.

A majority of teachers (69.2%) reported that they encouraged students to analyse content and provide feedback, with 17.9% disagreeing and 12.8% undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.61, Std = 1.09) suggested a high level of encouraging of students to analyse content and provide feedback. Regarding teachers' allowing students to ask questions and respond to them, the majority percentage (76.3%) agreed, while 19.1% disagreed and 4.6% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.78, Std = 1.23) suggested that teachers' allowed students to ask questions and respond to them. Teachers link lessons to real life situations when teaching was deemed appropriate by a larger percentage (69.6%), while 20.7%

disagreed and 9.7% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.61, Std = 1.17) suggested that, on the whole, Teachers linked lessons to real life situations when teaching. Most teachers (78.5%) reported making effort to make learning enjoyable for students because of the available resources, while 11.8% disagreed and 9.7% were undecided. The mean score (mean = 3.77, Std = 0.85) indicated that, overall, make effort to make learning enjoyable for students because of the available resources.

A significant percentage of teachers (66.5%) indicated that they found time to interact with students during class discussions, while 18.5% disagreed and 14.0% were undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.55, Std = 0.93) reflected a high degree of teachers finding time to interact with students during class discussions. Concerning teachers making sure that their instructional methods were flexible enough to accommodate the various demands of the different learners, a substantial percentage (65.1%) agreed, while 18.5% disagreed and 14.0% were undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.55, Std = 0.90) indicated that teachers made sure that their instructional methods were flexible enough to accommodate the various demands of the different learners.

Regarding using a variety of teaching materials or aids provided by the school, a significant percentage (67.2%) confirmed their positive use, while 16.1% disagreed and 16.7% were undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.56, Std= 0.86) indicated that teachers generally used a variety of teaching materials or aids provided by the school. To provide an overall view of teacher pedagogical competence, an average index was calculated based on the 10 indicators. The

resulting moderate mean is presented in Figure 4.2, indicating how teachers rated their own pedagogical competence. The figure also shows the normality of the results, providing a visual representation of the distribution of responses, with the moderate mean indicated.

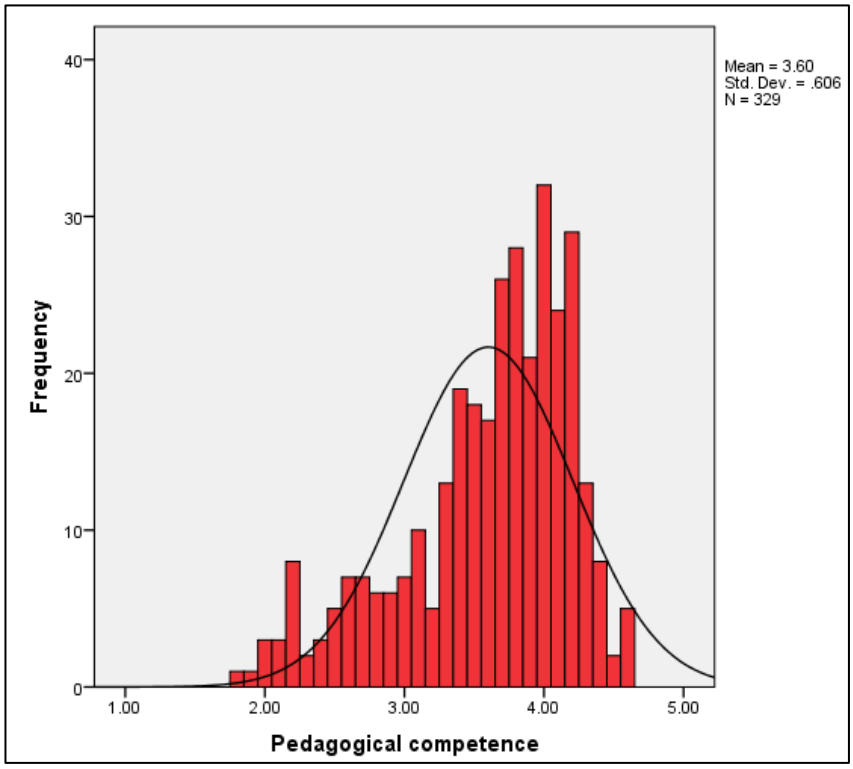

Figure 4. 2: Histogram for Pedagogical Competence of Teachers

Figure 4.2 reveals an overall high mean of 3.60, indicating that the pedagogical competence of teachers was high. The high level suggests that teachers generally demonstrated strong instructional skills and classroom effectiveness. The standard deviation (Std = 0.606) was relatively low and consistent with the mean, indicating that responses were closely distributed around the average. This alignment between the mean and standard deviation confirms that the majority of teachers consistently exhibited high levels of pedagogical competence. The curve shown in the histogram

indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.3.3 Subject Matter Competence.

The concept of subject matter competence was studied using seven indicators. The results presented in Table 4.4, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4. 4: Subject Matter Competence

Subject Matter Competence	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
I exhibit mastery of content when teaching	- -	44 13.4	75 22.8	189 57.4	21 6.4	3.57	0.96
I manifest expertise in lessons I teach using available resources	8 2.4	57 17.3	114 34.7	132 40.1	18 5.5	3.29	0.99
I display authority of content knowledge when teaching because I am able to concentrate	10 3.0	45 13.7	108 32.8	147 44.7	19 5.8	3.36	0.97
I respond to questions raised by students during lessons because I have sufficient time for it	- -	42 12.8	83 25.2	181 55.0	23 7.0	3.56	0.82
I ensure that I thoroughly understand the content I teach because I have time to concentrate	7 2.1	57 17.3	120 36.5	131 39.8	14 4.3	3.27	0.79
I share information that is relevant to lessons when teaching using available resources	10 3.0	50 15.2	112 34.0	144 43.8	13 4.0	3.30	0.87
I am able to teach a lot of academic content using available resources	6 1.8	62 18.8	58 17.6	192 58.4	11 3.3	3.43	0.88

The question in Table 4.4 required teachers to tell their mastery of content when teaching. Cumulative results revealed that the majority proportion of teachers (64.8%) agreed, while 13.4% disagreed and 22.8% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.57, Std = 0.96) suggested that the teachers exhibited mastery of content when teaching. Regarding if teachers manifested expertise in lessons they taught using available resources, a slightly higher percentage (45.6%) agreed, while 19.5% disagreed, and 34.7% were undecided. The moderate mean score (mean = 3.29, Std = 0.99) suggested that fairly, teachers manifested expertise in lessons they taught using available resources. With respect to if teachers displayed authority of content knowledge when teaching because they able to concentrate, the higher percentage (50.5%) agreed, while 16.7% disagreed, and 32.8% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.36, Std = 0.97) fairly, displayed authority of content knowledge when teaching because they able to concentrate.

A majority of teachers (62.0%) reported that they responded to questions raised by students during lessons because they had sufficient time for it, with 12.8% disagreeing and 25.2% undecided. The high mean score (3.56, Std = 0.82) suggested a high level of teachers responding to questions raised by students during lessons because they had sufficient time for it. Regarding ensuring that they thoroughly understood the content they taught because they had time to concentrate, the slightly higher percentage (44.1%) of teachers agreed, while 19.4% disagreed and 36.5% were undecided. The moderate mean score (mean = 3.27, Std= 0.79) suggested that fairly, teachers ensured that they thoroughly understood the content they taught because they had time to concentrate. Teachers' sharing of information relevant to

lessons when using available resources was considered fairly good, with a slightly larger proportion of respondents (47.8%) agreeing. However, 18.2% disagreed, while 34.0% remained undecided. The moderate mean score (Mean = 3.30, SD = 0.87) further supports this finding, suggesting that, to a fair extent, teachers shared lesson-relevant information when utilizing available resources.

A total of 61.7% of teachers indicated that they were able to teach a substantial amount of academic content using available resources, while 20.6% disagreed and 17.6% were undecided. The fair moderate mean score (Mean = 3.43, SD = 0.88) aligns with these results, suggesting that, on average, teachers felt reasonably confident in their ability to deliver academic content using the resources at their disposal. To provide an overall picture of Subject matter competence, an index was computed based on the 10 related indicators. The resulting moderate mean is presented in Figure 4.3, which displays how teachers rated their own pedagogical competence. The figure also visualizes the distribution of responses, with the a moderate mean clearly indicated for interpretation

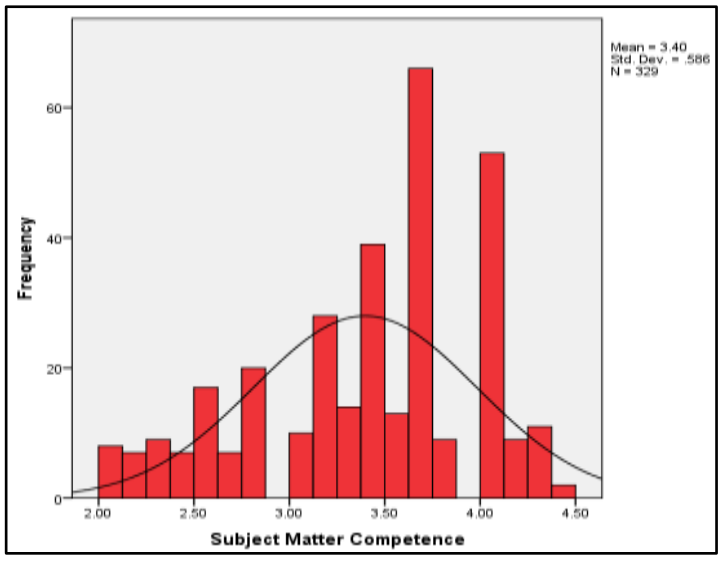

Figure 4. 3: Histogram for Subject Matter Competence

Figure 4.3 reveals an overall moderate mean of 3.40, indicating that the subject matter competence of teachers was moderate. This suggests that while teachers demonstrated a fair level of understanding in their subject areas, there remains room for improvement. The standard deviation (SD = 0.586) was relatively low, indicating that responses were fairly consistent and clustered around the mean. This consistency reinforces the reliability of the reported average and supports the conclusion that most teachers shared similar perceptions of their subject matter competence. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.3.4 Assessment and Evaluation Competence

The concept of Subject matter competence was studied using seven indicators. The results presented in Table 4.5, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4. 5: Assessment and Evaluation Competence

Assessment and Evaluation Competence	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
I assess and evaluate beginning, midterm and end of term students' assignments because I am supported	25 7.6	59 17.9	50 15.2	171 52.0	24 7.3	3.67	1.07
I assess and evaluate students' activities without bias	10 3.0	54 16.4	36 10.9	183 55.6	46 14.0	3.33	1.09
I make comprehensive assessment and evaluation of students' activities such that they are able to understand corrections that should be made because I am supported	16 4.9	50 15.2	55 16.7	184 55.9	24 7.3	3.61	1.03
Provide feedback to students after assessment of assignments because I am facilitated to do so	9 2.7	45 13.7	35 10.6	196 59.6	44 13.4	3.46	0.99
My assessment and evaluation of students' assignments is based on prepared marking guides because I am supported to prepare them	9 2.7	40 12.2	36 10.9	187 56.8	57 17.3	3.67	0.96
The rubric provides clear instructions to students to answer the questions properly	11 3.3	54 16.4	55 16.7	166 50.5	43 13.1	3.74	0.82
I assess students to check students understanding cumulative knowledge	7 2.1	33 10.0	53 16.1	217 66.0	19 5.8	3.54	1.02
I assess application of what was learnt in the class	9 2.7	39 11.9	37 11.2	198 60.2	46 14.0	3.63	0.81
I assess students' problem-solving abilities when assessing assignments	4 1.2	18 5.5	51 15.5	221 67.2	35 10.6	3.71	0.74

The question in Table 4.5 asked teachers to tell whether they assessed and evaluated beginning, midterm and end of term students' assignments because they were supported. Cumulative results revealed that a slightly higher proportion of teachers (59.3%) reported doing so effectively, while 25.5% disagreed and 15.2% were undecided. The high mean (mean, 3.67, Std = 1.07) suggested that the teachers assessed and evaluated beginning, midterm and end of term students' assignments because they were supported. Regarding if teachers assessed and evaluate students' activities without bias, a higher percentage (69.6%) agreed, while 19.4% disagreed, and 10.9% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.33, Std =1.09) suggested that fairly, teachers assessed and evaluate students' activities without bias. With respect to if teachers made comprehensive assessment and evaluation of students' activities such that they were able to understand corrections that should be made because they supported, the higher percentage (63.2%) agreed, while 20.1% disagreed, and 16.7% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.61, Sdt = 1.03) implied that they were able to understand corrections that should be made because they supported.

A majority of teachers (72.0%) reported that they provided feedback to students after assessing assignments because they were facilitated to do so. In contrast, 16.4% disagreed, and 10.6% were undecided. The moderate mean score (Mean = 3.46, SD = 0.99) reflects a fair level of agreement, suggesting that, overall, teachers were reasonably consistent in providing feedback as a result of the support or facilitation they received. Regarding whether teachers' assessment and evaluation of students' assignments was based on prepared marking guides because they were

supported to prepare them, the majority percentage (74.1%) agreed, while 14.9% disagreed and 10.9% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.67, Std = 0.96) suggested that teachers' assessment and evaluation of students' assignments was based on prepared marking guides because they were supported to prepare them. The rubric providing clear instructions to students to answer the questions properly was deemed appropriate by majority percentage (71.8%) agreed, while 12.1% disagreed and 16.1% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.54, Std = 0.97) suggested that, on the whole, the rubric providing clear instructions to students to answer the questions properly. Most teachers (78.5%) reported that teachers assessed students to check students understanding cumulative knowledge, while 12.1% disagreed and 16.1% were undecided. The mean score (mean = 3.54, Std = 1.02) indicated that, overall, teachers assessed students to check students understanding cumulative knowledge.

A significant percentage of teachers (70.2%) indicated that they assessed application of what was learnt in the class, while 14.6% disagreed and 11.2% were undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.63, Std = 0.82) reflected a high degree of teachers assessing application of what was learnt in the class. Regarding the assessment of students' problem-solving abilities in assignments, a substantial percentage of teachers (67.9%) agreed that they evaluated these skills, while 6.7% disagreed and 15.5% were undecided. The relatively high mean score (Mean = 3.71, SD = 0.74) confirms that teachers generally assessed students' problem-solving abilities during assignment evaluation. To provide an overall view of teachers' assessment and evaluation practices, an average index was calculated based on 10

related indicators. The resulting moderate mean is presented in Figure 4.4, illustrating how teachers rated their own assessment and evaluation competence. The figure also visually represents the distribution of responses, with the moderate mean clearly indicated.

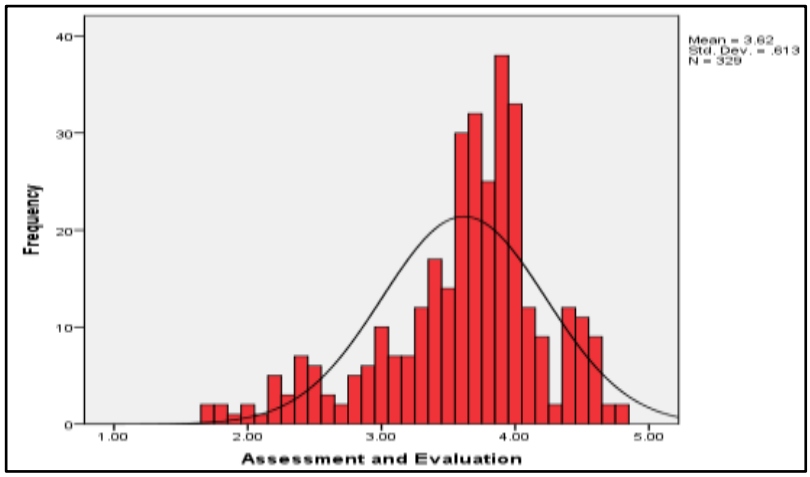

Figure 4. 4: Histogram for Assessment and Evaluation

Figure 4.4 reveals an overall high mean of 3.62, indicating that teachers demonstrated a high level of competence in assessment and evaluation. The standard deviation (SD = 0.613) is consistent with the mean, showing that responses were closely clustered around this high average. This consistency between the mean and standard deviation confirms that most teachers similarly rated their assessment and evaluation competence. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.4.5 Teacher Competence Index.

To determine the academic staff's overall perception of their competences, an overall index was calculated by combining the indicators of four key measures: ethical competence, pedagogical competence, subject matter competence and assessment and evaluation. This overall index provides a holistic view of teacher competence. The results of this calculation are presented in Figure 4.5, which shows the overall mean rating.

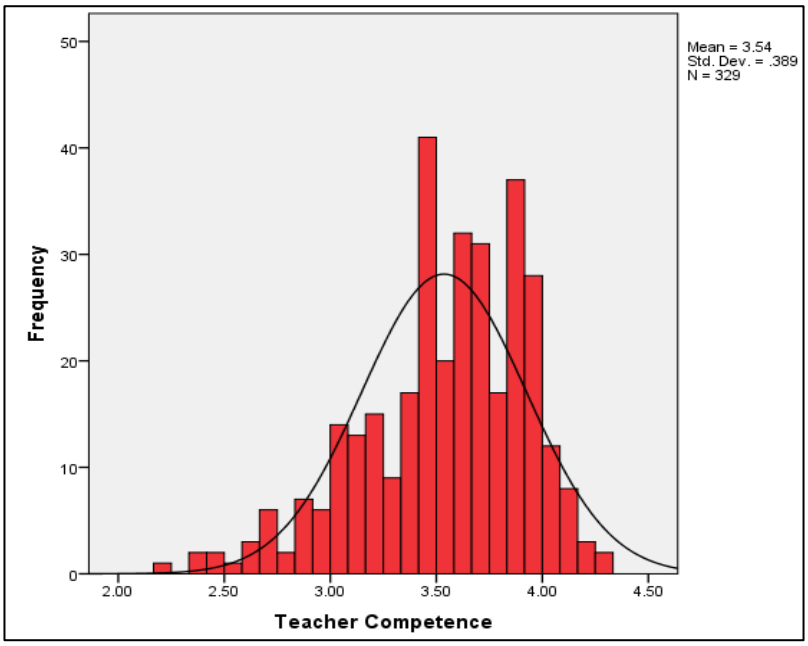

Figure 4. 5: Teacher Competence Histogram

Figure 4.5 reveals an overall high mean of 3.54, indicating a high level of teacher competence. The low standard deviation (SD = 0.38) shows that responses were closely grouped around the mean, reflecting consistent ratings among teachers. Therefore, teachers agreed that they level of teaching competence was high. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is

important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.3.6 Teacher Competence Structural Model.

