THOMPSON RIVERS UNIVERSITY

Professional Reflection: Its Implementation in Instructional Leadership and Effect on Collective-Efficacy

by

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ABSTRACT

This research investigates instructional leadership practices, examining professional reflection being implemented in high performing private schools in the Philippines and how those practices contribute to collective-efficacy of those schools. The first research question is: how are instructional leaders using professional reflection for teacher growth in their practice? The second research question is: how do those leadership practices contribute to teacher collective-efficacy?

Participants in this study were six school leaders from five different private schools in the Philippines, as well as faculty reporting to those school leaders. The school leaders were interviewed about their current practices, and both school leaders and faculty were given a survey to measure collective-efficacy.

The interviews yielded three overarching themes about what instructional leaders were doing to influence professional reflection: making sure there was time and protocols in place at the beginning of the school year; being intentional about the type, frequency, and relevance of feedback; and creating collaborative environments of distributed leadership where teachers were helping teachers, without the presence of school leaders.

While survey results did not meet the threshold of reliability, they do suggest that faculty who practice peer observation have better trust in colleagues resulting in higher collective-efficacy.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Any school leader would say that their ultimate goal is to improve student achievement in their schools. The number one factor contributing to student achievement, beyond conditions in the home, is classroom teachers (Aldeman, 2017). Classroom teachers come with a variety of skills and experience levels in every school. Improving the quality of teaching among committed teaching professionals who are already in our schools, and ultimately make gains in student well-being and achievement, is the key (Wiliam, 2014). A school leader must help motivate faculty to become ever-better, more effective, professionals. Much like we teach our students to be better critical and reflective thinkers, school leaders need to work with teachers to do the same.

Donald Schon (1983) has done extensive research into how professionals use reflection in action in their work. He writes about how it is crucial to reframe problems in order to solve them. Professionals will encounter specific situations that are new to them, and they can use previous experience or subject knowledge to look at their problem in a new, more familiar way to find creative solutions. This often occurs with the help of a mentor or collaborative partner. This is one process of professional improvement individual teachers can use in order to improve themselves professionally. Many school leaders are encouraging this process of professional development in their schools currently (Awkard, 2017; Boud, 2001; Danielson, 2016; Derrington, & Campbell, 2015; Sergiovanni, 2009).

The more effective professional teachers feel they are in the classroom, the more confident and likely they will be to try new ways of solving problems they face (Bandura, 1997). This is their sense of self-efficacy; their perceived ability to impact student achievement. This concept of efficacy extends to how teachers collectively see their school as being able to produce high student achievement. This collective sense of efficacy is equally as important as self–efficacy in motivating teachers to become more effective educators. School leaders should help teachers foster a sense of positive collective-efficacy. This study looks at ways school leaders have done this in five International Schools in the Philippines.

This study will be interesting for school leaders attentive to instructional leadership behaviours and the collective-efficacy in their school. While the study takes place in private International schools in the Philippines, the findings are likely relevant to many international contexts, particularly in South East Asia. Above all, this study aims to provide practical, actionable information to school leaders.

My Positionality

To begin, I would like to provide some positioning information about myself. I am a Canadian born and educated teacher. I worked in Canada for three years before becoming an international teacher in the Philippines. I have been working in the Philippines for a total of five years and have been a practicing school principal for the past two years. Our school is located in the northern Philippine mountainous region called the Cordilleras, though the language of instruction is all in English.

My school operates in a similar context to the other school used in this study; and although the work I did in my own school helped a great deal in inspiring my interest in this research, none of the data used in this study came from my own school, or any school in which I have any administrative influence. The schools used in the research are Private International schools in the Philippines. These schools have their own board of directors, and are granted permission to operate outside of the Philippines Department of Education—meaning they have developed their own curriculum and are externally accredited. Families at these schools pay full tuition, and perspective students must meet certain academic selection criteria. This means that the most common demographic are students in the upper-middle/upper social class who are high in academic achievement. They come from a home background that highly values education, where one or both parents hold a university degree.

Reflective Practitioners' Reports

The Reflective Practitioners Reports (RPR) were created in the school wherein I took on the role of School Principal (PreK-12) after having taught for

three years. This was a private International school in the Philippines with a mix of Filipino and non-Filipino faculty and students. The RPR program began as an initiative to respond to a recommendation from our school's accrediting body, which indicated that we needed to do more as a whole school to support our English Language Learners. Being an international school, many of our students had learned English as another language, and all of our classes were conducted in English. There was certainly a need for us to improve our professional practices in this area. After a series of meetings, our Language Pastoral Committee created a set of protocols we called Differentiation Strategy Groups (DSG).

Being a small, private school, we were uniquely positioned to accommodate a fair amount of professional development time. Teachers met in collaborative learning communities once each week for one hour before students arrived to discuss the English Language Learners and their academic progress. The goal was to identify learning issues these students were experiencing and create differentiation strategies that addressed specific individual needs. All teachers then used these strategies with the student in their own subject area.

Initially the meetings were less formal, with detailed outcomes sometimes missing. Over time, more specific protocols were set in place to assist teachers with focusing on the task. Big questions were posted during the meetings to ensure comments were pointed and relevant. Time frames were created to ensure that the meeting goals were addressed. The process was continually refined throughout the first year. At the end of that time, we asked for feedback about the DSG effectiveness in assisting teachers with meaningful adaptations to the instructional program. It was very positive. Teachers identified that the meetings were relevant and practical, and they reported significant improvements among many of the English Language Learners in their classrooms. In addition, they also reported valuing working with colleagues and collaborating professionally in this way.

One major adjustment made, as administrators did not take part in the meetings, was the need for teachers to document the discussions they were having and the strategies they were using in order to be accountable for the work done

through the DSG meetings. Templates for 'agendas' and 'meeting notes' were created. We consolidated data about the students, and began building a Differentiation Strategy Toolbox, where the various teaching and learning strategies used and researched were stored. Meetings continued into the second semester to provide opportunities to check on progress made by the students since semester one, and to identify further instructional refinements to the strategies that might be helpful.

In time, the focus expanded. Instead of considering only English Language Learners, the DSG began considering all learners who were perceived as having difficulties in their classes, be they in Learning Support with learning disabilities, or those with gaps in basic skills due to being displaced mid-term—usually due to parents being re-assigned to a different country. More detailed feedback was now being collected from teachers' reflections about their classes and the program as a whole.

As is common in schools, other new initiatives started to need attention, and the time once dedicated to DSG started to diminish. In an effort to maintain the program, the Reflective Practitioners Reports were born. It was widely held that, time consuming as it was, the DSG were a valuable set of protocols, and efforts to continue this type of work was worth the investment as the benefits were well noted.

The teachers enjoyed the collaborative nature of the DSG. These professional learning communities were taken seriously, and practical discussions and solutions came from the protocols set for the meetings. Teachers were solving problems together, and collectively assembling a body of knowledge with practical use in their classrooms. In addition, they were reporting marked improvements in their students, and hearing about the same problems and growth from the various classroom teachers who shared the same student.

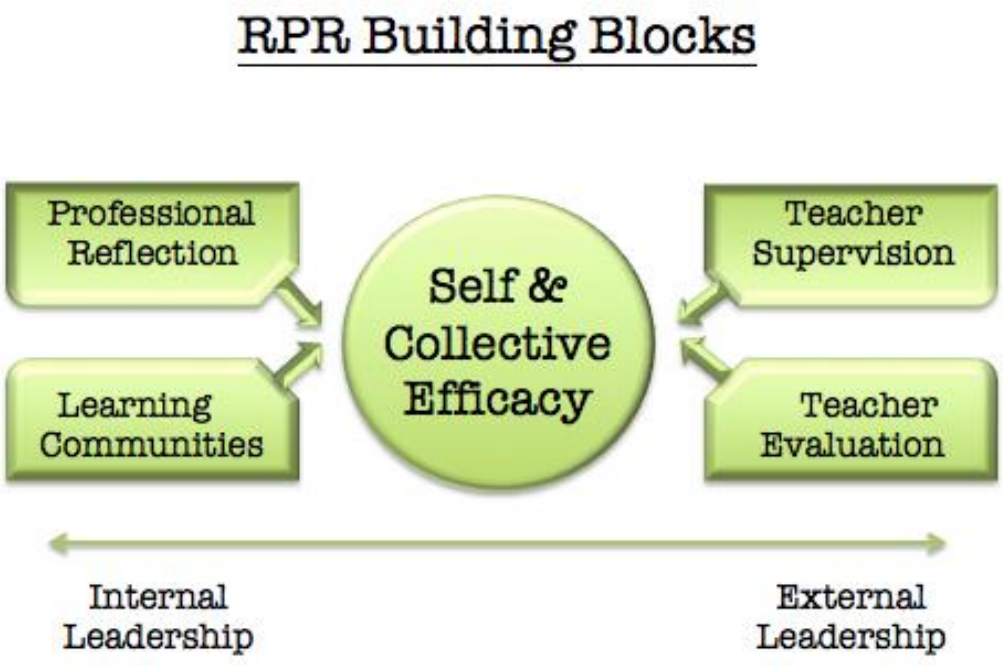
From an administrative perspective, it was noticed that teachers were engaged in self-directed professional development that was resulting in higher student achievement. Herein was a system through which it was possible to

observe and measure teacher growth, and wherein teachers were engaging in efforts to improve themselves professionally. It was decided to merge the DSG protocols with the teacher evaluation process. The result of this merger is the Reflective Practitioner Report.

After piloting the program with a small group of teachers—nine in total—some adjustments were made. The adjusted program was implemented across the whole school the following year. Teachers continued meeting in their Professional Learning Communities and helped each other construct an action plan to bring back to their individual classrooms. Over a six-week period, teachers collected data, recoded observations, and got feedback from supervisors. At the end of the six weeks, teachers met again to reflect on the impact of their action plan and wrote a report, which was submitted to their supervisor. This process was then used as their annual evaluation. This whole process evolved over the course of five years, based on the context and needs of the school. Through the context of the RPR program, I became interested in researching instructional leadership behaviours and their affect on collective efficacy within my school. In this research, I was interested in looking beyond my own context at what other schools and school leaders are doing to promote professional reflection and efficacy.

The following Figure 1 shows how some key concepts explored later in the literature review come together in building the RPR program.