To identify the measures of teacher competence, a structural equation model was developed for the same. Figure 4.6 shows the indicators measuring teaching competence identified.

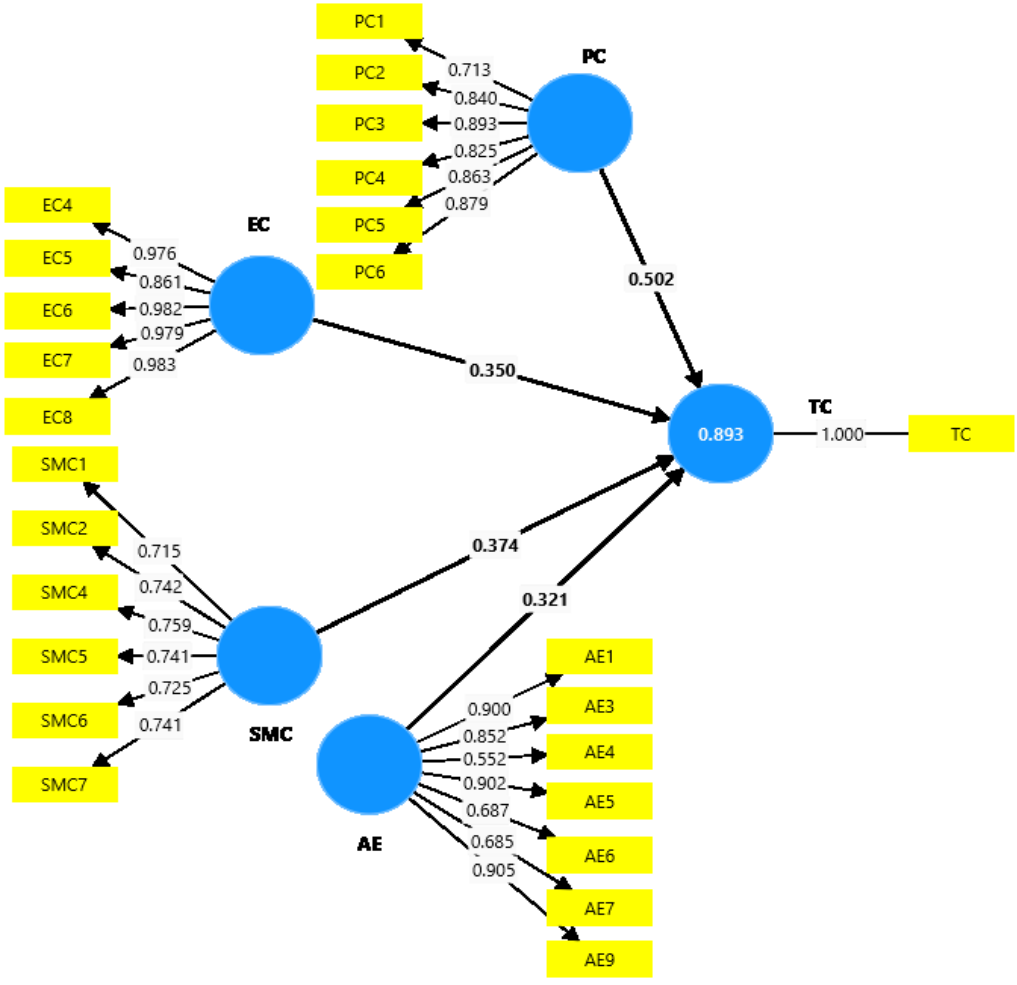

Figure 4.6: Teacher Competence Structural Equation Model

The results in Figure 4.6 reveal that teacher competence is a multi-dimesnional variable consisting of four aspects, namely ethical competence, pedagogical competence, subject matter, and assessment and evaluation. Factor analysis retained five indicators (EC4-EC8) out of nine for ethical competence, dropping EC1, EC 2 and EC9. For professional competence, six indicators (PC1-PC6) out of 10 were retained, dropping PC7 to PC10. For subject matter competence, six indicators (SMC1, SMC2, SMC4-SMC7) out of seven were retained, dropping only SMC3. The retained indicators had factor loadings above 0.40, which is the minimum acceptable threshold (Hair Jr. et al., 2021). This means that the selected indicators accurately measure their respective constructs, and together, these four constructs effectively explain teacher competence.

4.4 Demographic Characteristics and Teachers Competences

To establish if there were differences in perceptions of teachers' competence according to their Demographic characteristics, Student's t-Test and ANOVA analyses were carried out. The results follow in Tables 4.6 and 4.10.

4.4.1 Gender and Teacher Competence.

To test whether there were differences in teacher percepton of their competences according to gender, a statistical analysis (Student's t-test) was conducted. The findings are presented in the Table below (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6:Gender and Teacher Competence

Categories	Mean	STD	T	p
Male	3.48	0.15	1.861	0.064
Female	3.50	0.13		

Table 4.6 shows that, on average, female teachers (mean = 4.48, Std= 0.13) had slightly higher competence scores than male teachers (mean = 3.50, Std= 0.15). However, the difference was not statistically significant, as indicated by the low t-value (1.861) and p-value (0.064 > 0.05). Therefore, the results suggest that there is no significant difference in teacher quality between male and female teachers.

4.4.2 Age and Teacher Competence.

To test whether there were differences in teacher competence perceptions according to age, a statistical analysis (Analysis of Variance [ANOVA]) was conducted. The findings are presented in the Table below (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Age and Teacher Competence

Age Groups	Mean	STD	F	p	LSD Post Hoc Test (Significantly Different Pairs, p = 0.05)
Up to 30 years	3.48	0.18			
31–40 years	3.49	0.12	3.390	0.018	
41–50 years	3.45	0.15			
51 and above years	3.61	0.07			30–40 years < 51 and above years
Total	**3.49**	**0.14**			

Table 4.7 revealed mean competence scores ranging from 3.45 (for teachers aged 41–50 years) to 3.61 (for those aged 51 years and above), with an overall moderate mean of 3.49 (SD = 0.14). The ANOVA test revealed a statistically significant difference in teacher competence based on age groups, F = 3.390, p = 0.018. Post hoc comparisons using the LSD test indicated that teachers aged 51 and above scored significantly higher in competence compared to those in the 30-40 years age group (p < 0.05). This suggests that older teachers (51 and above) perceive or

demonstrate higher competence than some younger groups, particularly those aged 30 to 40.

4.4.3 Level of Education and Teacher Competence.

To test whether there were differences in teacher competence perceptions according to level of education, a statistical analysis (Analysis of Variance [ANOVA]) was conducted. The findings are presented in the Table below (Table 4.8).

Table 4. 8: Level of Education and Teacher Competence

Categories	Mean	STD	F	P	LSD Post hoc test significantly different pairs (p = 0.05 level)
Diploma	3.44	0.15	10.632	0.000	
Bachelors	3.49	0.14			
Postgraduate qualifications	3.54	0.12			(Diploma < 40 and Postgraduate)
Total	3.49	0.14			

The results presented in Table 4.8 show that teachers with postgraduate qualifications (mean = 4.54, Std = 0.12) demonstrated the highest level of competence, followed by those with bachelor's degrees (mean = 3.49, Std = 0.14) and diplomas (mean = 3.44, Std = 0.15), respectively. The significant F-value ($F = 10.632$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) indicates that teacher competence varies significantly according to educational level. A post-hoc Least Significant Differences (LSD) test revealed that teachers with postgraduate qualifications exhibited a significantly higher level of competence compared to those with diplomas. Consequently, teacher competence differs significantly according to the level of education attained.

4.4.4 Teaching Experience and Teacher Competence.

To test whether there were differences in teacher competence according to teachers experience, a statistical analysis (Analysis of Variance [ANOVA]) was conducted. The findings are presented in the table below (Table 4.9).

Table 4. 9: Teaching Experience and Teacher Competence

Categories	Mean	STD	F	p	LSD Post hoc test significantly different pairs (p = 0.05 level)
Less than 5 years	3.44	0.16	9.552	0.000	
5 - 10 years	3.49	0.13			
10 years and above	3.53	0.11			(Less than 5 years < 10 years and above)
Total	3.49	0.14			

The results presented in Table 4.9 indicate that teachers with 10 above years of service (mean = 3.53, Std = 0.11) had the highest mean score, followed by those with 5-10 years of experience (mean = 3.49, Std = 0.13) and those with less than 5 years of experience (mean = 3.44, Std = 0.16), respectively. The significant F-value ($F = 9.552$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) suggests that teacher competence varies significantly according to teaching experience. A post-hoc LSD test revealed that teachers with 10 or more years of experience had a significantly higher level of teacher competence compared to those with less than 5 years of experience. Therefore, teacher competence differs significantly according to the length of teaching experience.

4.4.5 Responsibility and Teacher Competence.

To test whether there were differences in teacher competence according to responsibility, a statistical analysis (Analysis of Variance [ANOVA]) was conducted. The findings are presented in the table below (Table 4.10).

Table 4. 10: Responsibility and Teacher Competence

Categories	Mean	STD	F	p	LSD Post hoc test significantly different pairs (p = 0.05 level)
Subject teacher	3.44	0.14	4.281	0.006	
Class teacher	3.51	0.12			(Subject teacher, Head department, Senior administrator < Class teacher)
Head of department	3.50	0.15			
Senior administrator	3.45	0.16			
Total	3.49	0.14			

The results presented in Table 4.10 indicate that class teachers (mean = 3.51, Std = 0.12) had the highest mean score, followed by heads of departments (mean = 3.50, Std = 0.15), senior administrators (mean = 3.45, Std = 0.16) and subjects teachers had the lowest mean score (mean = 3.44, Std = 0.14). The significant F-value ($F = 4.281$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) suggests that teacher competence varies significantly according to the teacher's responsibility. A post-hoc LSD test revealed that class teachers had a significantly higher level of teacher competence compared to subject teacher, head department, and senior administrator.

4.5 Institutional Support and Teacher Competence

The first objective of the study sought to investigate the influence of institutional support on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda. Teacher institutional support which is the independent variable in this study was conceptualized as a multifaceted variable comprising three key aspects, namely induction, continuous professional development and rewards. The findings related to each of these aspects are presented in the following subsections, which provide a detailed description of the results for each aspect of institutional support, offering insights into the various dimensions of institutional support. Thereafter, structural equation modelling was carried out to show causal linkages between institutional support aspects and teacher competence.

4.5.1 Induction.

The concept of induction was studied using 12 indicators. The results presented in Table 4.11, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4.11: Induction

Induction	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
I was made to know my department's objectives when I joined this school	4 1.2	92 28.0	28 8.5	186 56.5	19 5.8	3.38	0.95
I was made to understand the responsibilities of each member in the school	14 4.3	74 22.5	37 11.2	181 55.0	23 7.0	3.38	0.90
When I joined this school, I was made to understand what my supervisor expected from each member	8 2.4	52 15.8	20 6.1	199 60.5	50 15.2	3.70	0.80
I was made understand the heads of departments management styles when I joined this school (e.g., hands-on, participative).	5 1.5	49 14.9	27 8.2	178 54.1	70 21.3	3.79	0.93
I was helped to be familiar with the guidelines, policies, and practices of my workplace when I joined (e.g., attendance, participation)	2 0.6	46 14.0	30 9.1	184 55.9	67 20.4	3.81	0.82
When I first joined this school, I was briefed about how to act in a way consistent with the principles and values	12 3.6	43 13.1	18 5.5	189 57.4	67 20.4	3.79	0.94
When I joined the school, I was made to understand the school specifics such as land boundaries, board and PTA members	4 1.2	53 16.1	19 5.8	184 55.9	69 21.0	3.79	0.93
I was made to understand the operations of this school when I joined (e.g. day of meeting, formative and summative assessment and co-curricular activities)	3 0.9	58 17.6	19 5.8	178 54.1	71 21.6	3.79	0.92
was informed who to contact when I joined in this school whenever I need help	4 1.2	58 17.6	67 20.4	177 53.8	23 7.0	3.48	0.95
I was briefed about the school overall policies and/or rules	39 11.9	116 35.3	31 9.4	134 40.7	9 2.7	2.87	0.97
When I joined this school, I was made to know how to accomplish my tasks	6 1.8	77 23.4	42 12.8	183 55.6	21 6.4	3.41	0.95
When I joined this school, I was made to understand my performance expectations	9 2.7	59 17.9	55 16.7	183 55.6	23 7.0	3.46	0.94

The question in Table 4.11 inquired from teachers whether they were made to know their department's objectives when they joined the schools. Cumulative results revealed that a slightly higher proportion of teachers (62.3%) agreed while 29.2% disagreed and 8.5% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.38, Std = 0.95) suggested that teachers were made to know their department's objectives when they joined the schools. Regarding if teachers were made to understand the responsibilities of each member in the school, a slightly higher percentage (62.0%) agreed, while 26.7% disagreed, and 11.2% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.38, Std = 0.90) suggested that fairly, teachers were made to understand the responsibilities of each member in the school. With respect to when teachers joined the schools they were made to understand what their supervisor expected from each member, the higher percentage (75.7%) agreed, while 18.0% disagreed, and 6.1% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.70, Std = 0.80) suggested that when teachers joined the schools they were made to understand what their supervisor expected from each member.

A majority of teachers (75.4%) reported that they were made to understand the heads of departments' management styles when they joined the school, with 16.4% disagreeing and 8.2% undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.79, Std = 0.93) suggested that teachers were made to understand the heads of departments' management styles when they joined the schools. Regarding whether teachers were helped to be familiar with the guidelines, policies, and practices of their workplace when they joined (e.g., attendance, participation), the majority percentage (3.81%) agreed, while 14.6% disagreed and 9.1% were undecided. The high mean (mean =

3.81, Std = 0.82) suggested that teachers were helped to be familiar with the guidelines, policies, and practices of their workplace when they joined (e.g., attendance, participation). Regarding whether when they first joined the schools the teachers were briefed about how to act in a way consistent with the principles and values, the majority percentage (77.4%) agreed, while 16.7% disagreed and 5.5% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.79, Std = 0.94) suggested that, they first joined the schools the teachers were briefed about how to act in a way consistent with the principles and values.

Most teachers (76.9%) reported that when they joined the schools, they were made to understand the school's specifics such as land boundaries, boards and PTA members, while 17.2% disagreed and 5.8% were undecided. The mean score (mean = 3.79, Std = 0.93) indicated that when they joined the schools, they were made to understand the school's specifics such as land boundaries, boards and PTA members. A significant percentage of teachers (74.7%) indicated that they were made to understand the operations of the schools when they joined (e.g. day of meeting, formative and summative assessment and co-curricular activities), while 18.5% disagreed and 5.8% were undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.79, Sdt = 0.92) reflected a high degree of teachers being made to understand the operations of the schools when they joined. Concerning teachers being informed who to contact when they joined the schools whenever they needed help, a fair percentage (60.8%) agreed, while 18.8% disagreed and 20.4% were undecided. The fair mean score (mean = 3.48, Std = 0.95) indicated that teachers were informed who to contact when they joined the schools whenever they needed help.

Regarding whether teachers were briefed about the overall policies and/or rules of schools, a slightly larger percentage (47.2%) disagreed while 43.4% disagreed and 9.4% were undecided. The moderate mean score (mean = 2.87, Std = 0.95) indicated that fairly, teachers were briefed about the overall policies and/or rules of schools. With respect to whether when the teachers joined the schools were made to know how to accomplish their tasks, the larger percentage (62.0%) agreed while 25.2% disagreed and 12.8% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.41, Std 0.97) suggested that, fairly when the teachers joined the schools were made to know how to accomplish their tasks. As to whether when the teachers joined the schools they were made to understand their performance expectations, the larger percentage (62.6%) agreed while 20.1% disagreed and 16.7% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.46, Std = 0.94) suggested that fairly, when the teachers joined the schools they were made to understand their performance expectations. To provide an overall view of induction in the schools, an average index was calculated based on the 12 indicators. The resulting moderate mean is presented in Figure 4.7, indicating how teachers rated their own induction in the schools. The figure also shows the normality of the results, providing a visual representation of the distribution of responses, with the moderate mean indicated.

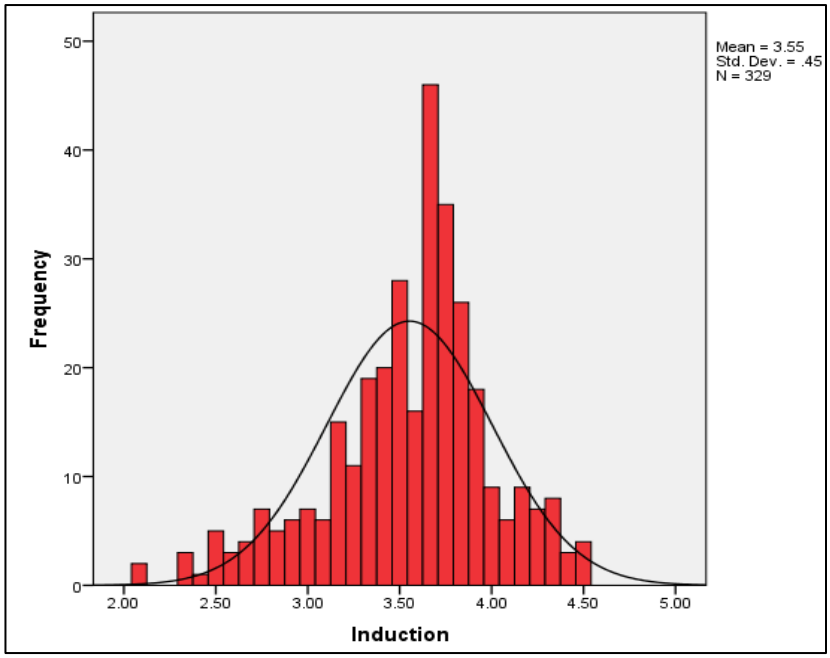

Figure 4.7: Histogram for Induction

Figure 4.7 reveals an overall high mean of 3.55, indicating that the level of induction in schools was generally high. The standard deviation (SD = 0.45) was relatively low, showing that responses were closely clustered around the mean. This consistency between the mean and standard deviation suggests that most teachers shared similar views regarding the induction process. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.5.2 Continuous Professional Development.

The concept of continuous professional development was studied using eight indicators. The results presented in Table 4.12, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4. 12: Continuous Professional Development

Continuous professional development	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
My immediate supervisor helps guide me in improving my job performance	7 2.1	59 17.9	54 16.4	188 57.1	21 6.4	3.48	1.03
I have been assigned a mentor in this school	5 1.5	46 14.0	64 19.5	175 53.2	39 11.9	3.60	0.94
I receive performance feedback from my supervisors	6 1.8	38 11.6	66 20.1	173 52.6	46 14.0	3.65	0.83
I am given opportunities to take on different responsibilities	2 0.6	37 11.2	45 13.7	192 58.4	53 16.1	3.78	0.87
I am supported to pursue further studies	3 0.9	47 14.3	63 19.1	166 50.5	50 15.2	3.65	1.04
I participate in seminars and workshops organized by the school	6 1.8	49 14.9	65 19.8	162 49.2	47 14.3	3.60	0.95
I have been trained in using contemporary classroom technologies	8 2.4	47 14.3	34 10.3	194 59.0	46 14.0	3.68	0.92
I am encouraged to participate in problem-solving matters within the school	1 0.3	44 13.4	41 12.5	207 62.9	36 10.9	3.71	0.84

The question in Table 4.12 inquired whether immediate supervisors helped to guide subordinates on job performance. Cumulative results revealed that a slightly higher proportion of teachers (63.5%) agreed while 20.0% disagreed and 16.4% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.48, Std = 1.03) suggested that immediate supervisors helped to guide subordinates on job performance. Regarding if performance feedback was provided to teachers, a higher percentage (66.6%)

agreed, while 13.4% disagreed, and 20.1% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.65, Std = 0.83) suggested that performance feedback was provided to teachers. With respect to whether teachers were made to act in different responsibilities, the higher percentage (74.5%) agreed, while 11.8% disagreed, and 13.7% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.78, Std = 0.83) suggested that teachers were made to act in different responsibilities.

A majority of teachers (65.7%) reported that they were supported to go for further studies, with 15.2% disagreeing and 19.1% undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.87, Std = 1.04)suggested that teachers were supported to go for further studies. Regarding whether teachers in the schools participated in seminars and workshops, the majority percentage (64.5%) agreed, while 16.7% disagreed and 19.8% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.60, Std = 1.04) suggested that teachers in the schools participated in seminars and workshops. Regarding whether the schools trained teachers in contemporary technologies in the classroom, the majority percentage (73.0%) agreed, while 16.7% disagreed and 10.3% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.68, Std = 0.95) suggested that, the school trained teachers in contemporary technologies in the classroom. Most teachers (73.8%) reported that they were encouraged to participate in problem solving matters in the schools, while 13.7% disagreed and 12.5% were undecided. The mean score (3.71, Std =0.84) indicated that were encouraged to participate in problem solving matters in the schools. To provide an overall view of teachers' continuous professional development, an average index was calculated based on the eight indicators. The resulting moderate mean is presented in Figure 4.8, indicating how

teachers rated continuous professional development in the schools. The figure also shows the normality of the results, providing a visual representation of the distribution of responses, with the moderate mean indicated.

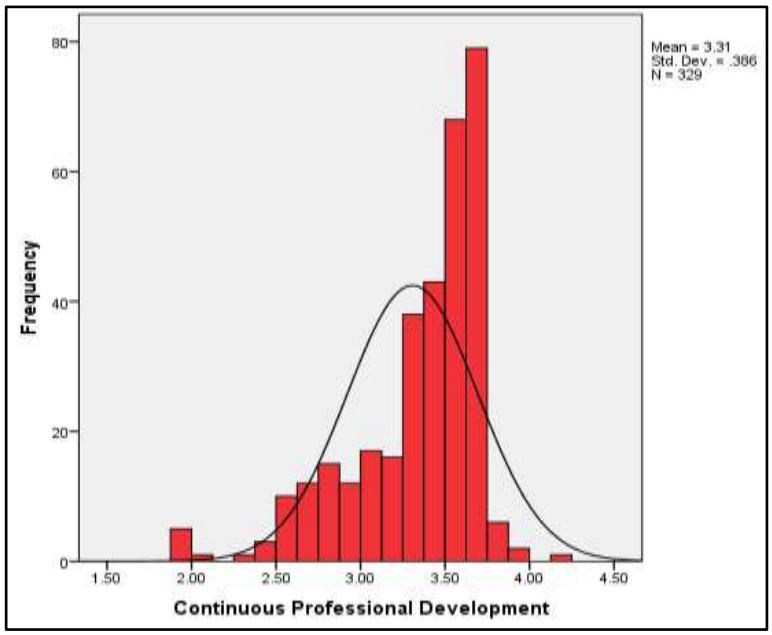

Figure 4.8: Histogram for Continuous Professional Development

Figure 4.8 reveals an moderate mean of 3.31, indicating that the level of continuous professional development (CPD) in schools was fair. The standard deviation (SD = 0.386) is relatively low, suggesting that responses were consistently clustered around the mean. This consistency indicates that most teachers shared similar views regarding the availability and quality of CPD opportunities. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.5.3 Rewards.

The concept of rewards was studied using 12 indicators. The results presented in Table 4.13, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4.13: Rewards

Rewards	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
Besides my income, I am also paid regular allowances	5 1.5	65 19.8	48 14.6	179 54.4	32 9.7	3.51	1.00
The school offers me responsibility allowances	12 3.6	104 31.6	35 10.6	149 45.3	29 8.8	3.24	1.05
Additional tasks accrue extra pay	8 2.4	76 23.1	25 7.6	159 48.3	61 18.5	3.57	1.10
When I perform school work on the weekend, on holidays, and after work hours, I get paid	6 1.8	59 17.9	25 7.6	168 51.1	71 21.6	3.73	1.03
Exceptional performance attracts recognition in terms of extra pay or prizes	4 1.2	28 8.5	25 7.6	206 62.6	66 20.1	3.92	0.77
My head teacher makes me feel valued	4 1.2	21 6.4	24 7.3	211 64.1	69 21.0	3.97	0.79
The head teacher is ready to address my needs when approached	4 1.2	23 7.0	18 5.5	212 64.4	72 21.9	3.99	0.74
My successful work performance has been recognised in this school	6 1.8	26 7.9	22 6.7	213 64.7	62 18.8	3.91	0.93
My head teacher has shown it to me that he appreciates my work effort	2 0.6	59 17.9	46 14.0	203 61.7	19 5.8	3.54	0.93
The basic payment I receive in this school is a monthly regular salary	30 9.1	123 37.4	34 10.3	130 39.5	12 3.6	2.91	0.93
My salary is proportionate to my work effort	10 3.0	132 40.1	49 14.9	120 36.5	18 5.5	3.01	0.99
My salary affords me basic needs	20 6.1	150 45.6	64 19.5	85 25.8	10 3.0	2.74	0.97

The question in Table 4.13 inquired from teachers whether the schools offered them responsibility allowances. Cumulative results revealed that a higher proportion of teachers (54.1%) agreed while 35.2% disagreed and 10.6% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.24, Std = 1.00) suggested that fairly, the schools offered teachers responsibility allowances. Regarding if teachers' additional tasks accrued extra pay, a higher percentage (66.8%) agreed, while 25.5% disagreed, and 7.6% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.57, Std = 1.05) suggested that additional tasks accrued extra pay. With respect to when teachers performed schoolwork on the weekend, on holidays, and after work hours, they got paid, the higher percentage (72.7%) agreed, while 19.7% disagreed, and 7.6% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.73, Std = 1.10) suggested that when teachers performed schoolwork on the weekend, on holidays, and after work hours, they got paid.

A majority of teachers (82.7%) reported that exceptional performance attracted recognition in terms of extra pay or prizes, with 9.7% disagreeing and 7.6% undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.92, Std = 1.03) suggested that exceptional performance attracted recognition in terms of extra pay or prizes. Regarding whether the head teacher made teachers feel valued, the majority percentage (85.1%) agreed, while 7.6% disagreed and 7.3% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.97, Mean = 0.77) suggested that the head teacher made teachers feel valued. Regarding whether the head teachers were ready to address teachers' needs when approached, the majority percentage (86.3%) agreed, while 8.2% disagreed and 5.5% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.99, Std = 0.79)

suggested that the head teachers were ready to address teachers' needs when approached.

Most teachers (83.5%) reported that successful work performance was recognised in the schools, while 9.7% disagreed and 6.7% were undecided. The mean score (mean = 3.91, Std = 0.74) indicated that teachers successful work performance was recognised in the schools. A significant percentage of teachers (67.5%) indicated that the head teacher showed it to teachers that they appreciated their work effort, while 18.4% disagreed and 14.0% were undecided. The high mean score (mean 3.54 = Std, 0.93) suggested that the head teacher showed it to teachers that they appreciated their work effort. Concerning the basic payment teachers received in the schools school was a monthly regular salary, a fair percentage (46.5%) disagreed, while 44.1% agreed and 10.3% were undecided. The fair mean score (mean = 2.91, Std = 0.93) indicated that the basic payment teachers received in the school was a monthly regular salary.

Regarding whether teachers' salaries were proportionate to their work effort, a slightly larger percentage (43.1%) disagreed while 42.0% disagreed and 14.9% were undecided. The moderate mean score (mean = 3.0, Std = 0.99) indicated that fairly, salaries were proportionate to their work effort. With respect to whether teachers' salaries afforded them basic needs, the larger percentage (51.7%) disagreed while 28.8% disagreed and 19.5% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 2.74, Std = 0.97) suggested that fairly, teachers' salaries afforded them basic needs. To provide an overall view of rewards in the schools, an average index was calculated based on the 12 indicators. The resulting moderate mean is presented

in Figure 4.9, indicating how teachers rated rewards in the schools. The figure also shows the normality of the results, providing a visual representation of the distribution of responses, with the moderate mean indicated.

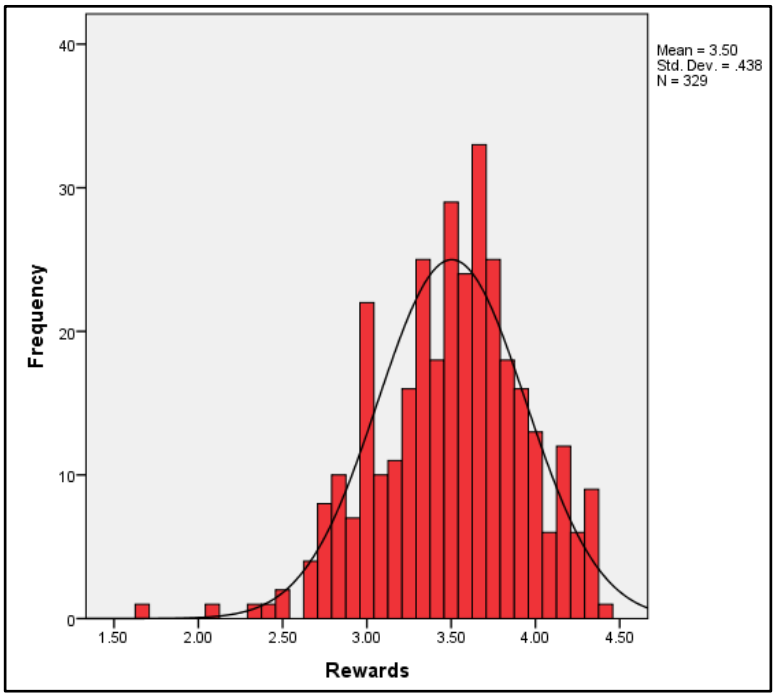

Figure 4. 9: Histogram for Rewards

Figure 4.9 reveals an overall high mean of 3.50, indicating that teachers perceived the level of rewards in their schools as high. The standard deviation (SD = 0.438) is relatively low, suggesting that responses were closely clustered around the mean. This consistency implies that most teachers had similar perceptions regarding the rewards they receive. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation

and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.5.4 Institutional Support Model.

To identify the measures of institutional support, a structural equation model was developed for the same. Figure 4.10 shows the indicators measuring institutional support identified.

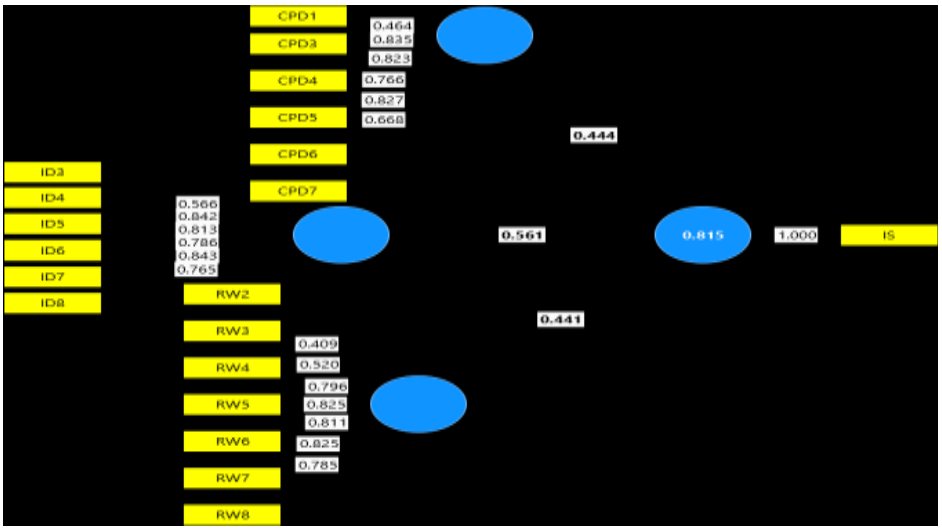

Figure 4.10: Institutional Support Structural Equation Model

The results in Figure 4.10 reveal that institutional support was a multi-dimensional variable consisting of three key aspects: induction, rewards, and continuous professional development. Factor analysis retained six indicators (ID3-ID8) out of 12 for induction, dropping ID1, ID2, and ID9-ID12. For rewards, seven indicators (RW2-RW8) out of 12 were retained, dropping RW1 and RW9-RW12. For continuous professional development, six indicators (CPD1, CPD3-CPD7) out of eight were retained, dropping CPD2 and CPD8. The retained indicators had factor loadings above 0.40, which is the minimum acceptable threshold. This means that

the selected indicators accurately measure their respective constructs, and together, these three constructs effectively explain institutional support.

4.5.5 Structural Model for Institutional Support and Organisational Teacher Competence.

The core premise under this section asserted that the level of institutional support directly influenced teacher competence within publicly funded secondary schools. To explore this claim, a structural equation model was formulated, breaking down the main proposition into three focused hypotheses. These sub-hypotheses examined the individual contributions of induction initiatives, continuous professional growth opportunities, and incentive programs toward enhancing teacher competence. The visual model, showcased in Figure 4.11, captures the intricate causal pathways linking institutional support to teacher competence, illustrating the dynamic interplay among these critical element.