Figure 1. RPR Building Blocks



Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to examine how programs encouraging professional reflection and teacher growth have evolved and are practiced in private schools in the Philippines, how school leaders are using this in their supervision/evaluation of faculty, and how teacher efficacy is affected by the practice of these programs.

Research Questions

This research seeks to answer the following questions:

1. How are instructional leaders using professional reflection for teacher growth in their practice?
2. How do those leadership practices contribute to teacher collective-efficacy?

Conceptual Framework

The following sections provides a framework for the organization of the literature review. It will briefly outline what each section is about and why it is important to this study.

Self and Collective-efficacy

Efficacy refers to the degree that an individual or a collective of individuals interprets the ability of their actions to affect an outcome. Those with a high level of self-efficacy believe their actions have a great result on an outcome, while those with low efficacy do not believe their actions have much effect on an outcome. This concept extends to a collection of individuals and their beliefs about the efficacy of the collective to influence an outcome.

This section will look at literature related to the study of both self and collective-efficacy, as well as provide an overview of some research relating to the measurement of efficacy. The tool used to measure collective-efficacy for this study was developed using this research.

Collective-efficacy is important to this research, as one of the outcomes noticed in participating in the RPR program was an increased sense of collective-efficacy among the teaching faculty who collaborated on their RPR report.

Professional Reflection

Professional reflection is the critical examination of actions or decisions taken by a professional in order to inform and improve future practice. (Bandura, 1997). Professionals, though often experienced and educated, will often encounter new problems or dynamic situations. Professional reflection involves taking these unique situations and reframing them into a more familiar context in order to make better decisions.

This section will look at research related to professional reflection and its potential impact on both efficacy and leadership.

As the RPR program suggests, reflection is a large component of the process teachers engaged in. It was the organizing principle behind the collaboration

involved in the professional learning communities. It is, therefore, an important concept to review for the purposes of this research.

Teacher Evaluation and Supervision

This section reviews the research related to teacher evaluation and its impact of schools and faculties, as well as research related to teacher supervision and how school leaders must be cognisant of how the two roles affect each other.

Teacher evaluation is a major responsibility for school leaders. These evaluations are sometimes formal processes and reports that can carry significant professional consequences for teachers.

Teacher supervision is not the same as teacher evaluation. Teacher supervision refers to the school leader's role of helping and supporting teachers in their school.

Often times, both of these roles are occurring simultaneously as school leaders are in classrooms, and behaviours that promote one can harm the other. School leaders must find a balance between these two roles.

Whether engaged in teacher evaluation or teacher supervision, school leaders are visiting classrooms where teachers are actively teaching students. The two roles often become merged, something school leaders may need to separate again, if issues of underperformance emerge. School leaders must be aware of these two concepts and actively make decisions in order to effectively practice both.

School Leadership

School leadership, in particular instructional leadership, takes a closer look at the responsibilities required of school leaders to practice teacher supervision. This section focuses on research relating to behaviours of school leaders which have a positive impact on schools, as well as factors that influence school leadership.

As the intended audience of this study are school leaders, some research about this concept is necessary in order to give some context to the discussions held during the interviews.

Professional Learning Communities

Professional learning communities are groups of peers within a school who take a collaborative approach to shared learning. Teachers who belong to successful professional learning communities are committed to their own professional advancement, as well as that of their colleagues. Teachers are seeking best practices with a focus on student achievement. Peer coaching, observation, and discussion all contribute to a building of trust in colleagues. School leaders should not seek to manage these groups, but rather to cultivate them (Wenger & Snyder, 2000).

Professional Learning Communities are the main component around which the RPR has been organized. They are recognized as an excellent source of professional development and are an important foundational concept to be explored in the literature review.

A System of Evaluation

Much as the 'school leadership' section looks more closely at research related to the practice of teacher supervision behaviours, this section looks more closely at research related to teacher evaluation behaviours. This research considers how a system can be created within a school where school leaders are able to effectively fulfill the roles of both evaluator and supervisor.

This concept is foundational to the RPR process and provides good groundwork for the discussion of systems, or programs, that other school leaders have in place and how they interact with their faculties.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter will review the related literature on the topics discussed in the conceptual framework of the previous chapter. Each topic will be discussed in the same order in which they appeared in the previous section, which is: a) Self and Collective-efficacy, b) Professional Reflection, c) Teacher Evaluation and Supervision, d) School Leadership, e) Professional Learning Communities, and f) A System of Evaluation.

Self and Collective-Efficacy

The theory of collective teacher efficacy, the perception of teachers within a school that their behaviour has the ability to affect student achievement, is based on Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory; a unified theory of behavioural change. Initially, the research was based on the concept of self-efficacy, which focuses on how people exercise control over their lives. The exercise of control is a sense of self-efficacy; the "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute a course of action required to produce a given attainment" (p. 197). Self-efficacy is important for teachers because, if they believe their actions have the capacity to influence student achievement, they will be far more likely to take actions that do influence student achievement. It also aims to explain how, even though self-efficacy is a belief that does not necessarily reflect actual capability, positive self-efficacy does eventually produce actual capacities (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008). Bandura (1997) asserts that teacher efficacy is a type of self-efficacy, and that it governs many aspects of human functions and mediates how teachers think, feel, behave, and are motivated.

In order to better understand collective teacher efficacy, it is important first to examine what is known about individual teacher efficacy (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Bandura (1977) identifies four major sources of information that influence an individual's sense of personal efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion and emotional state. For teachers, "these four sources contribute to both the analysis of the teaching task and to self-

perceptions of teaching competences" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998, p. 228).

Mastery experiences. This is the most influential source of information for self-efficacy because is it based on personal mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977). When an individual successfully accomplishes a task, they raise their mastery expectations; by contrast, failure lowers those expectations. It is only in situations of actual teaching that teachers can assess their true capability to perform their task and experience the consequences of those capabilities (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). It is important that teachers experience and overcome challenges with little assistance, as too much assistance in their mastery experience will result in little to no increase in self-efficacy. It is also important that teachers attribute the success of their students to their actions as teachers; attributing failure to a lack of effort or outside factors will result in lowering self-efficacy as these factors are beyond the teacher's control (Goddard et al., 2000).

In addition, Bandura (1993) describes the source of perceived ability to perform tasks as crucial to self-efficacy. There can be a belief in inherent capacity or acquired skill. Those who believe that teachers have an inherent capacity to accomplish a teaching task, are more likely to experience an eroding sense of self-efficacy, as oppose to those who believe they have the capacity to acquire the necessary skills through experience, who will be more likely to set challenging goals for themselves and to engage in problem solving behaviour (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008).

Emotional state. This relates to the level of emotional, and physiological arousal a teacher experiences while engaged in a teaching situation. Positive emotions, such as relaxation or self-assurance, raise the expectation of future success (Tschannen-Moran et al, 1998). However, negative emotions may overwhelm teachers and lead to high levels of stress and anxiety, which can be debilitating in a teaching situation. Bandura (1977) notes that where deficits exist, individuals will experience fear and avoidance in the face of them. They must

develop coping skills and willingly confront fears in order for positive emotion to be gained and self-efficacy to be increased.

Vicarious experiences. This is when teachers acquire information about the mastery experiences of other teachers. Hearing about these experiences enables teachers to "persuade themselves that if others can do it, they should be able to achieve at least some improvement in performance" (Bandura, 1977, p. 197). While the influence of vicarious experience is less prominent than mastery experiences, it is nevertheless a good source of information in understanding which students can learn, how much a student can lean, and who is responsible for making a difference in their learning (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). In schools, this often takes the form of collaborative teams to meetings intended to allow teachers to talk with each other about their practice.

However, a major factor in preventing collaboration in schools is time management (Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011), as teaching schedules are generally developed in relation to time students spend in the classroom, not in relation to allowing teachers time to meet and work together. Working in isolation has a greater capacity to lower teacher efficacy, while collaborative environments work to increase confidence and belief in one's self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

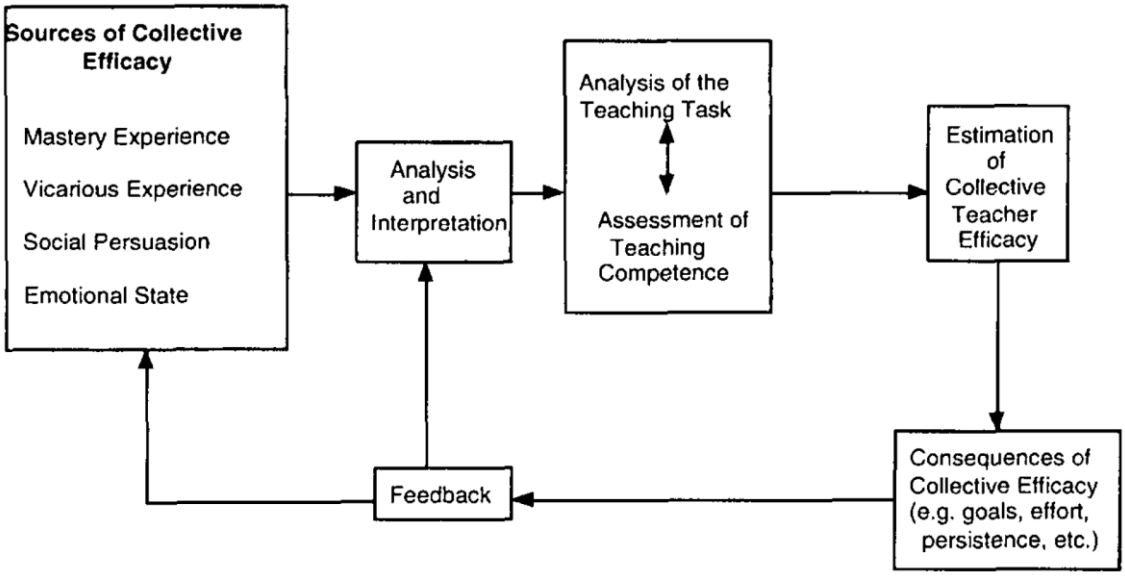
Social persuasion. Social persuasion can take several forms, from advice, experiential information, and even feedback. The most influential social persuasion occurs when teachers are encouraged in their abilities to productively address situations that have overwhelmed them in the past; but it can also be effective to increase personal efficacy through communication of corrective performance (Bandura, 1977). Much like vicarious experiences, information about others' experiences, coursework, or professional development workshops, can persuade teachers to try new approaches with positive expectations.