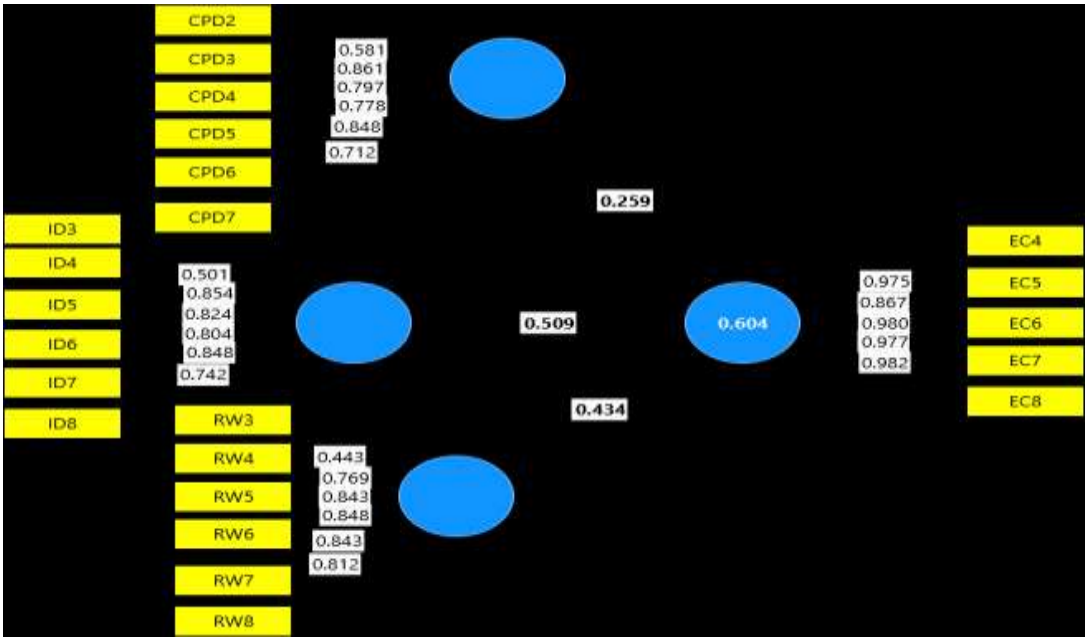

Figure 4. 11: Institutional Support and Teacher Competence

The structural equation model depicted in Figure 4.11 highlights that teacher competence, within this framework, is represented solely by ethical competence. Meanwhile, institutional support is composed of three key elements: induction, ongoing professional development, and reward systems. The analysis results, detailed in Table 4.14, include beta coefficients (β), coefficients of detemination (R^2 and adjusted R^2), t-values, and significance levels (p-values). These determination coefficients reflect how well institutional support predicts teacher competence. The investigation specifically tested three sub-hypotheses, assessing whether induction, continuous professional growth, and rewards each exert a meaningful impact on teacher competence. Table 4.14 provides the detailed parameter estimates from the structural equation modelling.

Table 4. 14: Institutional Support and Teachers' Competences

			β	T	p
ID	→	TC	0.509	11.688	0.000
CPD	→	TC	0.259	6.178	0.000
RW	→	TC	0.434	9.306	0.000

R^2 = 0.604
R^2 Adjusted = 0.601

The results of the structural equation analysis, as outlined in Table 4.14, demonstrate that each of the three components of institutional support—induction ($\beta = 0.509$, $t = 11.688$, $p < 0.05$), continuous professional development ($\beta = 0.256$, $t = 6.178$, $p < 0.05$), and rewards ($\beta = 0.434$, $t = 9.306$, $p < 0.05$) exert a positive and statistically significant effect on teacher competence. The model's adjusted R-squared value of 0.60 suggests that these institutional support factors collectively account for

approximately 60.1% of the variance in teacher competence. Among the predictors, induction emerges as the strongest contributor, followed by rewards, with continuous professional development having the least but still meaningful impact.

4.6 Institutional Support and Organisational Learning

The second hypothesis put forth in this research that institutional support exerts a substantial impact on organisational learning within government-assisted secondary schools. To examine this proposition, a structural equation model was devised. This primary hypothesis was further segmented into three targeted sub-hypotheses, which suggested that induction processes, sustained professional growth, and incentive schemes each significantly influence organisational learning. The structural equation model illustrated in Figure 4.12 offers a graphical depiction of the causal relationships and intricate linkages between institutional support and organisational learning.

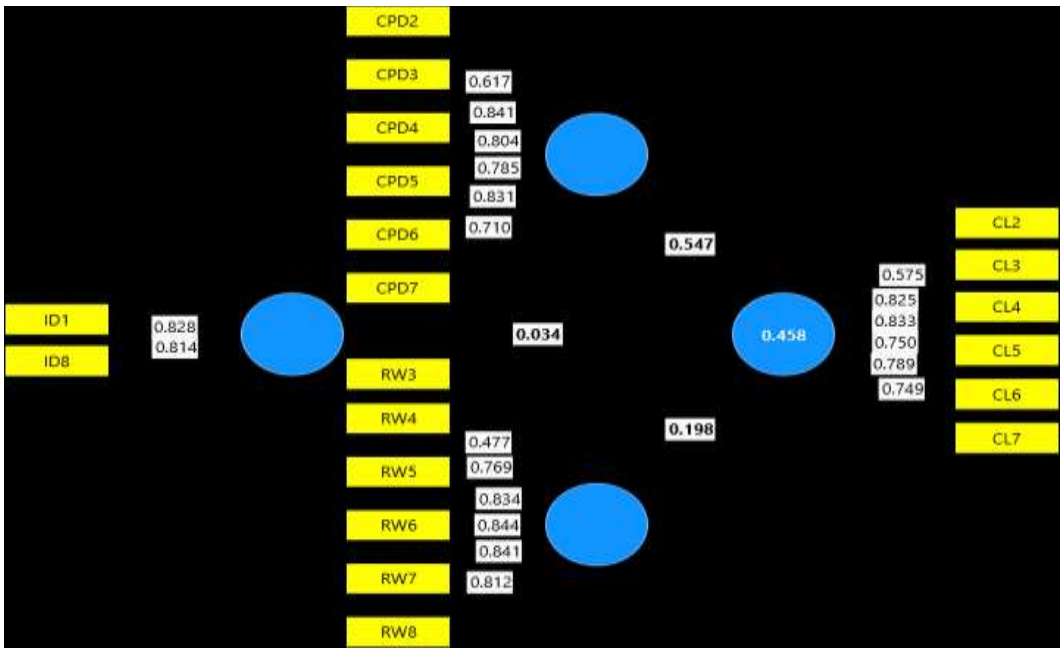

Figure 4.12: Institutional Support and Organisational learning

The structural equation model (Figure 4.12) for institutional support and organisational learning reveals that organisational comprised only ethical competence. However, organisational learning comprised induction, continuous professional development, and rewards. The findings from the model, as summarized in Table 4.18, encompass beta coefficients (β), determination coefficients (R^2 and adjusted R^2), t-values, and significance levels (p-values). The determination coefficients reflect how effectively organisational learning predicts teacher competence. Additionally, three sub-hypotheses were tested, examining whether induction, continuous professional development, and reward systems significantly impact organisational learning. Detailed structural equation parameter estimates are provided in Table 4.15.

Table 4. 15: Institutional Support and Organisational Learning

	B	T	P
CPD → OL	0.547	7.536	0.000
ID → OL	0.034	0.736	0.462
RW → OL	0.198	3.389	0.001
$R^2 = 0.458$			
R^2 Adjusted = 0.453			

The estimates from the structural equation model shown in Table 4.15 demonstrate that two facets of institutional support, continuous professional development with a beta coefficient of 0.547, a t-value of 7.536, and a p-value below 0.05, as well as rewards with a beta of 0.198, a t-value of 3.389, and a p-value below 0.05, have a significant and positive effect on organisational learning. On the other hand,

induction, which had a beta of 0.034, a t-value of 0.736, and a p-value of 0.462, exhibited a positive but statistically insignificant impact. The adjusted coefficient of determination is 0.458, indicating that together these three institutional support factors account for 45.8 percent of the variation observed in teacher competence. Focusing solely on the significant variables, continuous professional development and rewards explain 45.5 percent of this variation. Among the predictors, continuous professional development emerges as the most influential factor on organisational learning, with rewards following in importance.

4.7 Organisational Learning and Teacher Competence

The second objective of this investigation endeavored to elucidate the extent to which institutional support exerts an influence on organisational learning within government-subsidized secondary schools situated in southwestern Uganda. Conceptualized as the moderating construct within this study, organisational learning was delineated as a multifaceted phenomenon encompassing three principal dimensions: the perpetuation of continuous learning, the facilitation of dialogue and inquiry, and the cultivation of collaborative team learning. The empirical findings associated with each of these dimensions are systematically delineated in the ensuing subsections, providing a nuanced and comprehensive exposition of the variegated aspects inherent in organisational learning. Subsequently, structural equation modeling was deployed to explicate the causal pathways linking these organisational learning components with teacher competence, thereby illuminating the intricate interplay between these variables.

4.7.1 Continuous Learning

The concept of continuous learning was studied using eight indicators. The results presented in Table 4.16, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4.16: Continuous Learning

Continuous Learning	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
In my school, there is identifying of skills needed for future work tasks	14 4.3	56 17.0	38 11.6	201 61.1	20 6.1	3.48	0.97
In my school, teachers help one another to learn	5 1.5	48 14.6	28 8.5	194 59.0	54 16.4	3.74	0.96
In my school, teachers are given time to support learning	5 1.5	27 8.2	31 9.4	197 59.9	69 21.0	3.91	0.99
In my school, teachers are rewarded for learning	4 1.2	43 13.1	27 8.2	192 58.4	63 19.1	3.81	0.95
All programs and activities within my institution are systematically documented and maintained in an organized archive	3 0.9	50 15.2	23 7.0	193 58.7	60 18.2	3.78	1.14
Professional development opportunities are disseminated broadly, ensuring equitable access for all staff members	6 1.8	48 14.6	28 8.5	183 55.6	64 19.5	3.76	1.02
Teachers are actively engaged in the decision-making processes that shape the school's operations and policies	5 1.5	25 7.6	14 4.3	222 67.5	63 19.1	3.95	0.97
The school fosters an environment that values the acquisition of knowledge regarding exemplary practices and innovations occurring in peer institutions	2 0.6	49 14.9	44 13.4	201 61.1	33 10.0	3.65	0.80

Table 4.16 explored teachers' perceptions regarding whether their schools actively identified the competencies required for future professional responsibilities. The

aggregated findings revealed that a considerable proportion of respondents (67.2%) affirmed this practice, while 21.3% expressed disagreement and 11.6% remained neutral. The corresponding statistical output, reflected in a moderate mean score of 3.48 and a standard deviation of 0.97, suggests that the practice of forecasting and identifying future skill needs is present to a moderate extent across the surveyed schools. When asked whether collaborative learning among teachers was evident within their institutions, a substantial majority (75.4%) responded affirmatively, 16.1% disagreed, and 8.5% were uncertain. The relatively high mean score of 3.74 with a standard deviation of 0.96 underscores a strong culture of peer-supported learning within the teaching communities.

Regarding institutional support for teacher learning time, the responses were overwhelmingly positive, with 90.9% agreeing that their schools provided dedicated time for learning support, compared to only 9.7% who disagreed and 9.4% who were undecided. The mean score of 3.91, alongside a standard deviation of 0.99, further emphasizes the prominence of structured time allocation for professional development within these schools. In terms of recognition for learning, 77.5% of the teachers reported that their schools reward professional learning efforts, while 14.3% disagreed and 8.2% were undecided. This perception is supported by a relatively high mean score of 3.81 and a standard deviation of 0.95, indicating that rewarding learning is a moderately strong practice within these institutions.

The question concerning the systematic archiving of all school programs and activities yielded strong affirmative responses from 76.9% of the participants, with 16.1% in disagreement and 7.0% expressing indecision. The mean score of 3.78 and

standard deviation of 1.14 suggest that documentation and institutional memory are well maintained in most schools. Teachers were also asked whether opportunities for professional development were equally shared among all staff. The results show that 75.1% agreed, while 16.4% disagreed and 8.5% were neutral. A high mean score of 3.76 with a standard deviation of 1.02 indicates an equitable dissemination of professional development resources across the schools.

In terms of participatory governance, a significant majority (86.1%) of respondents confirmed that teachers are involved in the decision-making processes, with only 8.1% disagreeing and 4.3% undecided. This is substantiated by a strong mean score of 3.95 and a standard deviation of 0.97, highlighting a school culture that values teacher input in leadership and policy development. Moreover, when asked whether their schools cultivated a culture of learning from best practices and innovations observed in other educational institutions, 71.1% responded positively, 15.5% disagreed, and 13.4% remained undecided. The associated mean score of 3.65 and standard deviation of 0.80 suggest that many schools encourage external benchmarking and reflective learning from peer institutions.

To capture an overall sense of continuous learning across the participating schools, an aggregate index was calculated based on twelve individual indicators. This composite measure is visually illustrated in Figure 4.13, which presents a moderate mean level of continuous learning. The figure also reflects the normality of the response distribution, providing a graphical representation of how teachers collectively evaluated the presence and quality of continuous learning practices in their schools.

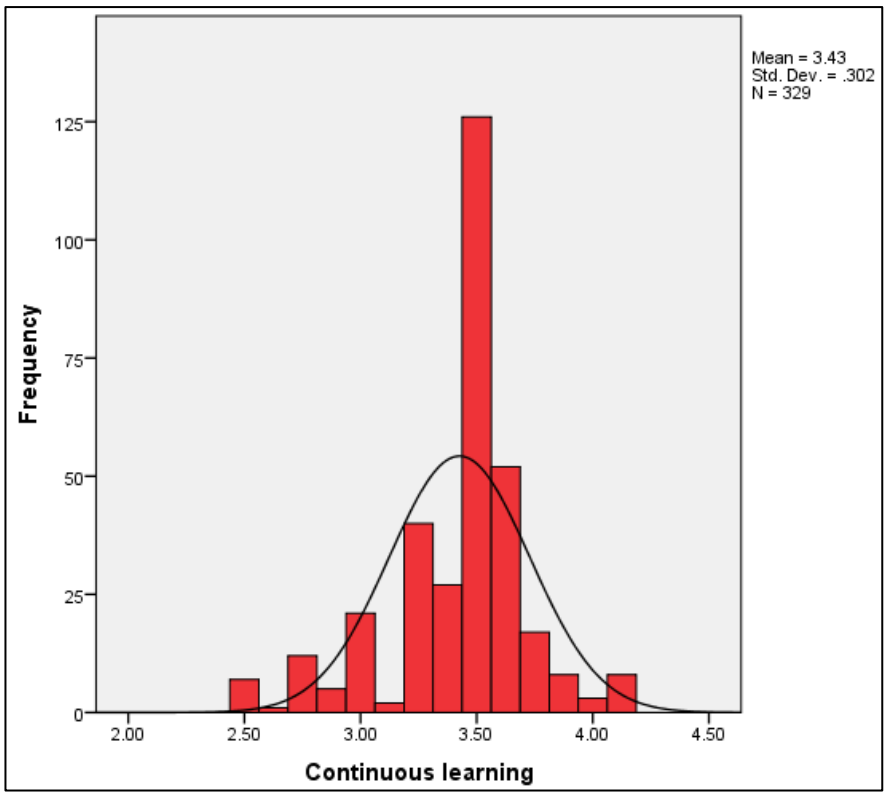

Figure 4.13: Histogram for Continuous Learning

Figure 4.13 reveals a moderate mean of 3.43, indicating that continuous learning in the schools was fairly supported. The standard deviation (SD = 0.302) is low, showing that teachers' responses were closely clustered around the mean, which suggests consistency in their perceptions. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.7.2 Dialogue and Inquiry

The concept of dialogue and inquiry was studied using five indicators. The results presented in Table 4.17, provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4.17: Dialogue and inquiry

Dialogue and inquiry	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
In my school, teachers give open and honest feedback to one another	7 2.1	87 26.4	30 9.1	176 53.5	29 8.8	3.40	0.90
In my school, people listen to others' views	9 2.7	83 25.2	36 10.9	179 54.4	22 6.7	3.37	0.95
In my organisation, teachers are encouraged to ask "why" regardless of rank	8 2.4	67 20.4	20 6.1	197 59.9	37 11.2	3.57	0.76
In my school, whenever administrators state their view, they also ask what others think	8 2.4	56 17.0	29 8.8	199 60.5	37 11.2	3.61	0.54
In my school, people have built trust with one another	3 0.9	57 17.3	27 8.2	190 57.8	52 15.8	3.70	0.91

The question in Table 4.17 inquired from teachers whether in the schools teachers gave open and honest feedback to one another. Cumulative results revealed that a higher proportion of teachers (62.3%) agreed while 28.5% disagreed and 9.1% were undecided. The moderate mean (mean = 3.40, Std = 0.90) suggested that fairly, in the school's teachers gave open and honest feedback to one another. Regarding if in the school's people listened to others' views, a higher percentage (61.1%) agreed, while 27.9% disagreed, and 10.9% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.57, Std = 0.95) suggested that in the school's people listened to others' views. With respect to whether in the school's teachers were encouraged to ask "why" regardless

of rank, the higher percentage (71.2%) agreed, while 22.8% disagreed, and 6.1% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.57, Std = 0.76) suggested that in the school's teachers were encouraged to ask "why" regardless of rank.

A majority of teachers (71.7%) reported that in the schools whenever administrators stated their views, they also ask what others thought, with 19.4% disagreeing and 8.8% undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.61, Std = 0.54) suggested in the schools whenever administrators stated their views they also ask what others thought. Regarding whether in the schools people had built trust with one another, the majority percentage (73.6%) agreed, while 18.2% disagreed and 8.2% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.70, Std = 0.91)) suggested that in the school's people had built trust with one another. To provide an overall view of dialogue and inquiry in the schools, an average index was calculated based on the 12 indicators. The resulting moderate mean is presented in Figure 4.14, indicating how teachers rated dialogue and inquiry in the schools. The figure also shows the normality of the results, providing a visual representation of the distribution of responses, with the moderate mean indicated.

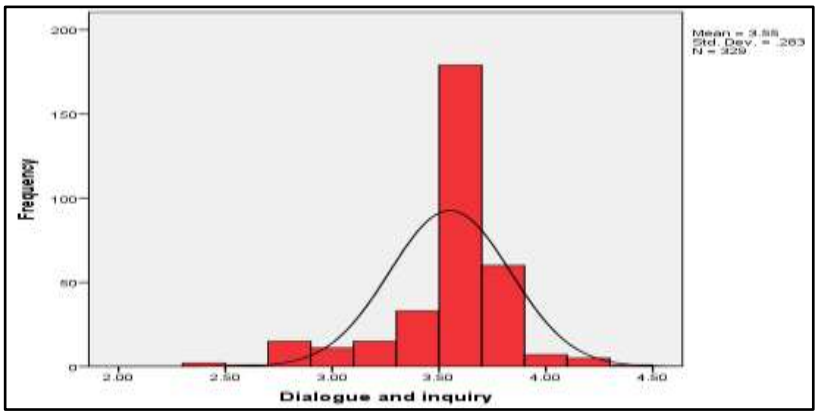

Figure 4. 14: Histogram for Dialogue and Inquiry

Figure 4.14 reveals an overall mean of 3.55, indicating that dialogue and inquiry in the schools were generally high. The standard deviation (SD = 0.283) is low, suggesting that teachers' responses were closely grouped around the mean, reflecting agreement. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.7.3 Team Learning.