Collective-efficacy is an extension of the concept of self-efficacy applied to a group. As an individual's self-efficacy is a good predictor of the way an individual behaves, this can be extended to the notion of collective-efficacy (Goddard et al.,

2000). Bandura (1993) found that a teacher's perceptions about how their school could affect students' learning is just as predictive as a teacher's perception of their own ability to affect student learning. Bandura (1997) uses "the term *reciprocal causality*, a two-way relationship, while interpreting the relationship between collective teacher efficacy and teachers' self-efficacy" (Çalik, Sezgin, Kavgaci, & Kilinç, 2012). Self-efficacy and collective-efficacy form a positive feedback loop, each enhancing the level of the other. Goddard et al. (2000) describes it as the sum—collective-efficacy—being greater than its parts—teacher efficacy.

Figure 2 provides a visual model, developed by Goddard et al. of the cycle of collective-efficacy development.

Figure 2. A Model of Collective Teacher Efficacy. Source: Goddard et al. (2000).



In this figure, the researchers note that data accumulated through the sources of collective-efficacy are then analysed and interpreted in two categories, the analysis

of the teaching task and the assessment of teaching competence. The analysis of the teaching task takes place at both the individual and whole school level. This analysis produces inferences about what is involved for the teacher, or teachers at the school, to be successful. Influences on this analysis could be the ability and motivation of students, instructional materials used by the school, the influences of the community, and the school's physical plant. These factors also influence the teacher's expectation of student ability and motivation. The assessment of teaching competence occurs when teachers make specific judgements about their (personal, and faculty-wide) teaching skills, methods, training, and expertise. As Figure 1 shows, these two domains are not processed independent of each other, but interact as collective-efficacy emerges (Goddard et al., 2000).

Schools whose teachers have a high level of collective-efficacy are better able to manage change and are more resilient in the face of challenges (Kunnari, Ilomaki, & Toom, 2018). Teacher efficacy has been found to have an impact on teacher effectiveness (Sehgal, Nambudiri, & Mishra, 2017), as well as student performance (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Çalik et al., 2012; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Goddard et al. (2000) note schools that aim to develop collective teacher efficacy also experience continuous growth in student achievement, as an expectation of successful students becomes the normative environment within the school. Collective teacher efficacy fosters creativity, effort, and persistence that supports student learning, by fostering high achievement overall, and also through contributions to the reduction of achievement gaps (Goddard, Skrla, & Salloum, 2017). Leadership behaviours can also have an effect on determining teachers' perceptions of self and collective-efficacy (Çalik et al., 2012).

Teachers who work in collaborative environments have more potential to increase collective-efficacy (Sehgal et al., 2017). Kunnari et al. (2018) conducted a study that looked at teams of teachers who were assigned to work collaboratively to overcome obstacles, and found that their joint ability to contribute to solutions and ultimately solve problems improved the way the teachers interacted with

students and colleagues. It also had important influences on how teachers regulated themselves and their work.

It is worth noting next the research that has contributed to the measurement of efficacy.

Measuring Efficacy

Measuring efficacy has undergone extensive research, which is reviewed in some detail in the work of Tschannen-Moran, (1998), and her colleagues. They considered a variety of contributions towards the understanding and measure of teacher efficacy starting with the RAND group (Armor, Conroy-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonell, Pascal, Pauly, & Zellman, 1976) who studied the effects of external and internal influences on teachers' perceptions and behaviours towards students. The Responsibility for Student Achievement survey (Guskey, 1981), extended the RAND study to a 30-item instrument of external and internal factors, and offered four types of causes for success or failure: specific teacher abilities, the effort put into teaching, the task difficulty, and luck (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The Webb Efficacy Scale (Ashton, Olejnik, Crocker, & McAuliffe, 1982) also sought to expand on the RAND study by reducing the problem of social desirability bias. They did this by using a forced-choice format —participants had to choose between two statements, which statement did they agreed with most strongly— with items that matched for social desirability. The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) was a more extensive and reliable measure of efficacy. It reflected the two expectancies of Bandura's social cognitive theory: self-efficacy, teachers' perception of their own skills and abilities; and outcome efficacy, teachers' belief that the environment could be controlled (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

They identified the factors of *personal teaching efficacy*, which reflected self-efficacy; and *general teaching efficacy*, which reflected outcome efficacy. Most significantly, this study also found evidence for the relationship between teacher efficacy and student achievement, noting that fifth grade students who had a teacher that scored highly in *personal teaching efficacy* and *general teaching*

e*fficacy* outperformed their peers who had teachers that scored lower in those two factors (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Finally, Bandura's (1997) Teacher Efficacy Scale sought to increase the level of specificity for the instrument, as he felt the current measures were too general. He incorporated the element of teaching context into his instrument by measuring seven subscales: influence on decision-making, influence on school resources, instructional efficacy, disciplinary efficacy, enlisting parental involvement, enlisting community involvement, and creating positive school climate (Bandura, 1997).

Figure 3 below shows the major researchers, their contributions to the measuring of efficacy, and the structure and item type of their instruments.

Figure 3. Contributions to Measures of Efficacy. Source: Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998, p. 208-209)

Instrument	Structure	Example items
	Efficacy measures growing out of Rotter's concept of generalized expectancies of reinforcement	
RAND measure (Armor et al., 1976)	2 items on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Scoring: sum of the 2 item scores.	When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment. If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students.
Teacher Locus of Control (Rose & Medway, 1981)	28 items with a forced-choice format. Scoring: Half of the items describe situations of student success (I+), and half describe student failure (I-).	Suppose you are teaching a student a particular concept in arithmetic or math and the student has trouble learning it. Would this happen (a) because the student wasn't able to understand it, or (b) because you couldn't explain it very well? If the students in your class perform better than they usually do on a test, would this happen (a) because the students studied a lot for the test, or (b) because you did a good job of teaching the subject area?
Responsibility for Student Achievement (Guskey, 1981)	Participants are asked to give a weight or percentage to each of the 2 choices. Scoring: a global measure of responsibility, with 2 subscales: responsibility for student success (R+) and responsibility for student failure (R-).	If a student does well in your class, would it probably be (a) because that student had the natural ability to do well, or (b) because of the encouragement you offered? When your students seem to have difficulty learning something, is it usually (a) because you are not willing to really work at it, or (b) because you weren't able to make it interesting for them?
Webb Efficacy Scale (Ashton et al., 1982)	7 items, forced choice. Participants must determine if they agree most strongly with the 1st or the 2nd statement.	(A) A teacher should not be expected to reach every child; some students are not going to make academic progress. (B) Every child is reachable; it is a teacher's obligation to see to it that every child makes academic progress. (A) My skills are best suited for dealing with students who have low motivation and who have a history of misbehavior in school. (B) My skills are best suited for dealing with students who are academically motivated and generally well behaved.

Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984)	30 items on a 6-point Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Scoring: a global measure of teacher efficacy derived from the sum of all items. Two subscales emerge from factor analysis: personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy.	When a student gets a better grade than he usually gets, it is usually because I found better ways of teaching. The hours in my class have little influence on students compared to the influence of their home environment. If a student masters a new math concept quickly, this might be because I knew the necessary steps in teaching that concept. Even a teacher with good teaching abilities may not reach many students.
Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument (Riggs & Enochs, 1990)	25 items on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."	I understand science concepts well enough to be effective in teaching elementary science. Effectiveness in science teaching has little influence on the achievement of students with low motivation.
Ashton Vignettes (Ashton et al., 1982)	50 items describing problem situations concerning various dimensions of teaching, including motivation, discipline, academic instruction, planning, evaluation, and work with parents. Self-referenced: "extremely ineffective" to "extremely effective." Norm-referenced: "much less effective than most teachers" to "much more effective than other teachers."	Your school district has adopted a self-paced instructional program for remedial students in your area. How effective would you be in keeping a group of remedial students on task and engaged in meaningful learning while using these materials? A small group of students is constantly whispering, passing notes, and ignoring class activities. Their academic performance on tests and homework is adequate and sometimes even good. Their classroom performance, however, is irritating and disruptive. How effective would you be in eliminating their disruptive behavior?
Bandura's Teacher Efficacy Scale	30 items on a 9-point scale anchored at "nothing," "very little," "some influence," "quite a bit," "a great deal." 7 subscales: influence on decision making, influence on school resources, instructional efficacy, disciplinary efficacy, enlisting parental involvement, enlisting community involvement, and creating a positive school climate.	How much can you influence the decisions that are made in your school? How much can you do to overcome the influence of adverse community conditions on student learning? How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules? How much can you assist parents in helping their children do well in school? How much can you do to get local colleges and universities involved in working with your school? How much can you do to make students enjoy coming to school? How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?

These studies all contributed to the efficacy measure that Goddard (2000) and his colleagues developed. In this instrument they shift their questions from the individual's orientation to the group's orientation, as this better represents the collective experience of a faculty.

Teachers must feel that they have the ability to improve themselves and their students in order to grow in efficacy. One way that teachers can grow in this way in through professional reflection. The following section will look at literature related to professional reflection and its application to efficacy.

Professional Reflection

Self-reflection contributes to teacher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1993). Kayapinar (2016), in his research on introducing a reflective practitioner's model to in-service teacher development, notes that good personal reflection skills improve self-efficacy. Though the link is under-researched, it certainly warrants closer study as definite links have been drawn. Calkins and Harris (2017) found, in a study of long-term impacts of critical reflection in faculty development, that critical reflection armed participants with "a sense of enhanced teaching ability, the skills required to implement the changes, and an improved sense of transparency and the ability to communicate expectations clearly to students" (p. 34).

Reflection is making something new out of the old. In the case of professional reflection, reflection takes experiences and observations of the past, applies critical thinking, and creates new understandings and worldviews from them. "All learning builds on existing perceptions and frameworks of understanding; therefore, links must be made between what is new and what already exists if learners are to make sense of what is happening to them" (Boud, 2001, p. 12). In education, reflection is an important element in assessment for this very reason: it helps guide the creation of links between what is known, and what is happening. This happens through a process and at various levels, and repeats constantly.

Laverick (2017), in his research, describes five levels of reflection; *rapid*

reflection, repair, review, research, and *retheorizing and reformulating*. Teachers are constantly employing the first three levels of reflection in their daily teaching, as they make observations and adjustments for individual learners throughout a lesson. The last two steps, *research* and *retheorizing and reformulating* take more conscious effort for a teacher. At the *research* level, a teacher typically collects data, or analyses research, and sustains their thinking on this over a period of time. In *retheorizing and reformulating*, "teachers critically examine their own theories and practice in regard to academic theories" (Laverick, 2017, p. 58). This model encourages reflection to take place consciously, so the teacher can evaluate and decide what he or she will or will not do—the goal of which is for the teacher to move from saying 'I think' to the ability to say 'I know'.

In particular, critical reflection is the point where assessment becomes learning. "Learning through critical reflection is assisted where students have three attributes, namely: open-mindedness; responsibility; and wholeheartedness" (Densten & Gray, 2001, p. 120). These three attributes are what make reflection effective. Yost, Stentner, and Forlenza-Bailey (2000) define open-mindedness as the ability to see things from multiple points of view, and suggest that proper mentorship can nurture this attribute. They define responsibility as "a perceived duty to search for truth and use knowledge for positive change" (p. 46), and wholeheartedness as being critical of one's own actions and thinking. Where these three attributes meet, effective self-reflection occurs.

Self-reflection is not something that should be done alone; "Adding others in the reflection process makes it easier to reduce individual bias" (Laverick, 2017, p. 56). To be truly wholehearted, others must be involved at multiple levels of the process. Collecting data, analysing the data, and lending constructive criticism are all ways that coordination between peers and supervisors help reflectors achieve higher levels of thinking (Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000).

In his book *The Reflective Practitioner*, Donald Schon (1983) speaks about the role of the supervisor in aiding professionals with reflection-in-action. Professionals will often encounter situations with which they are unfamiliar and

may have a hard time bringing past experiences to bear on their new problem. The supervisor must help the professional reframe the problem into a method of inquiry in which they are confident. Supervisors, or mentors, are well suited for this task when they have adequate experience in order to be able to draw upon a many past circumstances. They should also be capable of thinking in several different frameworks related to their profession as new problems may require different frameworks to be solved.

The next section of this literature review shifts into the realm of school leadership. It will look at how school leaders might be able to contribute to professional reflection and collective-efficacy of teaching faculties. The following section explores research on the dual role of a school leader as teacher evaluator and supervisor.

Teacher Evaluation and Supervision

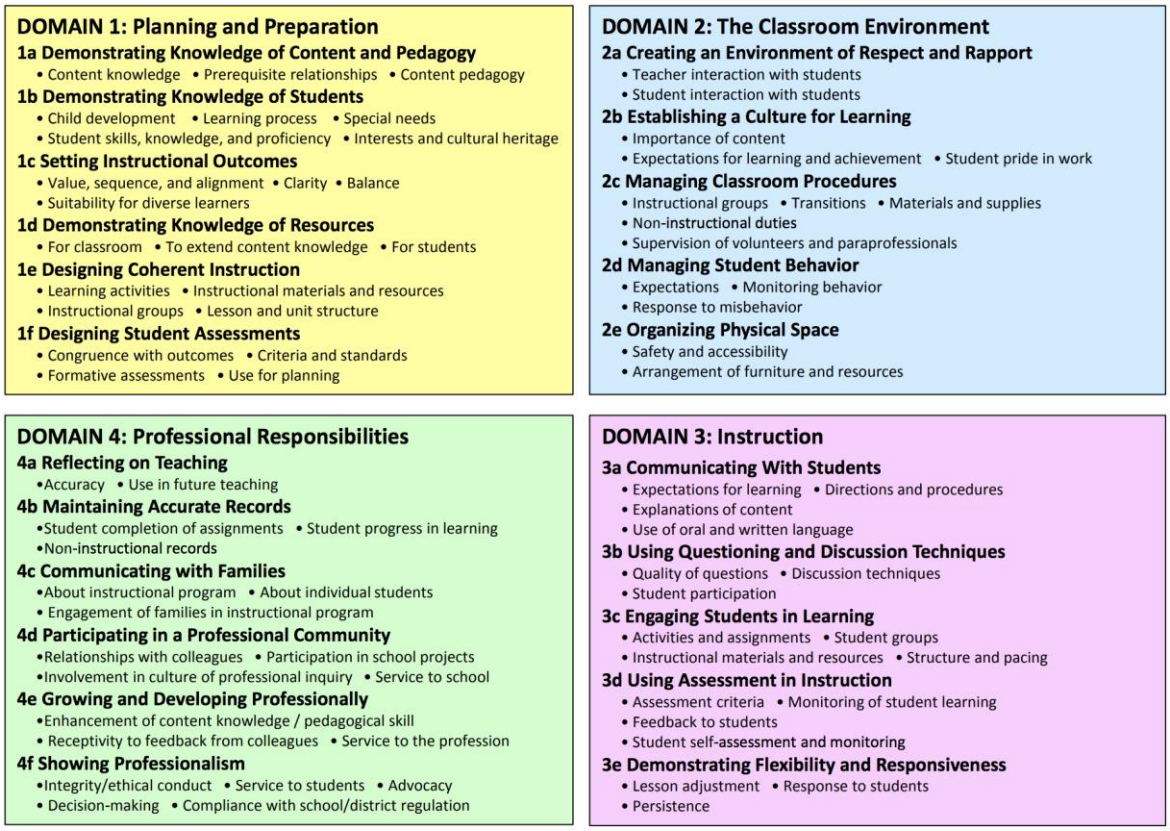
There is a balance to be struck by school leaders when addressing issues of teacher supervision and teacher evaluation. This can be tricky to navigate, as teacher evaluation requires authority and sound judgement. Depending on the school, teacher evaluation can also carry real consequences for teachers in the form of rewards or punishment (Zhang & Ng, 2017). Teacher supervision, on the other hand, requires a collegially responsive relationship that "is focused on ongoing support, teacher improvement, and teacher professional growth" (Mette, Anderson, Nieuwenhuizen, Range, Hvidston, & Doty, 2017, p. 710). In this regard, reflection on teaching practices can be an invaluable professional development tool. Behaviours that aid in one, such as a focus on accountability or determining and documenting a level of performance, can harm the other, such as providing support, development, and facilitating reflection. There is a need for school leaders to reconceptualise how they think of their role in regard to supervision and evaluation in order to function as they need to function (Mette et al., 2017).

There are many systems of teacher appraisal in place, and the outcomes can have an effect on teacher retention, promotion, and tenure (Derrington & Campbell, 2015, p. 306). Amzat (2017) describes his key performance indicators

for educators: teaching philosophy, teacher's expectations, teaching objectives, pedagogical content knowledge, and classroom management. In his view, it is mastery of these domains that constitutes an excellent educator. His study was conducted in Malaysia, where teacher appraisal ratings affect teachers' jobs in significant areas, such as salary, hiring, tenure, promotion, and official rating.

Charlotte Danielson, in her work with the Danielson Group (2014) has developed a framework for effective teaching. This framework is presented in Figure 4. In it, she identifies four domains of effective teaching: Planning and preparation, the classroom environment, professional responsibilities, and instruction.

Figure 4. Charlotte Danielson's Framework for Teaching. Source: The Danielson Group LLC (2014).



In her publication, Danielson (2013) elaborates more fully on each of her proposed domains. In Domain 1, teachers must show they have a command of the subjects that they teach, and also the pedagogical approaches that are best suited for their subjects. Domain 2 emphasises the classroom's atmosphere as a 'culture of learning' where the notion of hard work involves precision in thought and language. Domain 3 has an instructional focus, including items such as teacher communication with students, questioning and discussion, engaging and assessing students, and demonstrating flexibility and responsiveness. The final domain (Domain 4) of the framework defines the professional responsibilities of the teacher in their own personal professional development habits and decision and in their communication with community stakeholders.

In regard to teacher reflection as a professional responsibility, Danielson (2013) notes that reflection must be accurate and actionable. She elaborates further, stating:

> Reflecting on teaching encompasses the teacher's thinking that follows any instructional event, an analysis of the many decisions made in both the planning and the implementation of a lesson. By considering these elements in light of the impact they had on student learning, teachers can determine where to focus their efforts in making revisions and choose which aspects of the instruction they will continue in future lessons. Teachers may reflect on their practice through collegial conversations, journal writing, examining student work, conversations with students, or simply thinking about their teaching. Reflecting with accuracy and specificity, as well as being able to use in future teaching what has been learned, is an acquired skill; mentors, coaches, and supervisors can help teachers acquire and develop the skill of reflecting on teaching through supportive and deep questioning. Over time, this way of thinking both reflectively and self-critically and of analyzing instruction through the lens of student learning—whether excellent, adequate, or inadequate—becomes a habit of mind, leading to improvement in teaching and learning. (p. 87)

Not every school practices teacher evaluation where there is such an impact on the teachers' jobs. Most of the research in this area has been conducted in environments where school reform efforts are prevalent and job status is

dependent on the successful implementation of those reforms by teachers and principals who are closely scrutinized in relation to both evaluation and accountability.

However, in the research of Zhang and Ng (2017), they argue that "teacher appraisal… has often deteriorated into a mechanical and meaningless exercise. Teacher appraisal becomes a perfunctory ritual activity that is disjointed from the process of teaching improvement and teachers' professional development" (p. 197). This is from a study conducted in China, where teacher evaluation dictates rank and salary. From an American perspective, Wiliam (2014) states "observation protocols… do 'work' in that students taught by teachers who are rated more highly on the framework do learn more, but these frameworks are unable to identify all, or even most, aspects of effective teaching" (p. 4). Zhang and Ng (2011), in their earlier research, make mention that there is debate as to whether an effective combined appraisal system for teacher evaluation and teacher supervision can be achieved. Mette et al. (2017), speaking from the context of schools in the United States, states that "the theory of supervision, the formative feedback provided to teachers intended to promote growth as an instructor, can exist in practice within the current high stakes agenda of school accountability that predominately focuses on evaluation as a human resource function" (p. 722).