The concept of team learning was studied using five indicators. The results presented in Table 4.18 provide a detailed description of the findings, including frequencies, percentages, and means.

Table 4. 18: Team Learning

Team Learning	SD	D	U	A	SA	Means	STD
In my school, teams have the freedom to adapt their goals as needed	1 0.3	32 9.7	61 18.5	200 60.8	35 10.6	3.72	0.77
In my school, members are treated as equals, regardless of rank or other differences	12 3.6	52 15.8	52 15.8	181 55.0	32 9.7	3.51	0.84
In my school, teams focus both on the group's task and on how well the group is working	4 1.2	32 9.7	38 11.6	200 60.8	55 16.7	3.82	0.76
In my school, plans are revised after group discussions	4 1.2	31 9.4	42 12.8	184 55.9	68 20.7	3.85	0.71
In my school, individuals are rewarded for their achievements	9 2.7	51 15.5	56 17.0	157 47.7	56 17.0	3.61	0.87

The question in Table 4.18 inquired from teachers whether in the schools teachers gave open and honest feedback to one another. Cumulative results revealed that a higher proportion of teachers (71.4%) agreed while 10.0% disagreed and 18.5% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.72, Std = 0.77) implied that in the schools teams had the freedom to adapt their goals as needed. Regarding if in the schools members were treated as equals, regardless of rank or other differences, a higher percentage (64.7%) agreed, while 19.1% disagreed, and 15.8% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.51, Std = 0.84) suggested that in the schools members were treated as equals, regardless of rank or other differences. With respect to whether in the schools teams focus both on the group's task and on how well the group is working, the higher percentage (77.5%) agreed, while 10.9% disagreed, and 11.6% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.82, Std = 0.76) suggested that in the school's teams focus both on the group's task and on how well the group is working.

A majority of teachers (76.5%) reported that in the school's plans were revised after group discussions, with 10.6% disagreeing and 12.8% undecided. The high mean score (mean = 3.85, Std = 0.71) suggested in the school's plans were revised after group discussions. Regarding whether in the school's individuals were rewarded for their achievements, the majority percentage (64.7%) agreed, while 18.2% disagreed and 17.0% were undecided. The high mean (mean = 3.61, Std = 0.87) suggested that in the school's individuals were rewarded for their achievements. To provide an overall view of team learning in the schools, an average index was calculated based on the 12 indicators. The resulting moderate

mean is presented in Figure 4.15, indicating how teachers rated team learning in the schools. The figure also shows the normality of the results, providing a visual representation of the distribution of responses, with the moderate mean indicated.

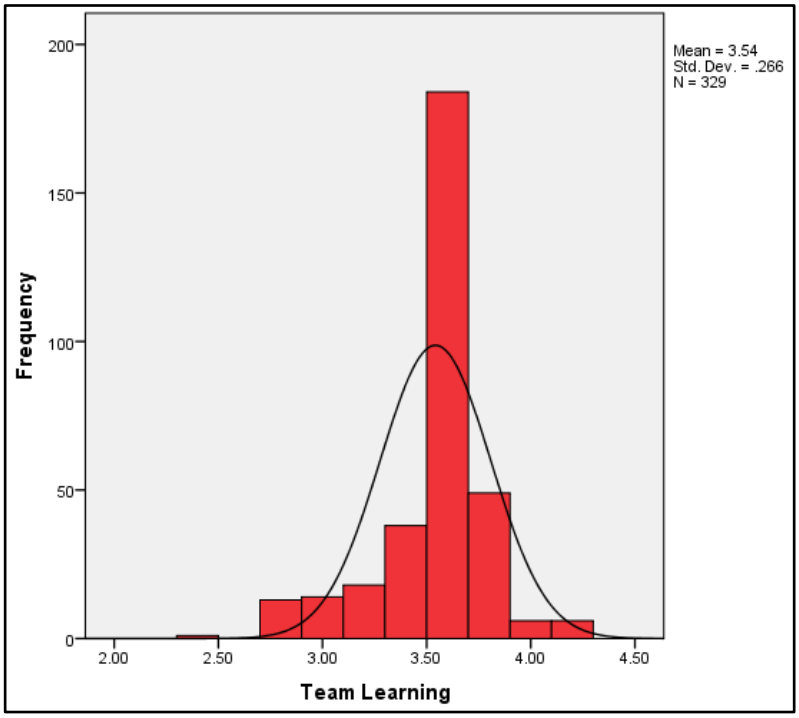

Figure 4. 15: Histogram for Team Learning

Figure 4.15 reveals an overall mean of 3.54, indicating that team learning in the schools was generally high. The standard deviation (SD = 0.266) is low, suggesting that responses were closely clustered around the mean, reflecting consistency in teachers' perceptions. The curve shown in the histogram indicated linearity in the distribution of responses. This linear pattern suggested that the data followed a normal distribution, which is important because it satisfied one of the key assumptions for applying parametric statistical tests, specifically lieanr correlation and regression. As a result, the data was deemed appropriate for further statistical analysis and could be interpreted with confidence.

4.7.4 Organisational Learning Model.

To identify the measures of organisational learning, a structural equation model was developed for the same. Figure 4.16 shows the indicators measuring organisational learning identified.

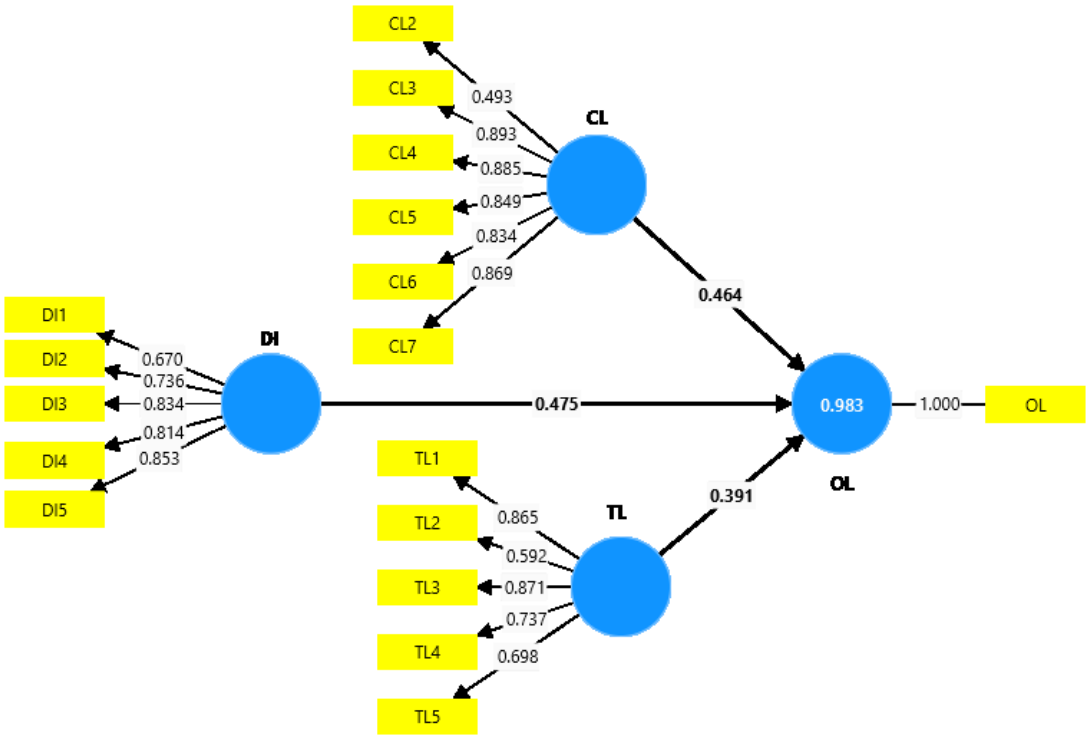

Figure 4. 16: Organisational Learning Model Structural Equation Model

The results in Figure 4.16 reveal that organisational learning was a multi-dimensional variable consisting of three key aspects: continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team learning. Factor analysis retained six indicators (CLI2-CL7) out of eight for continuous learning, dropping CL1 and CL8. For dialogue and inquiry, all the five indcators (DI1-DI5) were retained and also for team learning, all the five indicators (TL1-TL5) were retained. The retained indicators had factor loadings above 0.40, which is the minimum acceptable threshold. This means that

the selected indicators accurately measure their respective constructs, and together, these three constructs effectively explain organisational learning.

4.7.5 Structural Model for Organisational Learning and Teacher Competence

The third hypothesis advanced in this study that organisational learning significantly affects teacher competence within government-aided secondary schools. To empirically evaluate this claim, a structural equation model was constructed. This overarching hypothesis was further deconstructed into three specific sub-hypotheses, each asserting that continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team-based learning exert a meaningful influence on teacher competence. The structural equation model presented in Figure 4.17 offers a visual depiction of the hypothesised causal pathways, illustrating the intricate interrelations between the dimensions of organisational learning and the construct of teacher competence.

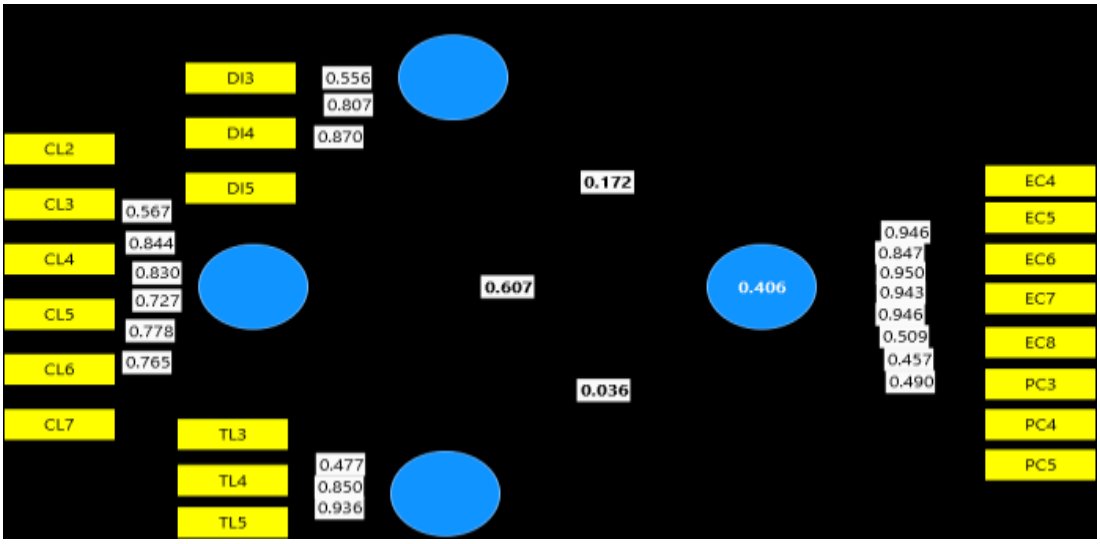

Figure 4.17: Organisational Learning and Teacher Competence

The structural equation model (Figure 4.17) for organisational learning and teacher competence reveals that teaching competence comprised ethical and professional competence. However, organisational learning comprised continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry and team learning. The model results (Table 4.19) include beta coefficients (βs), coefficients of determination (R2 and adjusted R2), t statistics and the p-values. The coefficients of determination indicate the predictive power of organisational learning on teacher competence. Three sub-hypotheses to the effect that continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry and team learning have a significant influence on teacher competence were examined. Table 4.19 presents structural equation estimates.

Table 4.19: Organisational Learning and Teachers Competence

	β	**T**	**P**
CL ⟶ TC	0.607	13.191	0.000
DI ⟶ TC	0.172	3.283	0.001
TL ⟶ TC	0.036	0.666	0.506
R^2 = 0.406			
R^2 Adjusted = 0.401			

Key: *CL =Continuous learning, CPD = DI = Dialogue and inquiry, P= probability value, T- test, TC = Teaching Competence, TL = Team Learning.*

The structural equation model findings, as detailed in Table 4.19, reveal that two dimensions of organisational learning, namely continuous learning and dialogue and inquiry, demonstrated a statistically significant and positive influence on teacher competence. Continuous learning recorded a beta coefficient of 0.509, a t-value of 11.688, and a p-value of 0.000, while dialogue and inquiry showed a beta coefficient of 0.256, a t-value of 6.178, and a p-value of 0.000. These results indicate that both

factors are meaningful contributors to the enhancement of teacher competence. In contrast, the variable representing team learning yielded a beta coefficient of 0.036, a t-value of 0.666, and a p-value of 0.506, indicating that although the relationship was positive, it was not statistically significant. The overall explanatory power of the model is reflected in the adjusted R-squared value of 0.401, suggesting that the three organisational learning elements collectively explain approximately 40.1 percent of the variance in teacher competence. Among these, continuous learning emerged as the strongest predictor, followed by dialogue and inquiry, while team learning made a negligible contribution.

4.8 Mediating Effect of Organisational Learning on Institutional Support and Teacher Competence

The fourth objective of the research focused on exploring the extent to which organisational learning acts as an intermediary variable in the connection between institutional support and teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools. The associated hypothesis proposed that organisational learning plays a mediating role in shaping the influence institutional support exerts on teachers' professional competence. This relationship is illustrated through the structural equation model presented in Figure 4.18, which visually captures how organisational learning channels the impact of institutional support toward enhancing teacher competence.

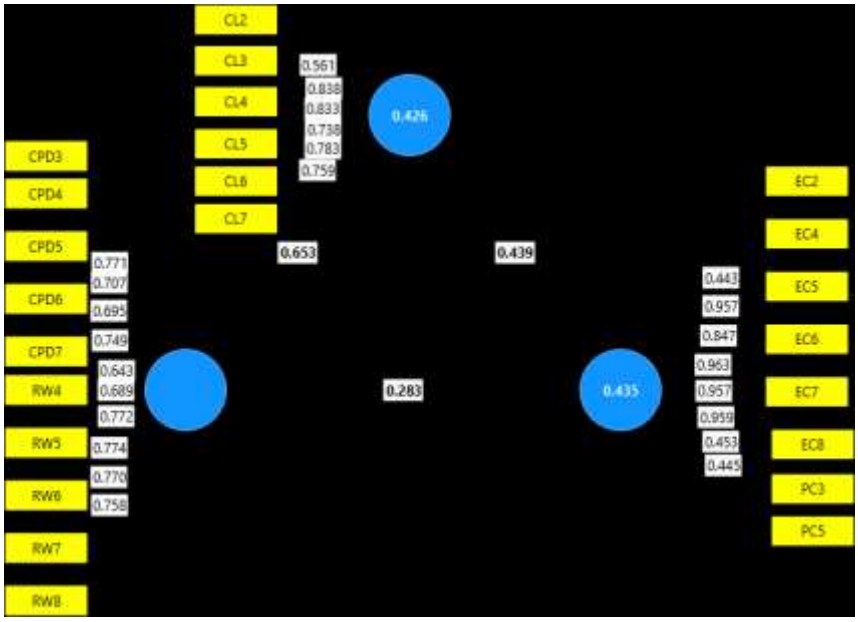

Figure 4.18: Mediating Effect of Organisational Learning on Institutional Support and Teacher Competence Structural Model

The structural equation model depicted in Figure 4.18 illustrates the mediating role of organisational learning in the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence within government-aided secondary schools. In this model, institutional support is represented by elements such as continuous professional development and reward systems, while organisational learning encompasses continuous learning practices. Teacher competence, as the outcome variable, is operationalised through ethical and professional dimensions. The statistical outputs associated with this model are summarised in Table 4.20, which includes beta coefficients, coefficients of determination (R^2 and adjusted R^2), t-values, and significance levels (p-values). The coefficients of determination provide insight into the predictive strength of the relationships among the variables. Table 4.20 presents the detailed structural equation estimates that underpin the model.

Table 4.20: Mediating Effect of Organisational Learning on Organisational Learning and Teacher Competence Path Estimates

	β	T	P
IS → OL	0.653	13.736	0.000
IS → TC	0.283	4.077	0.000
OL → TC	0.439	6.083	0.000
IS → OL → TC	0.287	5.965	0.000
	R-square adjusted		
OL	0.425		
TC	0.432		

Key: Institutional support, Organisational learning, Teacher competence

The structural equation estimates presented in Table 4.20 demonstrate that institutional support exerted a significant and positive effect on organisational learning, with a beta coefficient of 0.653, a t-value of 13.736, and a p-value of 0.000, confirming statistical significance at the conventional threshold. Furthermore, institutional support directly influenced teacher competence in a positive and significant manner, as reflected by a beta coefficient of 0.283, a t-value of 4.077, and a p-value of 0.000. Organisational learning also had a statistically significant positive effect on teacher competence, evidenced by a beta value of 0.439, a t-value of 6.083, and a p-value of 0.000. In terms of the indirect effects, the results revealed that the pathway through which institutional support influenced teacher competence via organisational learning was both positive and statistically significant. This mediated effect produced a beta coefficient of 0.287, a t-value of 5.965, and a p-value of 0.000. The presence of significant results for both the direct and indirect effects indicates that organisational learning served as a full mediator in the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence. The explanatory power of the mediation model is confirmed by an adjusted R-squared value of 0.432,

indicating that institutional support, when mediated by organisational learning, accounts for 43.2 percent of the observed variation in teacher competence. Consequently, the findings confirm that institutional support influences teacher competence primarily through the mechanism of organisational learning. Collectively, these outcomes provide empirical support for all four hypotheses tested in the study, from H1 through H4

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study's key findings, the discussion of the results, conclusions drawn from the findings, and the resulting recommendations. The discussion critically examines the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence, with a specific focus on the mediating role of organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools in southwestern Uganda. Findings are contextualised within existing literature to identify consistencies or deviations, thereby contributing to a broader understanding of how institutional dynamics shape teacher performance. The chapter also outlines the study's implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research..

5.1 Summary of the Findings

This section highlights the key findings provides. It provides an overview of the teachers' assessment of their perceived own competence, the level of support they received from their schools, and their engagement with organisational learning.

5.1.1 Teacher Competence

Teacher competence was evaluated considering ethical competence, pedagogical competence, subject matter competence, and assessment and evaluation. The results showed that teachers rated themselves as fairly competent in ethical and subject matter areas, with mean score of 3.40 for both. However, they rated their pedagogical (mean = 3.60) and assessment and evaluation competence (mean =

3.62) high. Overall, the teachers perceived their competence as high (mean = 3.54), indicating a strong sense of competence. While there is room for improvement in ethical and subject matter competence, the teachers excelled in using effective pedagogical approaches and assessment strategies, showcasing their strengths in these areas.

5.1.2 Institutional Support and Teacher Competence

Institutional support the independent variable was studied in terms of induction, continuous professional development, and rewards. The results showed in the schools' induction (mean = 3.55), and rewards were (mean = 3.50) were high. However, continuous professional development was fair (mean = 3.31). Test results for the different constructs in relation to teacher competence revealed that induction ($\beta = 0.509$, $t = 11.688$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), continuous professional development ($\beta = 0.256$, $t = 6.178$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), and rewards ($\beta = 0.434$, $t = 9.306$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) have a positive and significant influence on teacher competence. The adjusted R-squared value (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.60$) indicates that these three institutional support elements collectively explain 60.1% of the variation in teacher competence. The overall test results revealed that induction ($\beta = 0.509$, $t = 11.688$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), continuous professional development ($\beta = 0.256$, $t = 6.178$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), and rewards ($\beta = 0.434$, $t = 9.306$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) have a positive and significant influence on teacher competence. Overall, institutional support ($\beta = 0.283$, $t = 4.077$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) had a positive significant influence teacher competence. The beta coefficients (β) show that induction has the most significant influence on teacher

competence, followed by rewards and continuous professional development, respectively.

5.1.3 Institutional Support and Organisational Learning

To determine the influence of institutional support first and organisational learning, first the institutional variables of induction, continuous professional development and rewards were related to organisational learning. The results revealed that continuous professional development ($\beta = 0.547$, $t = 7.536$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) and rewards ($\beta = 0.198$, $t = 3.389$, $p = 0.001 < 0.05$) had a positive and significant impact on organisational learning. However, induction ($\beta = 0.034$, $t = 0.736$, $p = 0.462 > 0.05$) had a positive and significant impact on organisational learning. The beta coefficients (β) show that continuous professional development had the most significant influence on organisational learning followed by rewards. Overall, the influence of institutional support on teacher competence ($\beta = 0.287$, $t = 5.965$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) was positively and significantly mediated by organisational learning.

5.1.4 Organisational Learning and Teacher Competence

Organisational learning the mediating variable was studied in terms of continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team learning. Descriptive results showed that continuous learning was fair (mean = 3.43) but dialogue and inquiry (mean = 3.55) and team learning was fair (mean = 3.54) were high. Test results for the different constructs in relation to teacher competence revealed that continuous learning ($\beta = 0.509$, $t = 11.688$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) and dialogue and inquiry ($\beta = 0.256$, $t = 6.178$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) had a positive and significant influence on teacher competence. However, team learning ($\beta = 0.036$, $t = 0.666$, $p = 0.506 > 0.05$) had a positive but

insignificant influence on teacher competence. The beta coefficients (β) show that continuous learning had the most significant influence on teacher competence followed by dialogue and inquiry.

5.1.5 Mediating Effect of Organisational Learning on Institutional Support and Teacher competence

The indirect results revealed that the influence of institutional support on teacher competence ($\beta = 0.287$, $t = 5.965$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) was positively and significantly mediated by organisational learning. With both the direct and indirect influence being positive and significant, organisational learning fully mediated the influence of institutional support on teacher competence.

5.2 Discussion of the Findings

This section delves into the discussion of the research findings, starting with an analysis of the dependent variable of teacher competence. The findings are then examined in relation to the independent variable of institutional support in relation to teacher competence mediated by organisational learning. The discussion is structured around the study objectives, with key ideas emerging from the data. By exploring the findings in a logical and systematic way, this section uncovers meaningful insights that were the basis for conclusions and recommendations.

5.2.1 Teacher Competence

Descriptive results revealed that teacher competence studied in terms of ethical competence, pedagogical competence, subject matter competence and assessment and evaluation was high. This finding was contrary to the premise this study was

developed that teacher competence in secondary schools. Contextual evidence had revealed that teachers' competence was with most teachers' not upholding professionalism evidenced by professional conduct like drunkenness while on duty, missing lessons without recovering them, tardiness, and teaching without preparation and planning (Zikanga et al., 2021). Further, teachers have been reported to exhibit low pedagogical competences by using inadequate teaching methods specifically teacher-centred approaches other than student-centred approaches which develop students' cognition (Byaruhanga, 2018; Zikanga et al., 2021; Mucunguzi, 2018). Also, teachers were reported to exhibit low assessment competence with many failing to assess students work in time (Byaruhanga, 2018). However, with the findings of the study being contrary to the contextual evidence on which this study was based, it can be surmised the empirical evidence was contrary to the perceptions among different stakeholders.

5.2.2 Institutional Support and Teacher Competence

The objective on these variables sought to investigate the influence of institutional support on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda. The objective led to the hypothesis that institutional support has a significant influence on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools. Test results revealed that institutional support had a significant influence on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools. This finding was consistent with the propositions of the Perceived Organisational Theory (POST) that guided this study which contended that when employees perceive that the institution is committed to making them better through support actions such as inductions,

rewards, and continuous professional development (CPD), their competence levels will increase (Maan et al., 2020). Accordingly, POST emphasises the significance of organisational support in creating a positive work environment, motivating employees, and enhancing employee competence. By providing resources and support, organisations demonstrate their investment in employees' growth and well-being, leading to increased job satisfaction, performance, and commitment and competence growth.

The finding of the study was also consistent with previous scholars such as Chen et al. (2019) who reported that reinforcing organisational support positively influenced the new performance of frontline workers suggesting that support enhanced their competences. In the same vein, Falola et al. (2020) investigated the influence of institutional support strategies on the effectiveness of faculty members in selected public universities in Nigeria. Their analysis revealed that institutional support to faculty members enhanced their job performance effectiveness, indicating that institutional support enhanced staff competences, resulting in improved job performance. Also, Jehanzeb (2020) revealed that perceived organisational support was associated with employee development which encompasses competences development. Relatedly, Sitindaon et al. (2021) found out the support of the organisation affected the competence of employees. Also, Yang and Zhou (2022) established that perceived organisational support had a significant positive impact on the creativity of science-technology talents and innovative self-efficacy. This meant that perceived organisational support improved work competences of workers. With the finding of the study consistent with the

findings of previous studies, it can be inferred that institutional support has a positive significant discernable influence on employee competence. Therefore, institutional support in terms of school support enhanced competence of teachers.

Further, it should be noted that for each of the measures of institutional support that are namely, induction, employee continuous development and rewards they were examined on how each independently influenced teacher competence. With respect to the aspect of induction, test results showed that it had a positive and significant influence on teachers' competence. This finding was consistent with Adeogun et al. (2018) who reported that induction promoted enhanced new comers' effectiveness and improves learning skills of academic staff. Relatedly, Aarts et al. (2020) revealed that support received during induction enhanced their competence by enabling them to overcome challenges including worries about conducting of lessons and transiting to their professional teacher role. In the same vein, Baker (2018) indicated that socialisation of new employees with their senior colleagues lead to knowledge sharing enhancing the competences of newcomers. Also, Dapper and Ezenwuba (2019) found out that induction including task induction was a critical factor that facilitates positive work behaviour of employees. Such positive work behaviour included employee competence.

Consistently, Edeh and Dan-jumbo (2019) reported that organisational induction had a positive significant relationship with employee spontaneous behaviour including employees' competence. In the same vein, Eisenschmidt and Poom-Valickis (2020) indicated that the induction year was an opportunity for strengthening professional development of teachers and workplace learning in

schools. Accordingly, teachers' professionalism was enhanced by increasing collaboration among teachers. Apparently, relationship between the beginning teachers and senior colleagues enhanced cooperation with their colleagues' hence higher professional competence. Also, Frederiksen (2020) revealed that induction improved teachers' competences. This involved counteracting burnout, strengthening teacher resilience and thereby facilitating continuing professional development and a firm foothold in the job as a teacher. Similarly, Hagos et al. (2019) established that adequacy of induction for fresh teachers enhanced their competence in terms of teacher professional development.

Further, consistent with the finding of the study, Jeske and Olson (2022) revealed that organisation induction allows new employees much greater degree of flexibility, customization and personalization. Accordingly, induction help new employees to successfully complete work and achieve important organisational goals needs because of reduced the stress experienced. Thus, organisation induction allows the new employees to complete their work and assignments in ways that optimize their unique talents. Relatedly, Köybasi and Ugurlu (2019) revealed that during the first months teacher candidates had the most intense emotional responses towards the teaching profession such as excitement, warmly welcome and nervousness. Therefore, induction improved teachers' competence in terms of teaching methods by learning from their more experienced colleagues. In the same vein, Lan et al. (2022) reported that knowledge sharing during group induction led to job clarity meaning that group induction enhanced competences of employees which lead to job clarity.

Consistently, Liao et al. (2022) found out that organisational induction directly promotes team innovation because of employees' enhanced competence. Similarly, Mintz (2019) found out that induction led to relative increases in self-efficacy and teacher competence and that these increases persisted in the novice teacher. Relatedly, Mukomana (2021) indicated that teacher remuneration was linked to all aspects of quality teaching like pedagogical competence. Also, Njegovan and Kostić (2014) revealed that organisation induction contributed to the success of employees and enables the relations among employees to be harmonized depending on the quality of their social integration in the enterprise, and is reflected on productivity, performing the roles and building attitudes. Further, Olsen et al. (2020) revealed that induction programs for newly trained teachers improved teachers' competences by equipping them with tacit knowledge from instruction by their more experienced colleagues and imitating them. In the same vein, Onyemaechi and Ikpeazu (2019) revealed existence of a positive and significant relationship between group induction from mentors and knowledge transfer which resulted in competence development of new employees.

Further still, the finding was consistent with Ratković-Njegovan and Kostić (2014) revealed that induction including task induction enabled effective functioning in various social situations by leading to professional competence and understanding the job role, ability to communicate effectively, understanding themselves and the others, accepting organisational and work norms, and emotional regulation. In the same vein, Symeonidis et al. (2023) reported that induction enhanced newly qualified teachers' competences in terms of teaching and classroom

management competences. With the finding of the study being consistent with the findings of the previous scholars, it can be adduced that induction is imperative for teachers' competences development.

Concerning the aspect of continuous professional development, test results showed that it had a positive and significant influence on teachers' competence. This finding was consistent with Bruns et al. (2017) who reported that continuous professional development affected teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. Accordingly, continuous professional development affected teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. Similarly, Cirocki and Farrell (2019) revealed that CPD activities gave teachers the necessary underpinnings to mediate their teaching activities, respond to their students' needs, and develop their teaching competencies appropriately. Relatedly, Ghazvini et al. (2014) found CPD sessions had a favourable effect on teaching competences. Also, Gore et al. (2017) revealed that professional development had significant positive effects on teaching quality because of teachers' enhanced competences. In the same vein, Hasha and Wadesango (2020) found that CPD of educators was regarded as crucial in developing professional skills. Relatedly, Jennings et al. (2017) indicated that continuous professional development for teachers was effective in enhancing teachers' professional competence in terms of social and emotional competence and increasing the quality of classroom interaction.

Further, consistent with the finding of the study, Kasule et al. (2016) found that events like symposia, seminars, and professional networks which are essential parts of CPD were significant in enhancing teaching competence. In the same vein,

Peleman et al. (2018) revealed that long-term continuous development interventions integrated into practice such as pedagogical guidance and coaching in reflection groups were effective in enhancing teachers' competences. Also, Rich et al. (2021) indicated that continuous development enhanced competence of teachers by improving their teaching efficacy. Similarly, Sudirman (2017) revealed that continuous professional development increased the motivation of teachers in preparing lesson plans with teachers demonstrating seriousness in understanding and preparing lesson plans. Thus, continuous development increased the competence of teachers in preparing lesson plans. With the finding of the study consistent with previous scholars, it can be surmised that continuous professional development is imperative for development of teachers' competences.

Regarding the aspect of rewards, test results showed that it had a positive and significant influence on teachers' competence. This finding was consistent with De Ree et al. (2018) that pay increase for teachers significantly improved their satisfaction with their income, reduced the incidence of holding outside jobs, and self-reported financial stress definitely translating into higher job competence. Relatedly, Gümüs (2022) revealed that providing better salaries was imperative for enhancement of twenty-first-century competencies of teachers. Also, Idris et al. (2017) revealed that that financial and non-financial compensation had a positive and significant effect on the competence of professionalism. In the same vein, Mukomana (2021) reported that teacher remuneration was linked to all aspects of quality teaching that pedagogical competence.

Further, Mustafa and Ali (2019) revealed that monetary rewards were positively related to employee professional competence in terms of autonomous motivation. Also, Obulejo (2019) observed that there was a substantial positive significant association between rewards and the performance of science teachers in schools. Relatedly, Orji and Abolarin (2012) revealed that enhancement of teachers' welfare packages was positively significantly linked to improving teacher competence and quality of classroom instruction. Therefore, with the finding of the study being supported by all previous scholars, it can be deduced that rewards to teachers are necessary for their improved competence.

5.2.3 Institutional Support and Organisational Learning

The objective on these variables sought to establish the influence of institutional support on organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda. The objective led to the hypothesis that institutional support has a significant influence organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools. Test results revealed that institutional support had a significant influence on organisational learning in government-aided secondary schools. This finding was agreed with the propositions of the Perceived Organisational Theory (POST) that guided this study which contended that when employees perceive that the institution is committed to making them better through support actions such as inductions, rewards, and continuous professional development (CPD), their organisational learning will increase (Tian et al., 2018). The finding was also in agreement with the findings of previous scholars. For example, Gil and Mataveli (2016) revealed

that the institutional factor of rewards had a significant relationship with organisational learning.

Further, the finding agreed with Khan and Khan (2019) who reported that institutional support had a positive impact on organisational learning and knowledge sharing and had a significant impact on employee innovation. Relatedly, the finding agreed with Law and Cao (2020) who found out that that individual and organisational factors including supportive organisational environment facilitated organisational learning. In the same vein, Chiva-Gómez (2004) reported that formal structures such as organised training systems influenced organisational learning. Also, Lin and Sanders (2017) revealed that institutional support including recruitment practices, performance pay, job rotation and training predicted organisational learning. Similarly, Oh and Han (2020) established that institutional support in form of organisational culture has a significant effect on organisational learning.

Further, the finding agreed with Real et al. (2014) who reported that organisational orientation including training programmes influenced organisational learning. Similarly, Shilviani and Riyanto (2022) revealed that organisational learning in form of training to employees developed and improved employee knowledge, skills and abilities that are in accordance with the needs and abilities of employees. Accordingly, organisational learning programmes enhanced employee competences leading to performance of the employees as individuals. In the same vein, Soomro et al. (2021) revealed that strategic factors including supportive leadership and environment had a positive significant influence on organisational

learning. Also, Srirahayu et al. (2022) established that institutional support including intrinsic reward for staff was a significant antecedent of organisational learning. Relatedly, Tsui et al. (2017) indicated that that institutional support in terms of mentorship, consultation and coaching predicted organisational learning. Thence, with the finding of the study agreeing with the findings of previous scholars, it can be affirmed that institutional support promotes teachers' competences.

5.2.4 Organisational Learning and Teachers Competence

The objective on these variables sought to determine the influence of organisational learning on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda. The objective led to the hypothesis that Organisational learning has a significant influence on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools. Test results revealed that organisational learning had a significant influence on teachers' competences in government-aided secondary schools. This finding concurred with the propositions of the organisational learning theory organisational learning enhances the performance competences of workers, leading to increased innovativeness (Wilkens et al., 2004). The finding also agreed with previous scholars such as Cik et al. (2020) who reported that organisational learning had a positive significant influence on employee competence. Relatedly, Ermawati and Syahlan (2021) revealed that training had a significant and positive effect on employee competencies.

In the same vein, Grosemans et al. (2020) found out that work related learning influenced employees' performance ability of self-efficacy which implied employee competence. Also, Kyndt and Baert (2013) revealed that organisational

learning had a positive relationship with employee self-efficacy, and career-related variables of the employee such as skills development. Therefore, organisational learning influenced employee competence. In the same vein, Lapteva et al. (2019) reported that here was a significant relation between the self-learning and employee professional skills. Hence, learning in organisations leads to employee competence. Relatedly, Masra et al. (2020) indicated that organisational learning had a direct positive effect on self-efficacy which is synonymous with teacher competence. In the same vein, Oh and Han (2020) showed that organisational learning influence employee performance which suggested high employee competence.