If teacher quality is the biggest contributing factor in student achievement (Aldeman, 2017), then developing quality teachers in a school should be a priority. Wiliam (2014) argues that "increased teacher quality requires investing in the teachers already working in our schools" (p. 1). This is the responsibility of school administration. Mette, Range, Anderson, Hvidston, and Nieuwenhuizen (2015) note that for principals' effectiveness, "helping teachers self-reflect was the most important predictor of teachers' ratings of principals' supervisory effectiveness in helping improve teacher instruction" (p. 24). This study focused on the teacher's perspective, and Mette (2015) and his colleagues note that research is still needed from the perspective of the administration on teacher supervision and evaluation.

Merging the tasks of supervising and evaluating teachers helps to create "a school culture that values ongoing learning through a shared leadership approach to address school improvement efforts" (Mette et al, 2015, p. 25). Awkard (2017) notes that, for principals practicing the roles of both evaluator and supervisor, "it is critical that teachers see this as a collaborative effort in which they have meaningful opportunities to steer the discussion, relying on the principal and teacher leader to serve as critical friends, not as judges or evaluators?" (p. 55). One of the main challenges in motivating teachers is engaging with them in improving their own performance as teachers. This requires "organizational opportunities that encourage teachers to think about their work in new ways and commit themselves to new standards and goals" (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008, p. 77). Creating a culture in this way creates a balance between supervision and evaluation. Sebastian and Allensworth (2013) state, school leaders must:

> coach and model good instruction, enable professional development for teachers, hire effective teachers and fire ineffective ones, manage relationships among staff members, facilitate collaboration around instruction and student support, set the vision for the building, create ties with families and communities, and maintain order and safety in the building so that instruction can occur. (p. 1)

In order to go into further depth of how principals can go about marrying their roles as supervisors and evaluators, a closer look at the research surrounding the concepts of instructional leadership is needed.

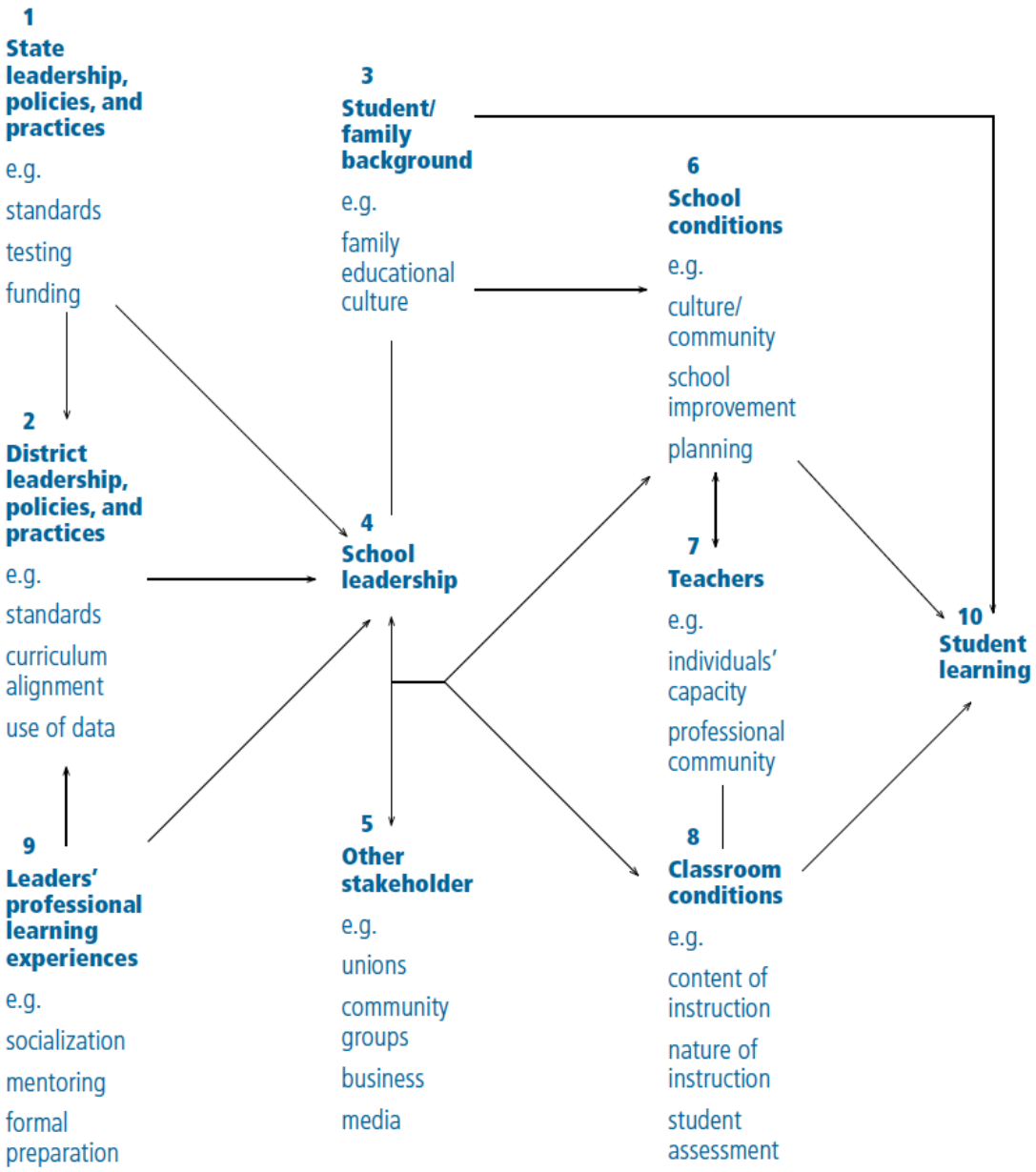
School Leadership

There are a number of ways school leaders can exercise their influence to increase student achievement. While school leadership does not directly influence classroom learning, it has been found to be second only to classroom instruction among all-school factors that contribute to student learning (Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). School leaders are in a position to help influence some of the sources that shape the nature of school conditions. Among those sources are professional learning experiences, in which leaders can include

efficacy-building strategies. Çalik et al. (2012) notes that instructional leadership influences the collective-efficacy of a school indirectly through individual teachers' sense of self-efficacy.

The following Figure 5 illustrates the critical roles leaders play in the school around identifying and supporting learning, structuring the social settings and mediating external demands.

Figure 5. A Framework for School Leader Influence. Source: Leithwood et al. (2004)



School leaders, though shown to be impacted by many factors themselves such as standards, policies and experiences, have direct impact on both the school and classroom conditions in which teachers work, and students learn.

Instructional leadership behaviours are also related to variables such as professional development (Blasé & Blase, 1999). Leithwood (1996) describes this type of behaviour as "developing people". This is where leaders emphasise the importance of internal professional development, which is focused on meeting the priorities, concerns and needs individually identified by teachers (Day, Sammons, Leithwood, Hopkins, Gu, Brown, & Ahtaridou, 2011).

Leithwood et al. (2004) notes that in order to engage in practice that helps teachers develop professionally, leaders need a solid knowledge of the "technical core" of schooling—sometimes referred to as instructional leadership. It is important for principals in the role of evaluator to have a deep knowledge of teaching and learning, understand how to give feedback, and how to plan professional development that supports teacher learning. Instructional leadership is largely about the ways in which principals are interacting with their faculty to "build capacity of their teachers as leaders, training, and empowering teachers to take ownership of their school's improvement efforts" (Larkin, 2017, p. 31). Stein and Nelson (2003) note that effective instructional leaders "must be able to know strong instruction when they see it, to encourage it when they don't, and to set the conditions for continuous academic learning among their professional staffs" (p. 424). Evaluators who completed the National Board Certification program in the United States reported that going through the process of personal reflection and providing feedback to teachers was useful in evaluating effectiveness of others and improving their own practice (Darling-Hammond, 2013).

Instructional leadership, compared to the more traditional operational leadership, is quickly becoming noted as one of the most important focuses in effective school leadership (Oleszewski, Shoho, & Barnett, 2012; Marks & Printy, 2003; Neumerski, 2012). Though there does not exist a single agreed upon definition of exactly what is instructional leadership or its processes, it is most commonly described as a set of behaviours. Neumerski (2012) offers that:

> most common among the list of behaviours, instructional leadership was to be carried out by the principal alone, and he or she was to be a strong,

> directive leader, focused on building school culture, academic press, and high expectations for student achievement. (p. 318)

According to Larkin (2017) there are three main effective instructional leadership behaviours of principals, which include defining the school's mission, managing the instructional program, and promoting a positive learning climate. To elaborate further on these behaviours, she states instructional leadership behaviours of principals include:

> (a) a principal's ability to establish a shared mission, vision, and goals for the school; ones that promote high expectations for the learning of all students;
> (b) a principal's knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment; and their ability to support teacher's instructions and students' learning in the classroom; and
> (c) a principal's ability to promote and establish safe, orderly, and positive teaching and learning environments. (p. 28)

In their study, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) discuss these very dimensions of focus for effective school leadership.

Defining the school's mission. School leaders need to define school-wide goals within their schools that focus on student achievement, and communicate those goals with the objective of developing a shared purpose and vision (Larkin, 2017). This communication must take place across all school stakeholders, including students, teachers, parents, and community members. All should have the opportunity to provide feedback in helping shape that vision. Leithwood and Beatty (2008) note that when stakeholders feel the school leader:

> not only respected their contributions but also cared about their ideas and their personal well-being, they were loyal to those leaders and would do almost anything for them…The impact principals can have on the building of

> a shared vision for the school is often meted out in daily seemingly minor interactions. (p. 92-93)

The school mission must be more that the school leader's mission; it must also be the school community's mission.

Managing the instructional program. Within their schools, school leaders are responsible for ensuring that students are learning and achieving at a high level through the supervision and evaluation of instruction, the coordination of curriculum, and the monitoring of student progress (Larkin, 2017). This is done indirectly, through the impact school leaders have on teachers and classroom practices. Some of these impacts include formulating school goals, setting and communicating high expectations, organizing classrooms, allocating required resources, supervising teacher performance, monitoring student progress, and promoting a positive environment for learning (Heck, Larsen, & Marcoulides, 1990). Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) note that effective school leaders are knowledgeable about instructional, curricular, assessment, and classroom practices. They must act as a 'teacher of teachers' in order to help their teachers improve their craft.