Further, the finding concurred with Song et al. (2018) who established that organisational learning had positive impacts on teachers' self-efficacy which is synonymous with teachers' competence. Also, Tan and Olaore (2022) revealed that organisational learning had a significant effect on employee effectiveness which suggested that organisational learning influences employee competences. Similarly, Tamayo-Torres et al. (2016) revealed that organisational learning enhanced the competence of managers positively influencing their decisions to adapt their organisations to changes in dynamic environments. Similarly, Vega-Gómez et al. (2020) indicated that investment in training and the cultivation of skills and attitudes constitute the most relevant factors for skill development hence employee competence development. In the same vein, Werlang and Rossetto (2019) revealed that organisational learning had a positive and direct influence on organisational innovativeness. This meant that organisational innovativeness improved employees' competences hence innovativeness. With the finding of the study concurring with

all the previous scholars, it can be deduced that organisational learning significantly influences teachers' competence.

On the other hand, it should be noted that for each of the measures of organisational learning that are namely, continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team learning they were examined on how each independently influenced teacher competence. With respect to the aspect of continuous learning, test results showed that it had a positive and significant influence on teachers' competence. This finding was concurred with Achdiat et al. (2021) who reported that organisational learning culture led to information acquisition, distribution, interpretation and dissemination were leading to innovation. Therefore, learning culture improved the competences of employees leading innovation in fulfilment of their responsibilities. Also, Bibi and Akram (2022) revealed that organisational learning culture had a positive significant effect on school effectiveness. This was because of improvement in the competences of teachers. Similarly, da Fonseca et al. (2019) revealed that continuous learning environment was related to competitive advantage, innovation and competition. This meant that continuous learning enhanced employee competence hence competitive advantage, innovation and competition.

Further, the fining concurred with Halmaghi and Todăriță (2023) who revealed that by encouraging and supporting employees to learn and develop new skills, organisations can create a culture of continuous learning and growth. Accordingly, organisations that implement a continuous learning culture makes employees to become agile, and innovative. Therefore, learning culture enhances

employee competence by making them agile, and innovative. In the same vein, Purwanto et al. (2023) revealed that learning culture of organisations had a significant effect on innovation capacity. This meant that organisational learning culture improved competences of employees hence innovation capacity. Also, Sharma and Sharma (2016) reported that continuous learning culture had a positive and significant impact on training effectiveness hence improved employees' competences. With the study's finding concurring with all previous scholars, it can be confirmed that continuous learning enhances competence of employees including teachers.

With respect to dialogue and inquiry, test results also showed that it had a positive and significant influence on teacher competence. This finding concurred with Park (2022) who revealed that dialogue and inquiry in form of inform communication improved employees competence leading to creative performance of employees. Also, Su et al. (2019) reported that supervisor developmental feedback influenced employee innovation behaviour by establishing creative self-efficacy. Therefore, dialogue and inquiry in organisations in form of feedback influence employee competence. In the same vein, Liu and Xiang (2018) concurred that feedback had a positive significant impact on employee learning in the workplace. Therefore, dialogue and inquiry led to employee learning which enhances employee competence. With the finding of the study in line with the suggestions of previous scholars, it can be confirmed that dialogue and inquiry are related to employee competence.

Regarding teaming learning, test results also indicated that it had a positive but significant influence on teacher competence. This finding was contrary to the findings of previous scholars. For example, Li et al. (2023) indicated that team learning climate had a significant positive effect on knowledge integration capability and innovation performance. This implied that team learning influenced employee competences hence employee innovative performance. Relatedly, Lundkvist and Gustavsson (2018) revealed that workplace development programmes including team learning led to competence development. Also, Salas (2008) indicated existence of positive relationships between team training interventions and outcome including team cognitive, affective, process, and performance outcomes. This suggested that team learning enhanced team competences leading to team cognitive, affective, process, and performance outcomes.

Further, Widmann and Mulder (2020) established that team learning behaviours had a positive effect on effectiveness, efficiency and innovativeness. Hence, team learning behaviours affected employee competences leading to performance effectiveness, efficiency and innovativeness. Relatedly, Wiese and Burke (2019) revealed that team learning outcomes led to changes in collective knowledge. However, with the finding of the study of study being contrary to the findings of previous scholars, it can be deduced that the influence is not definite and thus depends on the context. This contradiction offers a starting point for further exploring the relationship between the variables. Besides, limited studies had explored the relationship and most of them obliquely alluded to the variables.

5.2.5 Institutional Support and Teacher Competences Mediated by Organisational Learning

The objective on these variables sought to test the mediating effect of organisational learning on the influence of institutional support on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools in south western Uganda. The objective led to the hypothesis that organisational learning has mediating effect on the influence of institutional support on teacher competence in government-aided secondary schools. Test results indicated that the influence of institutional support on teacher competence was positively and significantly fully mediated by organisational learning. This finding is supported by previous scholars. For example, Kumar et al. (2023) revealed that organisational learning significantly mediated institutional support and organisational performance which pointed to employee competence. Khan and Khan (2019) revealed that institutional support in terms of transformational leadership indirectly influenced employee innovation via organisational learning and knowledge sharing. Employee innovation obliquely pointed to employee competence.

Further, Oh and Kuchinke (2017) reported that organisational learning fully mediated the relationships between institutional support factors of leadership, people focus, process management, and organisational performance. However, employee competence in their study was obliquely indicated by organisational performance as it results from employee competence. In the same vein, Ladyshewsky and Taplin (2018) revealed that the relationship between the institutional factor of coaching and self-efficacy was mediated by organisational

learning. With the finding of the study supported by previous scholars, it can be affirmed that the influence of institutional support on teacher competence was positively and significantly fully mediated by organisational learning.

5.3 Conclusions

The discussion and summary of findings on institutional support and teacher competence mediated by organisational learning presented above led to the following conclusions;

1. Institutional support is important for the development of teacher competence, which can be achieved through three key elements that are induction, continuous professional development, and rewards. Induction encompasses making new teachers understand what their supervisors expect from them, familiarizing them with school guidelines, policies, and practices, and briefing them on how to act consistently with the principles and values. Continuous professional development involves providing mentors, performance feedback, opportunities for acting in different responsibilities, supporting further studies, and availing opportunities for seminars, workshops, and training in contemporary technologies. Rewards encompass paying teachers regular allowances, recognising exceptional performance, making teachers feel valued, addressing their needs, and appreciating their successful performance, ultimately fostering a supportive environment that promotes teacher growth, development, and effectiveness.

2. Institutional support is essential for organisational learning, and this is particularly evident when teachers are provided with continuous professional

development and rewards. Continuous professional development encompasses a range of opportunities, including mentorship, performance feedback, and chances to take on diverse responsibilities. It also involves supporting further education, seminars, workshops, and training in cutting-edge technologies. Rewards, on the other hand, include regular allowances, recognition of exceptional performance, making teachers feel valued and appreciated, addressing their needs, and acknowledging their successful performance. By providing these forms of institutional support, schools can create a supportive environment that fosters organisational learning necessary for teacher effectiveness.

3. Organisational learning particularly continuous learning and dialogue and inquiry are vital for teacher competence. Continuous learning occurs when teachers collaborate, share knowledge, and are given time and resources to develop their skills. This includes archiving successful programs, sharing professional development opportunities, and involving teachers in decision-making processes. Additionally, dialogue and inquiry flourish when leaders encourage questions, value teacher feedback, and foster a trusting environment.

4. Organisational learning plays a crucial role in supporting teacher competence by facilitating institutional support. When schools foster a culture of continuous learning, open dialogue and inquiry, and team learning, they create an environment that supports teacher growth and development. This, in turn, enables the provision of effective induction programs, continuous professional

development opportunities, and meaningful rewards, all of which enhance teacher competence.

5.4 Recommendations

The findings and conclusions drawn from the analysis of data on institutional support and teacher competence mediated by organisational learning led to the following recommendations:

1. The Ministry of Education and Sports, along with head teachers and key stakeholders including Boards of Governors, prioritize the establishment of robust institutional support systems that enhance teacher competence. This can be achieved by implementing structured induction programs, promoting sustained professional development initiatives, and introducing effective reward mechanisms to motivate and support teachers' continuous growth.. Induction should include mechanisms for familiarizing new teachers with school guidelines, policies, and practices, clarifying supervisors' expectations, and briefing them on aligning with core values. Continuous professional development should provide mentors, performance feedback, diverse responsibilities, further education support, and opportunities for seminars, workshops, and contemporary technology training. Rewards should encompass regular allowances, recognition of exceptional performance, making teachers feel valued, addressing their needs, and appreciating successful performance, ultimately fostering a supportive environment that promotes teacher growth, development, and effectiveness.

2. The Ministry of Education and Sports, head teachers, and other stakeholders, including Boards of Governors, should establish institutional support crucial for organisational learning through continuous professional development and rewards. Continuous professional development should offer a range of opportunities, such as mentorship, performance feedback, and diverse responsibilities, as well as support for further education, seminars, workshops, and training in cutting-edge technologies. Rewards should include regular allowances, recognition of exceptional performance, making teachers feel valued and appreciated, addressing their needs, and acknowledging their successful performance.

3. Head teachers should implement organisational learning, specifically continuous learning and dialogue and inquiry, to promote teacher competence. This can be achieved by establishing a culture of continuous learning, where teachers collaborate, share knowledge, and are provided with dedicated time and resources to develop their skills. Continuous learning should also involve archiving successful programs and sharing professional development opportunities to encourage knowledge sharing and best practices, as well as involving teachers in decision-making processes to foster a sense of ownership and empowerment. Dialogue and inquiry should be encouraged by leaders who promote a culture of open communication where teachers feel comfortable to ask questions, leaders value feedback from teachers, and create a trusting environment.

4. Head teachers should implement institutional support practices that foster organisational learning to enhance teacher competence. To achieve this, induction, continuous professional development, and rewards should be designed to promote organisational learning through continuous learning. By implementing these support practices, teachers will develop competence in key areas that are ethical, pedagogical, subject matter, and assessment and evaluation.

5.5 Theoretical Contribution of the study

This study presents a conceptual model (Figure 6.1) for enhancing teacher competence, which is drawn from the initial conceptual framework (Figure 1.1). The initial framework hypothesised causal relationships between institutional support and teacher competence, with organisational learning as a mediating factor. The development of this revised model is grounded in Perceived Organisational Support Theory by Eisenberger et al. (1986) and Organisational Learning Theory by Argyris and Schön (1978). Perceived Organisational Support Theory explains how teachers' perceptions of support through continuous professional development and recognition influence their motivation and performance. Organisational Learning Theory emphasises the role of continuous learning within schools as a key process through which support is transformed into improved competence. By incorporating findings from the current study, the revised model provides a more refined and evidence-based representation of how institutional and organisational dynamics interact to influence teacher competence.

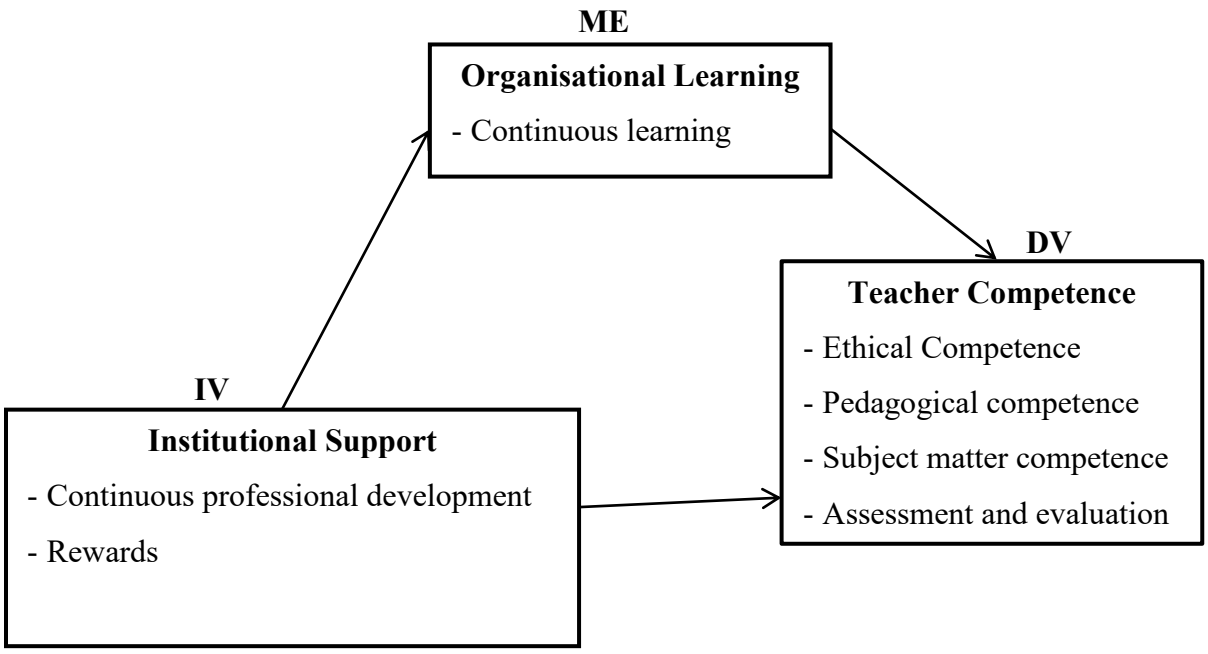

Figure 5.1: Conceptual Framework Relating Institutional Support and Teacher Competence Mediated by Organisational Learning

Source: Primary Data

The conceptual model indicates that institutional support leads to teacher competence through organisational learning. Institutional support is in terms of continuous professional development and rewards while organisational learning is in terms of continuous learning. Teacher competence is in terms of ethical competence, pedagogical competence, subject matter competence and assessment and evaluation.

5.6 Practical Contribution

This study is important in advancing the promotion of teacher competence by providing both theoretical and practical contributions that can influence educational policy and practice at international, national, and institutional levels. At the international level, the study contributes to global discourse on teacher quality by

offering empirical evidence from a developing country context. International development partners and educational organisations may use the findings to guide funding priorities, programme design, and technical support for improving teacher competence. At the national level, the findings inform policymakers such as the Ministry of Education and Sports and related bodies on the importance of institutional support in the form of continuous professional development and fair reward systems, as well as the role of organisational learning through continuous learning. These insights can guide policy reforms in teacher training, appraisal, and professional growth. At the institutional level, the study provides practical direction for school leaders and Boards of Governors on how to foster teacher competence by investing in professional development, creating supportive reward systems, and promoting collaborative learning environments. Further, the study contributes to academic literature by validating theoretical frameworks and highlighting how institutional support and organisational learning interact to influence teacher competence in real-world settings.

5.7 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

The present study makes a significant contribution by illuminating the mediating role of organisational learning in the relationship between institutional support and teacher competence, which is a crucial finding that sheds light on the complex dynamics between these variables. However, the findings also reveal some unexpected results, specifically that the relationship between institutional support and organisational learning showed that induction had an insignificant relationship, contrary to what was conjectured (Figure 1.1), which may indicate that the initial

expectations about the impact of induction on organisational learning were overly optimistic. Moreover, the results also indicated that team learning had an insignificant influence on teacher competence (Figure 6.1), which suggests that the role of team learning in promoting teacher competence may be more nuanced than initially thought. These findings collectively suggest that the original model (Figure 1.1) should be retested using a larger sample of schools in different regions and other institutions to validate the results and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the relationships between these variables. Furthermore, the competencies of arts and science teachers vary, but this study did not differentiate between them. Therefore, future research should examine the differences in teachers' competencies. Last but not least, this study's reliance on a solely quantitative approach limited the depth of analysis, and therefore, future research should consider employing a mixed-methods approach or a qualitative approach alone to facilitate a more in-depth exploration of the phenomena under investigation, which would provide a richer understanding of the complex dynamics at play.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire For Secondary School Teachers in South Western Uganda

Kyambogo University
P. O. Box 1, Kyambogo, Uganda

June 2024

Dear respondent,

I am Arineitwe Phiona a student at Kyambogo University pursuing Doctor of Philosophy in Education. I am carrying out a study on Institutional Support and Teacher Competence in Government-Aided Secondary Schools in south western Uganda. You have been identified as a potential respondent in this study. You are kindly required to tick the options that represent your opinion about each of the items in this questionnaire. Your participation in this project is purely on a voluntary basis. You are free to withdraw when you wish. The information you will provide were taken confidentially and your identity will not be disclosed.

Thank you.

……..
Arineitwe Phiona

Do you consent to participate to participate in this study? Yes ◯ No ◯
Please sign in the space below if you have consented and proceed to respond to the items accordingly.
Name:…… Signature: …….

Section A: Background Characteristics of the Respondents

Help me to classify your responses by supplying the following facts about yourself by ticking the correct option.

A1: My Gender; 1) Male, 2) Female

A2: My age group in years; 1) Up to 30 years, 2) 30-40 years, 3) 40-450 years, 4) 50 years and above.

A3: My highest level of education; 1) Diploma, 2) Bachelor's degree, 3) Post graduate diploma 4) Master's degree.

A4: I have been employed in this school for; 1) less than 5 years, 2) 5 - 10 years, 3) 10 years and above.

A5: My responsibility in this school 1) Subject teacher, 2) Class teacher, 3) Head of department, 4) Senior administrator.

Section B: Institutional Support (IV)

This section presents items on institutional support in terms of employee induction, continuous development and rewards. Please, show how you rate institutional support in your school using scale where is the lowest 1 rating (strongly disagree) and 5 the highest (Strongly agree).