Promoting the school's climate. Larkin (2017) defines school climate as "the beliefs, values, and interactions among a school's staff, students, and parents" (p. 34). These factors have a real impact on the teaching and learning that happens inside a school. Principals must promote a positive culture by protecting instructional time through the creation of policies and practices that minimize classroom distractions, promoting continuous learning for all, maintaining high visibility, and providing incentive for teachers and students (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger, 2005).

Many school leaders have established professional learning communities in their schools as a method for professional development. The following section will review literature related to professional learning communities as successful professional development opportunities.

Professional Learning Communities

The formalization of professional learning communities began sometime in the early 1990's, some say in response to Peter Senge's work The Fifth Discipline [(1990). While many were engaging in practices that would later be described as professional learning communities (PLC), the phrase has worked its way into the educational lexicon, partly because it described succinctly a form of ongoing professional practice, and partly due to the extensive marketing arm of the DuFours (1998). Regardless of the formation, PLCs make a lot of sense. "We need each other. We always have, but the price of failure to work with others near and far has become unsustainable" (Joyce, Weil, & Calhoun, 2015, p. 9). A Professional Learning Community refers to a school, or a network within a school, in which teachers collaborate, inquire, support, and care for each other together as members of a shared practice (Sergiovanni, 2009). These types of communities are often informal, and do not survive in instances of direct management—rather, it is best to cultivate environments and structures where they can thrive (Wenger & Snyder, 2000). Collaboration and accountability are key to establishing successful PLCs (Brown, Horn, & King, 2018).

Cultivating strong PLCs is an excellent way for teaching faculties to experience and participate in professional development throughout the school year. This type of group allows for teachers to become teacher leaders, and principals to become instructional leaders (Trilaksono, Prursottama, Misbach, & Prasetya, 2019). PLCs help teachers solve problems, promote best practices, develop professional skills, and will help with the recruitment and retention of teachers in a school (Wenger & Snyder, 2000). Ning, Lee, and Lee (2015) discuss the two main dimensions of PLCs, which are collective learning and professional practice. Teachers must prioritize professional advancements and make efforts to develop the best strategies to provide effective student learning in order to achieve collective learning. Sharing of personal practice requires teachers to participate in peer coaching, classroom observation and group discussion, which will enhance their professional development.

Trust in colleagues is an integral part of successful PLCs. This type of social interaction helps teacher reduce the fear and anxiety they may experience in their work environment and helps them to define and build their own self-concepts (Dur & Sol, 2010). Teachers must be open in both mind and attitude to deal effectively with change and difference (Erwin & Garman, 2010) and also to stimulate creativity (Trilaksono et al., 2010). Growing and changing together as a team brings teachers closer and builds trust amongst the group. This trust allows colleagues to engage in more honest conversation, and helps create a comfortable environment where collegial peer observation can take place.

School leaders can be participants in these communities, but not as a manager. Direct management over these types of environments can be detrimental to their productivity and survival (Wenger & Snyder, 2000). This is especially true in cultures with high power distance (Lee & Lee, 2018) such as the Philippines. When authority figures are present, or teachers feel evaluation may be taking place, the group will tend to discuss and present what they believe their supervisor would like to hear rather than engage in honest and helpful discussion. School leaders should look to foster a shared vision, or alignment of values. Values generated by those within the school will become the organization's catalyst for moving forward (Sabir, Sonair, & Khan, 2011). There must be a focus on the importance of reflective dialogue throughout the meetings in order to voice and use alternative views productively and avoid just reifying of mandated practices (Lee & Lee, 2018). There should be a system of shared governance of these communities in order for them to result in school improvement (Brown et al., 2019).

Professional learning communities can also help to improve self-efficacy (Gilbert, Voelkel, & Johnson, 2018). These communities are opportunities for participants to practice verbal persuasion. This could be in the form of coaching or sharing experiences. Gilbert (2018) and her colleagues also found that leading PLCs was an excellent way to improve the self-efficacy of school leaders, or those leading the PLC meetings.

The final section of this literature review will look at research concerning programs of evaluation where school leaders can combine their roles of teacher evaluation and teacher supervision. This is important to this study as school leaders and teachers in private schools are held highly accountable, and will often have in place formal evaluation practices.

A System of Evaluation

Darling-Hammond (2014) talks about teacher evaluation as part of a system for teaching and learning, rather than an isolated practice occurring once or twice a year. In her article, she suggests that systems for evaluating teachers need to be embedded in good practice, and that they should be ongoing. She emphasises that collaborative learning is a key element in an ideal system of evaluation. "In building a system, it is important not only to develop skills on the part of individual practitioners, but also to create the conditions under which practitioners can use their skills appropriately" (p. 7).

Darling-Hammond (2014) suggests taking lessons from high achieving countries in relation to how to improve teaching quality. Finland, for example, does not focus on firing poor teachers, but on creating highly qualified teachers in their preparation programs. In schools, instead of focusing on formal, on-the-job evaluation of teachers, they focus on collaboration amongst professionals to improve student learning. This is done through ongoing professional development. She suggests a couple of conditions that are necessary to create productive systems: "evidence about teacher's practice must be integrated with appropriate evidence about student learning, and... evaluations must be connected with both individual and collective professional learning" (p. 9).

Darling-Hammond, Amrein-Beardsley, Haertle, and Rothsien (2012) outline some of the problems surrounding the Value-Added Model of teacher evaluation, which is widely practiced in the United States. Briefly, the Value-Added Model compares student test scores across school years to determine change (growth) and evaluates teachers based on that change. The problem Darling-Hammond et al.

outline is that there are other forces at work in student achievement (or lack of achievement) beyond teacher influence alone. They discuss such elements such as class size, curriculum materials, instructional time, availability of specialists/tutors/resources; home and community support; individual student needs; peer culture and achievement; prior teaching/schooling; summer learning loss; and specific tests used, as factors that can greatly influence students' test scores from year to year, and likewise a teacher's ability to "add value". Tracking student growth is certainly valuable information, and should contribute to sound professional reflection, but it should not be used as the only means of evaluating teachers and their effectiveness.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Research Design and Rational

This research used a mixed methods approach. This method was chosen in order to expand the scope and breadth and to try to offset the weaknesses of either approach alone (Driscoll, Appiah-Yeboah, Salib, & Rupert, 2007). Qualitative data was gathered from interviews conducted with six school leaders of international schools in the Philippines. A qualitative interview was chosen in order to gather richer, more in-depth data about each school and school leader, given the small sample size. The goal of these interviews was to have conversations with school leaders about their previous and current experience with reflective practice, and to identify what types of instructional leadership behaviour they were currently engaging to help teachers grow through reflective practice. It was felt that qualitative data collection was more appropriate for this information as it allowed respondents to explain and elaborate on their instructional leadership practices and how they believed those practices might influence their faculties. The quantitative data was collected in the form of a survey modeled after the instrument developed by Goddard (2000) and colleagues called the *Collective Efficacy Survey (see Appendix C for this instrument)* which has been found to have significant reliability and validly. The quantitative approach was added to the research in order to triangulate the interview data, as well as remove personal bias from the data. The survey was completed by each school leader following the interview, and then was distributed to all faculty reporting to that school leader. The goal of the surveys was to ascertain the perceived collective-efficacy of school leaders related to faculty who report to them, and to look for correlations between instructional leadership practices and teacher efficacy ratings.

Procedure

After securing Thompson Rivers University ethics approval, approval to conduct the research was gained from the head of each school. Principals were then contacted to explain the research and ask for participation. Those who agreed scheduled an interview via Skype with the researcher. The interviews were

conducted in March, two months into each school's second semester. The interviews were approximately 30-45 minutes in length. Following the interview, school leaders were sent the collective-efficacy survey online, and their faculties were also sent the same online survey.

The interviews were transcribed and returned to the school leaders who sent their verification and correction if desired. The interviews were then analysed and coded for themes. This was done by hand, and with multiple readings, the themes becoming narrowed into the three broad themes discussed in the next section. The survey data was analysed to look for median responses in the categories of group competence and task analysis, as well as medians for each individual question. Median scores were chosen instead of averages as they are a more statistically sound presentation of the true center within a dataset and also allow better for reducing the impact of outliers (especially in a small sample size)

Participation Selection

The schools chosen are all private schools in the Philippines. They have different owners, but two of the schools had different school leaders for difference school levels (i.e. upper school, middle school, and lower school). These school leaders were chosen due to the private status of their schools, and their high standards for student achievement. These schools are licenced to operate by the Philippine Department of Education, but are externally accredited and have developed and deliver their own curricula. They all describe themselves as college preparatory schools and carry the classification of international schools due to their mix of Filipino and non-Filipino students, faculty and school leaders. None of the school leaders were Filipino, and all had completed their post-secondary studies in 'western' countries (Canada, USA, UK, Australia). The schools were of varying sizes (900-200 students) and school leaders who were selected worked in Upper (grades 9-12), Middle (grades 5-8) and Lower (grades PK-4) school levels. The study was conducted shortly after the beginning of the second semester so that participants had already put in place and experienced many of the practices

related to the interview questions and would have a sense of their efficacy for the school year.

Study Participants

The heads of schools that met the above-mentioned criteria were contacted in order to get permission to conduct the study with school leaders and teachers in their schools. After heads of schools granted permission to conduct the study, the researcher contacted school leaders about participating in the study. Six school leaders from five private schools in the Philippines agreed to be interviewed, and the school leaders were asked to complete the collective-efficacy survey following the interview. Teachers who reported to those school leaders were also sent the twenty-one-question survey after having reflected in writing on ways in which they use professional reflection in their daily work. The surveys were sent by email to faculty either through the school leader who was interviewed with an explanation of the study by the researcher, or directly by the researcher. These surveys were anonymous, and participants were a mix of international teachers—teachers from 'western' nations —and local Filipino teachers, who teach together in the International School. Neither the school leaders nor heads of school had access to these responses. Teachers who participated in this study were professionals working in a Philippine International School context. As such, there were two main profiles for these participants: International teachers, and local Filipino teachers. The international teachers were those who left their home country (and more importantly culture) in order to live and work abroad. The teachers, like the school leaders mentioned above, mostly came from "western" countries (USA, Canada, UK, Australia) and have completed their own schooling in those regions. The local Filipino teachers had mainly gone to school in the Philippines, with a minority having received their post-secondary education outside the country. They were, therefore, familiar with the culture of host country—though not necessarily the students.

All school leaders and teachers worked with a significantly multicultural student body. A significant population of the students in these schools were Filipino (around 40%). Other students who were from foreign countries were not immigrants, but highly mobile—these types of schools anticipate a normal annual student turnover of around 30 percent (Matthews, 1989), and often these students live in a culture different than that of their parents' –they are described as Third Culture Kids (Pollock & Van Reken, 2009). This means that, given everyone's cultural backgrounds, a majority of people were working with colleagues and students from very different cultural backgrounds, and were not necessarily hoping to assimilate, or 'fit in', to the host country's wider community beyond the school. Educators in this context can have their intentions challenged after they are exposed to a partially familiar school setting, but are immersed in a not so familiar society (Murakami-Ramalho, 2008) and vice versa.

The demographics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Participant Demographics

School Leader	School	Grade Level	Size of Faculty
Scott	School A	Upper (9-12)	84
Mark	School A	Upper (9-12)	84
Caryn	School B	Middle (5-8)	80
Caitlin	School C	Lower (PK-4)	52
Tyler	School D	Middle (6-8)	31
Jesse	School E	All School (PK-12)	32

Note. Participants have been assigned a pseudonym

Data Collection Instruments

Three broad questions were asked in relation to the qualitative data:

1. In order to understand how school leaders use professional reflection in their schools they were asked first to reflect on their experiences with professional reflection as a classroom teacher, and then to consider how those early experiences may or may not have influenced their current practice as a school leader.
2. They were asked about professional learning communities that exist in their school and how they contribute to those communities.
3. They were asked ways that they use professional reflection in their current practice as instructional leaders.

These interviews were transcribed and returned to the school leaders to verify their accuracy and validity. This checking of the data was done in order to support the validity of the interview data collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). They returned their verified interviews to the researcher with additional information and/or deletions and revisions. The transcripts were reviewed and themes relevant to the interviews were identified as they emerged in the interviews themselves.

In addition, the school leaders were asked to fill in a Collective Efficacy Survey that was adapted by the researcher from the *Collective Efficacy Scale* in the research of Goddard et al. (2000). This survey was used to acquire school leaders' perceptions of their school's ability to influence student learning. The instrument was provided immediately following the interview so that the respondent was able to reflect on recent experiences about uses of professional reflection as they completed the survey. This instrument has twenty-one items, asking respondents to rate each item on a 4-point Likert Scale from *disagree to agree*. Items were worded so that respondents would consider both categories of group competence (GC), and task analysis (TA). It also recognised that wording items positively (+) or negatively (-) could influence respondents, so the survey used both. In questions worded positively, high score denote higher efficacy, while in negatively worded

questions, lower scores denote higher efficacy. Task analysis refers to assessment teachers make of what is required to perform the teaching task. This includes inferences about the challenges of teaching in a particular environment, including the ability to motivate students, available teaching and community resources and the physical plant (Goddard et al., 2000). Group competence is the explicit judgment of the competence of colleagues in the school. This includes teachers' skills, methods, strategies, experience, and training. Teachers also get a sense of group competence from the history success of students after leaving the school (Goddard et al., 2000).

The following Figure 6 illustrates how each question relates to group competence (GC) or task analysis (TA) positively and negatively. This figure also illustrates the questions asked by the survey of Goddard et al. (2000, p. 492), and notes which category the questions belongs under.

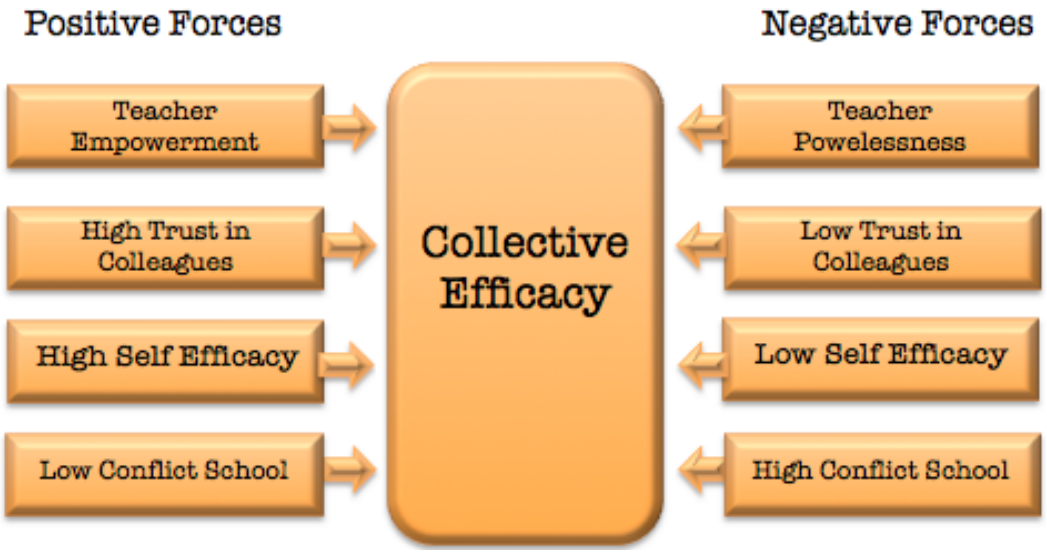
Figure 6. Collective Teacher Efficacy Instrument. Source: Goddard et al. (2000, p. 492).

Study no.	Pilot no.	Item	GC+	GC−	TA+	TA−
CTE1	1	Teachers in this school have what it takes to get the children to learn.	X			
CTE2	2	Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students.	X			
CTE3	3	If a child doesn't learn something the first time, teachers will try another way.	X			
CTE4	4	Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.	X			
CTE5	5	Teachers in this school really believe every child can learn.	X			
CTE6	6	If a child doesn't want to learn teachers here give up.		X		
CTE7	7	Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with these students.		X		
CTE8	8	Teachers in this school think there are some students that no one can reach.		X		
CTE9	9	Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.		X		
CTE10	11	Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teaching methods.		X		
CTE11	12	These students come to school ready to learn.			X	
CTE12	13	Homelife provides so many advantages they are bound to learn.			X	
CTE13	14	The lack of instructional materials and supplies makes teaching very difficult.				X
CTE14	New	Students here just aren't motivated to learn.				X
CTE15	New	The quality of school facilities here really facilitates the teaching and learning process.			X	
CTE16	New	The opportunities in this community help ensure that these students will learn.			X	
CTE17	New	Teachers here are well prepared to teach the subjects they are assigned to teach.	X			
CTE18	New	Teachers in this school are skilled in various methods of teaching.	X			
CTE19	New	Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety.				X
CTE20	New	Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here.				X
CTE21	New	Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems.		X		

Note. GC = group competence; TA = task analysis; CTE = collective teacher efficacy.

To check for criterion validity of their survey, Goddard (2000) and colleagues examined the relationship of collective-efficacy with other social processes in schools including conflict, sense of powerlessness, trust in colleagues and individual efficacy. This additional data made it possible to perform further tests of criterion related validity for the scale. They found a positive correlation between high teacher efficacy and low conflict schools (the reverse being true as well, high conflict schools tend to have low teacher efficacy). In relation to teacher powerlessness, in circumstances where teachers felt they have no control over both students and the organization, there was a negative correlation—lower collective-efficacy. Trust in colleagues was found to foster higher levels of collegiality and more opportunities for vicarious learning resulting in a positive correlation—higher collective-efficacy. Finally, they concluded a positive relationship between collective teacher efficacy, and aggregated individual teacher efficacy. The following Figure 7 shows factors which negatively and positively affected collective efficacy based on their research.

Figure 7. Forces Affecting Collective Efficacy. (Goddard et al., 2000)



The following Figures 8 and 9 show the factor loading for a one-factor solution, and the reliabilities and correlations for collective teacher efficacy scale, respectively.

Figure 8. Factor Loading for a One-Factor Solution. (Goddard et at., 2000, p. 495)

Item no.	Items	Factor loadings
CTE4	Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.	.93
CTE1	Teachers in this school have what it takes to get the children to learn.	.84
CTE5	Teachers in this school really believe every child can learn.	.84
CTE2	Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students.	.83
CTE11	These students come to school ready to learn.	.82
CTE19	Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety.	.80
CTE9	Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.	.79
CTE14	Students here just aren't motivated to learn.	.79
CTE21	Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems.	.77
CTE6	If a child doesn't want to learn teachers here give up.	.77
CTE10	Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teaching methods.	.76
CTE7	Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with these students.	.74
CTE16	The opportunities in this community help ensure that these students will learn.	.73
CTE17	Teachers here are well prepared to teach the subjects they are assigned to teach.	.72
CTE20	Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here.	.72
CTE3	If a child doesn't learn something the first time teachers will try another way.	.72
CTE8	Teachers in this school think there are some students that no one can reach.	.69
CTE12	Homelife provides so many advantages they are bound to learn.	.65
CTE18	Teachers in this school are skilled in various methods of teaching.	.64
CTE13	The lack of instructional materials and supplies makes teaching very difficult.	.62
CTE15	The quality of school facilities here really facilitates the teaching and learning process.	.61

Note. CTE = collective teacher efficacy.

Figure 9. Reliabilities and Correlations for Collective Teacher Efficacy Scale. (Goddard et al., 2000, p. 496)

Variable	CTE	PTE	TC	II
Collective teacher efficacy (CTE)	.96[a]			
Personal teaching efficacy (PTE)	.54*	.79[a]		
Trust in colleagues (TC)	.62*	.23	.92[a]	
Institutional Integrity (II)	.05	−.01	−.05	.66[a]

[a]Scale reliabilities along diagonal.
*Correlation significant at the .01 level.