ID	**Induction**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
ID1	I was made to know my department's objectives when I joined this school					
ID2	I was made to understand the responsibilities each member in the school					
ID3	When I joined this school I was made to I understand what my supervisor expected from each member					
ID4	I was made understand the heads of departments management styles when I joined this school (e.g., hands-on, participative).					
ID5	I was helped to be familiar with the guidelines, policies, and practices of my workplace when I joined (e.g., attendance, participation).					

ID6	When I first joined this school, I was briefed about how to act in a way consistent with the principles and values					
ID7	When I joined the school I was made to understand the school specifics such as land boundaries, board and PTA members					
ID8	I was made to understand the operations of this school when I joined (e.g. day of meeting, formative and summative assessment and co-curricular activities).					
ID9	I was informed who to contact when I joined in this school whenever I need help					
ID10	I was briefed about the school overall policies and/or rules					
ID11	When I joined this school I was made to know how to accomplish my tasks					
ID12	When I joined this school I was made to understand my performance expectations					
CPD	**Continuous Professional Development**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
CPD1	My immediate supervisor helps guide me in improving my job performance					
CPD2	I have been assigned a mentor in this school					
CPD3	I receive performance feedback from my supervisors					
CPD4	I am given opportunities to take on different responsibilities					
CPD5	I am supported to pursue further studies					
CPD6	I participate in seminars and workshops organized by the school					
CPD7	I have been trained in using contemporary classroom technologies					
CPD8	I am encouraged to participate in problem-solving matters within the school					
RW	**Rewards**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
RW1	Besides my income, I also paid regular allowances					
RW2	The school offers me responsibility allowances					
RW3	Additional tasks accrue extra pay					
RW4	When I perform schoolwork on the weekend, on holidays, and after work hours, I get paid.					

RW5	Exceptional performance attracts recognition in terms of get extra pay or prizes					
RW6	My head teacher makes me feel valued					
RW7	The head teacher is ready to address my needs when approached					
RW8	My successful work performance has been recognised in this school					
RW9	My head teacher has shown it to me that he appreciates my work effort					
RW10	The basic payment I receive in this school is a monthly regular salary					
RW11	My salary is proportionate to my work effort					
RW12	My salary affords me basic needs					

Section C: Organisational Learning (ME)

This section presents items on employee organisational learning. The section divided into three parts, continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, and team learning. You are kindly requested to indicate the extent to which you rate organisational learning in your school using the scale where is the lowest 1 rating (strongly disagree) and 5 the highest (Strongly agree).

CL	**Continuous learning**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
		SD	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
CL1	In my school, there is identifying of skills needed for future work tasks					
CL2	In my school, teachers help one another to learn					
CL3	In my school, teachers are given time to support learning					
CL4	In my school, teachers are rewarded for learning					
CL5	Every programme and activity in my school is regularly archived					
CL6	In m school, professional development opportunities are circulated to everyone					
CL7	In my school, teachers are included in the decision process					
CL8	My school has a culture that promotes learning about the successful practices and developments that take place in other schools					

DI	Dialogue and inquiry	SD	D	U	A	SA
		SD	D	U	A	SA
DI1	In my school, teachers give open and honest feedback to one another					
DI2	In my school, people listen to others' views					
DI3	In my organisation, teachers are encouraged to ask "why" regardless of rank					
DI4	In my school, whenever administrators state their view, they also ask what others think					
DI5	In my school, people have built trust with one another					
TL	**Team Learning**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
		SD	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
TL1	In my school, teams have the freedom to adapt their goals as needed					
TL2	In my school, members are treated as equals, regardless of rank or other differences					
TL3	In my school, teams focus both on the group's task and on how well the group is working					
TL4	In my school, plans are revised after group discussions					
TL5	In my school, teams plan and implement tasks together					

Section D: Teacher competence (DV)

This section presents items on teacher competence. The section divided into four parts, namely; professional, pedagogical, subject matter, and assessment and evaluation competence. You are kindly requested to indicate the extent to which you exhibit the performance here under using the scale where is the lowest 1 rating (strongly disagree) and 5 the highest (Strongly agree).

EC	Ethical competence	SD	D	U	A	SA
		1	2	3	4	5
EC1	My dress code has improved in this school					
EC2	I report to work on time each work day in this school					
EC3	I teach with passion in this school					

EC4	I respect all school policies because the school supports me					
EC5	I am ready to observe norms of conduct in the teaching profession in this school					
EC6	I give appropriate assessment of students					
EC7	I observe professional conduct of the teaching profession					
EC8	I show dedication to the teaching profession					
EC9	I serve as positive role model to students					
PC	**Pedagogical competence enhancement**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
PC1	I am supported by the school to communicate ideas effectively when teaching					
PC2	I am supported to make learners the centre of learning during lessons because I am not distracted					
PC3	I have been mentored to involve students in discussions during lessons					
PC4	The conditions are favourable for me to encourage students to analyze content and provide feedback					
PC5	I allow students to ask questions and respond to them					
PC6	I link lessons to real life situations when teaching because I am provided with necessary resources					
PC7	I make effort to make learning enjoyable for students because of the available resources					
PC8	I am supported that I find time to interact with students during class discussions					
PC9	I make sure that my instructional methods are flexible enough to accommodate the various demands of my different learners					
PC10	I use a variety of teaching materials or aids provided by the school					
SMC	**Subject matter competence**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

SMC1	I exhibit mastery of content when teaching because the support I revive from the school enable to concentrate					
SMC2	I manifest expertise in lessons I teach because resources have been provided					
SMC3	I share interesting ideas related to lessons when teaching because I have resources to refer to					
SMC4	I display authority of content knowledge when teaching because of the support I receive I am able to concentrate					
SMC5	I respond to questions raised by students during lessons because I have sufficient time for it because of school support					
SMC6	I ensure that I thoroughly understand the content I teach because I have time to concentrate because the school supports me					
SMC7	I share information that is relevant to lessons when teaching because I am provided the necessary resources					
SMC8	I am able to teach a lot of academic content because I have resources to refer to					
AE	**Assessment and evaluation enhancement**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
AE1	I assess and evaluate students' daily assignments immediately					
AE2	I assess and evaluate beginning, midterm and end of term students' assignments because I am supported					
AE3	I assess s and evaluate students' activities without bias					
AE4	I make comprehensive assessment and evaluation of students' activities such that they are able to understand corrections that should be made because I am supported					
AE5	Provide feedback to students after assessment of assignments because I am facilitated to do so					
AE6	My assessment and evaluation of students' assignments is based on prepared marking					

	guides because I am supported to prepare them					
AE7	The rubric provides clear instructions to students to answer the questions properly					
AE8	I assess students to check students understanding cumulative knowledge					
AE9	I assess application of what was learnt in the class					
AE10	I assess students' problem solving abilities when assessing assignments					

End.

Thank you for participating in the Study

Appendix B: Introductory Letter From Kyambogo

KYAMBOGO UNIVERSITY

P. O. BOX 1 KYAMBOGO

Directorate of Research and Graduate Training

Office of the Director

Date: 09th/10/2020

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: ARINGITWE PHIONA

Dear Sir/Madam,

This is to introduce to you the above-named student Reg. No. **17/U/GSED/14337/PE** pursuing PhD in Education, Department of Education Planning and Management, Kyambogo University.

He intends to carry out research on "**Institutional Support and Teacher Competence mediated by Organizational Learning in Governance – Aided Secondary Schools in Western Uganda.**" in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the award of Doctor of Philosophy in Education Planning and Management of Kyambogo University.

The purpose of this letter therefore is to request you to grant her permission to carry out her study in your institution.

Any assistance rendered to her will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Prof. Bonco Buy
AG. DIRECTOR

KYAMBOGO UNIVERSITY
★ 12 OCT 2020 ★
DIRECTOR

Appendix C: Informed Consent Document

KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY (KIU) WESTERN CAMPUS (WC)
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (REC)
PO Box 71, Bushenyi, Uganda; Tel: +256 758 096 775
E-mail: kiurec2017@kiu.ac.ug; Website: www.kiu.ac.ug

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

Study Title

Institutional Support and Teacher Competence Mediated by Organisational Learning in Government-Aided Secondary Schools in South Western Uganda

Principal Investigator(s): Phiona Arineitwe

INTRODUCTION

Teacher competence is an imperative component to having a blossoming school environment that is basic to sustained school success (Caena & Redecker, 2019). Accordingly, this proposed study it intends to examine the influence of institutional support on teacher competence mediated by organisational learning in government aided secondary schools in South Western Uganda.

What you should know about this study

- You are being asked to join a research study;
- This consent form explains the research study and your part in the study;
- Please read it carefully; and take as much time as you need;

Leave blank (for REC Office only):	For REC Office use only:
NAME OF REC CHAIR: *Prof. Ahmed Kiswezi*	APPROVAL DATE:
TELEPHONE: *+256 772426581*	APPROVED CONSENT REC VERSION NUMBER:
KIU REC STAMP:	PI's NAME:
VERSION: ONE	REC NO: *UG-REC- 023*

KIU RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE(REC) APPROVED VALID UNTIL KIU 11 JAN 2025 P.O. Box 71, Bushenyi - Ishaka

All information provided will be protected and kept confidential under key and lock.

Protecting participant privacy during data collection

All the questionnaire will be kept confidential under key and lock. The results will be shared with department and postgraduate.

Right to refuse/withdraw

You have the right to withdrawal from the study at any time you wish and there are no penalties for withdrawing.

Who do I ask/call if I have questions or a problem?

Please contact the KIU REC Office for any questions/problem on the addressed indicated below:

The KIU REC Chair, P.o Box 71, Bushenyi, and Mobile: +256-772426581, Email: kiurec2017@kiu.ac.ug

For any questions concerning the study, you can contact the researcher on 0772911260, **phionaarineitwe@gmail.com**

What does your signature (or thumb print/mark) on this consent form mean?

Your signature on this form means that you have:

- Been informed about this study's purpose, procedures, and possible benefits and risks;
- Been given the chance to ask questions before you sign; and
- Voluntarily agreed to be in this study.

Name of participant	Signature of participant	Thumb print	Date

Name of person obtaining Consent	Signature	Thumb print	Date

Leave blank (for REC Office only):	For REC Office use only:
NAME OF REC CHAIR: *Prof. Ahmed Kiswezi* TELEPHONE: *+256 772426581* KIU REC STAMP:	APPROVAL DATE: APPROVED CONSENT REC VERSION NUMBER: PI's NAME: REC NO: *UG-REC- 023*

VERSION: ONE

KIU RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE(REC) APPROVED VALID UNTIL 11 JAN 2025 KIU P.O. Box 71, Bushenyi - Ishaka

Names of witness	Signature of witness	Thumb print	Date

Leave blank (for REC Office only):	For REC Office use only:
NAME OF REC CHAIR: *Prof. Ahmed Kiswezi* TELEPHONE: *+256 772426581* KIU REC STAMP:	APPROVAL DATE: APPROVED CONSENT REC VERSION NUMBER: PI's NAME: REC NO: *UG-REC- 023*

VERSION: ONE

KIU RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE(REC)
APPROVED
VALID UNTIL
11 JAN 2025
P.O. Box 71, Bushenyi - Ishaka

Appendix D: Covid-19 Mitigation Plan

Introduction and general information

Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory and transmittable disease caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). It is spread from one person to another through close contact and via respiratory droplets produced when infected person coughs, sneezes, sings or talks.

The common symptoms of the disease include fever, cough, shortness of breath, fatigue, muscle and body aches, headache, sore throat, loss of appetite, congestion or runny nose and gastrointestinal issues like nausea, vomiting and diarrhea.

Main objective of the plan

The main objective of covid-19 mitigation plan to ensure the safety and well-being of the human participants and the community at large during the period of the conducting my study. It also aims at minimizing the risks of getting infected by the disease by implementing the appropriate measures and guidelines.

Covid-19 mitigation measures

Vaccination: All research participants will be required to presents their vaccinations cards during recruitment to join the study.

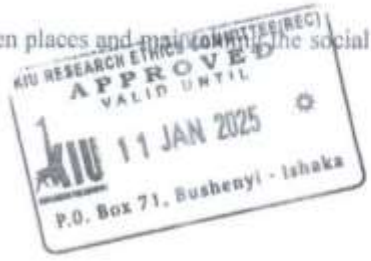
Wearing of face masks: The researcher will ensure that the participants produce and put on their face masks at the time of interaction during the study.

Social distancing: physical distancing of atleast 2 meters (6 feet) from one participant to another will be maintained at all times during the study.

Hand hygiene and sanitizing: washing the hands regularly with soap and water for at least 20 seconds and use of hand sanitizers with at least 60% alcohol content will be guaranteed.

Ventilation: Ensuring good ventilation in indoor spaces will help to reduce the concentration of respiratory droplets.

Gatherings: The gathering will be done in open places and maintain the social distance at the time of gathering.



Isolation of sick or suspected cases

The researcher will encourage the participants to isolate themselves in case they experience symptoms such fever, cough, body aches e.t.c to prevent further transmission of the disease.

The researcher will encourage participants to stay at home and avoid close contact with others including those within their house holds if they test positive.

The researcher will encourage the participants to follow the COVID-19 guidelines and seek medical advice as needed.

Conclusion

The researcher will ensure that the research participants are compliant with the COVID-19 mitigation measures. The researcher will ensure that the research participants are well informed about the spread of COVID-19 virus. The researcher will also encourage the participants to report any cases or concerns to responsible and relevant health authorities as required.

Appendix E: REC Approval

KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Western Campus
P O BOX 71 Ishaka, Ugan
Tel: +256 758 096 775
Email: kiurec2017@kiu.ac
Website: www.kiu.ac.ug

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (REC)

KIU RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE(REC) APPROVED VALID UNTIL 11 JAN 2025 KIU P.O. Box 71, Bushenyi - Ishaka

12/01/2024

To: Arineitwe Phiona

Kyambogo University

0772911260

Type: Initial Review

Re: KIU-2023-273: Institutional Support and Teacher Competence Mediated by Organisational Learning in Government-Aided Secondary Schools in south western Uganda, Uganda

I am pleased to inform you that at the 68 convened meeting on 13/12/2023, the KIU REC meeting voted to approve the above referenced application.

Approval of the research is for the period of 12/01/2024 to 12/01/2025.

As Principal Investigator of the research, you •are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. All co-investigators must be kept informed of the status of the research.
2. Changes, amendments, and addenda to the protocol or the consent form must be submitted to the REC for rereview and approval prior to the activation of the changes.

3. Reports of unanticipated problems involving risks to participants or any new information which could change the risk benefit: ratio must be submitted to the REC.
4. Only approved consent forms are to be used in the enrollment of participants. All consent forms signed by participants and/or witnesses should be retained on file. The REC may conduct audits of all study records, and consent documentation may be part of such audits.
5. Continuing review application must be submitted to the REC eight weeks prior to the expiration date of 12/01/2025 in order to continue the study beyond the approved period. Failure to submit a continuing review application in a timely fashion may result in suspension or termination of the study.
6, The REC application number assigned to the research should be cited in any correspondence with the REC of record.
7. You are required to register the research protocol with the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) for final clearance to undertake the study in Uganda.

The following is the list of all documents approved in this application by KIU REC:

No.	Document Title	Language	Version Number	Version Date
1	Compliance report	Englishone	2024-01-12	
2	Protocol	English two	2024-01-12	
3	Informed Consent forms	english one	2023-11-24	
	Data collection tools	english	one	2023-11-24

Yours Sincerely

2025

Kiswezi Ahmed

For: KIU REC

APPENDIX F: UNCST APPROVAL

Uganda National Council for Science and Technology

(Established by Act of Parliament of the Republic of Uganda)

Our Ref: SS2518ES **31 March 2025**

Phiona Arineitwe
Kyambogo
University
Kampala

Re: Research Approval: **Resource Based View Approach in Implementation of E-Learning in Selected Ugandan Public Universities**

I am pleased to inform you that on **31/3/2025**, the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) approved the above referenced research project. The Approval of the research project is for the period of **31/3/2025** to **31/3/2025**.

Your research registration number with the UNCST is **SS2518ES**. Please, cite this number in all your future correspondences with UNCST in respect of the above research project. As the Principal Investigator of the research project, you are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. Keeping all co-investigators informed of the status of the research.
2. Submitting all changes, amendments, and addenda to the research protocol or the consent form (where applicable) to the designated Research Ethics Committee (REC) or Lead Agency for re-review and approval **prior** to the activation of the changes. UNCST must be notified of the approved changes within five working days.
3. For clinical trials, all serious adverse events must be reported promptly to the designated local REC for review with copies to the National Drug Authority and a notification to the UNCST.
4. Unanticipated problems involving risks to research participants or other must be reported promptly to the UNCST. New information that becomes available which could change the risk/benefit ratio must be submitted promptly for UNCST notification after review by the REC.
5. Only approved study procedures are to be implemented. The UNCST may conduct impromptu audits of all study records.
6. An annual progress report and approval letter of continuation from the REC must be submitted electronically to UNCST. Failure to do so may result in termination of the research project.

Please note that this approval includes all study related tools submitted as part of the application as shown below:

No.	Document Title	Language	Version Number	Version Date
1	Informed consent	English	1	11 January 2025
2	Project Proposal	English	VERSION 11	
3	Approval Letter	English		
4	Administrative Clearance	English		
4	FGD Procedures	English	1	28 March 2025
5	COVID-19 Guidelines	English	1	28 March 2025
6	Informed consent for academic staff	English	1	28 March 2025
7	Informed consent for ICT Staff	English	1	28 March 2025
8	Informed consent for students	English	1	28 March 2025

Yours sincerely,

Hellen Opolot
For: Executive Secretary
UGANDA NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Appendix G: Introductory and acceptance letters

Appendix H: Plagiarism Test Results