To conclude their study of validity and reliability, Goddard (2000) and his colleagues stated that:

> As predicted, our measure of teacher efficacy was positively related to (a) aggregated teacher efficacy as assessed by Bandura's (2000) measure, (b) aggregated personal teacher efficacy assessed using Hoy and Woolfolk's (1993) adaptation of a set of Gibson and Dembo (1984) items, (c) and faculty trust in colleagues. In addition, collective efficacy was negatively related to teacher powerlessness and unrelated to environmental press. These results provide evidence that the collective teacher efficacy scale employed in this study is valid. In addition, the measure has high internal reliability (alpha=.96) (p. 496)

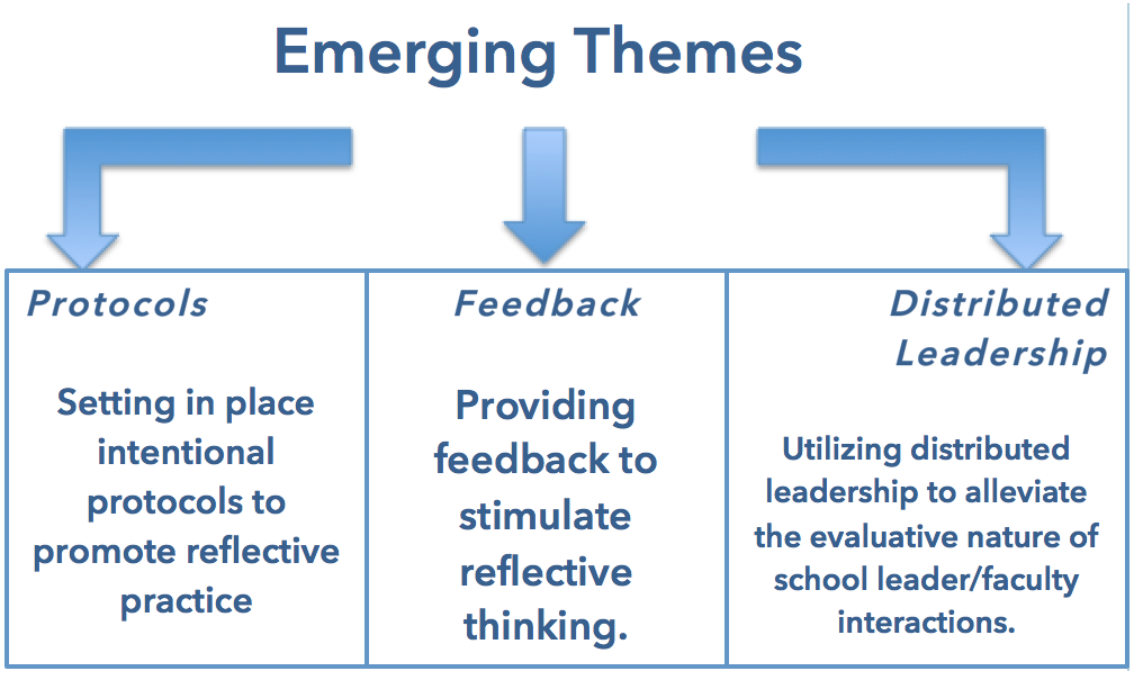
Chapter Four: Findings and Discussion

The interviews conducted with school leaders yielded rich conversations about programs and practices that are being used to promote teacher growth in high performing International Schools in the Philippines. School leaders all identified professional reflection as a key practice in both their own, and teachers' professional growth. In our conversation, participant Scott noted, "It's very difficult to teach someone to be reflective." The difficulty is taking the time to look critically at a piece of data in order to reframe thinking. Indeed, sometimes it's even difficult just identifying a valid piece of data to be analysed.

Laverick (2017) spoke about five levels of reflection: *rapid reflection, repair, review, research* and *retheorizing and reformulating.* In order to function in a classroom, teachers are constantly applying the first three levels—they are reactionary. It is in the last two areas that conscientious practice needs to be applied in order to influence deep professional reflection among faculty. By creating programs, practicing specific behaviours, or establishing certain expectations, school leaders were trying to create circumstances and environments conducive to professional reflection.

Upon reviewing the completed interview transcripts, three common themes emerged as relevant to instructional leadership practices that could have influence on collective-efficacy. Those themes were 1) setting in place intentional protocols to promote reflective practice, 2) providing feedback to stimulate reflective thinking, and 3) utilizing distributed leadership to alleviate the evaluative nature of school leader/faculty interactions. The following Figure 10 provides a visual representation of the themes that emerged from the data analysis. This chapter will first discuss the quantitative findings of the collective-efficacy surveys, followed by the qualitative findings of the three themes in relation to the related literature, and present excerpts directly from the interviews to support that discussion.

Figure 10. Emerging Themes.



Quantitative Findings: Efficacy Surveys

The quantitative data collected through the collective-efficacy surveys yielded limited data. The feedback from the selected populations was quite low, as only 11% of all teachers completed the survey (a total of 31 teacher out of 286). Therefore, the results cannot be statistically analysed and no trends can be extracted. Possible explanations of why this may have occurred will be explored more fully in the limitations section. There are, however, a couple of generalizations that are worth noting in this section.

As this survey used a four-point Likert scale, median scores are representative the middle value of data between a lower boundary of 1 and an upper boundary of 4. A score above a median of 3.75 would therefore be considered very high, as a majority of respondents would have fully agreed with

the statement. Conversely, scores below 1.25 would be considered very low as a majority of respondents would have fully disagreed with the statement.

Some of the generalized trends in the data noticed through the surveys where there existed sizable differences in median scores, included that faculty members generally rated slightly more positively (higher on the + questions, and lower on the – questions) than their school leader. Those schools (A & B) that practiced peer-observation protocols generally scored more positively than schools that did not. This can be observed when looking at the average median score of both faculty and school leaders within the school. Evidence of the total median faculty efficacy scores compared to the school leader efficacy scores is presented in Tables 2 and 3. These are the median rating of each question set (GC+, GC-, TA+, TA-) out of a possible score of 4, as well as the percentage of faculty who completed each survey.

Table 2

Median GC Efficacy of Faculty compared to School Leaders

School	Survey Comple-tion	Median GC+ Scores				Median GC- Score			
		Faculty	School Leader	Diff.	Combined Median	Faculty	School Leader	Diff.	Combined Median
A	7%	3.75	3.92	+0.17	3.80	1.19	1.50	+0.31	1.25
B	10%	3.75	3.81	+0.06	3.73	1.22	1.10	-0.12	1.21
C	3%	3.75	3.60	-0.15	3.69	2.17	1.83	-0.34	1.83
D	19%	3.76	2.80	-0.96	3.59	1.25	3.00	+1.75	1.34
E	26%	3.86	3.92	+0.06	3.87	1.21	1.50	+0.29	1.23

Table 3

Median TA Efficacy of Faculty compared to School Leaders

School	Survey Compl-etion	Median TA+ Score				Median TA- Score			
		Faculty	School Leader	Diff.	Combined Median	Faculty	School Leader	Diff.	Combined Median
A	7%	3.80	3.25	-0.55	3.20	1.07	1.07	-	1.07
B	10%	3.50	3.83	+.033	3.43	1.05	1.00	-0.05	1.01
C	3%	3.25	3.50	+0.25	3.33	1.17	1.00	-0.17	1.10
D	19%	3.64	3.00	-0.64	3.57	1.10	2.50	+1.40	1.14
E	26%	2.94	2.83	-0.10	2.92	1.17	1.17	-	1.17

Worth noting in Tables 2 and 3, is that when looking at the combined median, the schools all rated themselves higher in GC+ than in TA+, and lower in TA- than in GC-. This could indicate that faculties in these schools found their colleagues very competent, and that outside factors, such as family circumstances or school resources, were not affecting their perceived ability to teach students. This could be due to the nature of the type of schools these teachers are teaching in (i.e. highly rated private schools). These considerations may have had an effect on both the low number of respondents to the survey, and also to high collective-efficacy scores. More discussion on teachers' perception of collective efficacy in high achieving schools will be presented in the limitations and future considerations section.

A breakdown of each question with the median efficacy score per school is presented in Table 4. After each question, the table also stipulates the question category of that item.

Table 4

Median Efficacy Scores per School

Question	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E
1. If a child doesn't learn something the first time teachers will try another way. (GC+)	3.90	3.75	4.00	3.63	4.00
2. Teachers in this school are skilled in various methods of teaching. (GC+)	4.00	3.40	3.25	3.63	4.00
3. Teachers here are well prepared to teach the subjects they are assigned to teach. (GC+)	3.93	3.86	3.00	3.63	4.00
4. Teachers in this school really believe every child can learn. (GC+)	3.83	3.75	4.00	3.33	3.78
5. If a child doesn't want to learn teachers here give up. (GC-)	1.17	1.06	1.35	1.38	1.44
6. Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teaching methods. (GC-)	1.75	1.25	2.00	1.38	1.78
7. Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning. (GC-)	1.00	1.06	1.25	1.20	1.00
8. Teachers in this school have what it takes to get the children to learn. (GC+)	3.90	3.86	4.00	3.63	4.00
9. Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students. (GC+)	3.75	3.75	3.00	3.63	3.22
10. Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students. (GC+)	3.30	3.60	3.75	3.63	3.33
11. The lack of instructional materials and supplies makes teaching very difficult. (TA-)	1.00	1.06	1.25	1.38	1.56
12. Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems. (GC-)	1.30	1.88	2.75	1.38	1.56
13. Teachers in this school think there are some students that no one can reach. (GC-)	1.17	1.14	2.00	1.86	2.11
14. The quality of school facilities here really facilitates the teaching and learning process. (TA+)	3.90	4.00	4.00	3.80	3.11
15. Home life provides so many advantages they are bound to learn. (TA+)	2.17	2.92	2.75	2.75	2.11
16. These students come to school ready to learn. (TA+)	3.17	3.38	3.25	3.63	3.11

17. Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here. (TA-)	1.17	1.00	1.00	1.08	1.20
18. The opportunities in this community help ensure that these students will learn. (TA+)	3.30	3.38	3.25	3.63	3.00
19. Students here just aren't motivated to learn. (TA-)	1.17	1.25	1.25	1.38	1.56
20. Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety. (TA-)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
21. Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with these students. (GC-)	1.50	1.25	2.33	1.38	1.89

In relating their practices or programs to the effect on collective-efficacy during the interviews, school leaders had a hard time speaking to any direct links between the two. “It’s hard to measure the impact” (Scott), “Anecdotally we’ve received feedback, but we have not got a system in place to test the effects of the PLCs or the focus groups” (Mark).

In questions pertaining to teacher powerlessness related to drug use, facility quality, or safety of communities, teachers’ general response was that these were not factors that contributed to reduced collective-efficacy. The research of Goddard et al. (2000) would validate this trend, as these schools would be classified as low conflict schools, which should result in higher collective-efficacy results.

Median school efficacy results for each question category arranged by positive and negative group competence questions (GC+) (GC-) and task analysis questions (TA+) (TA-) can be found in Table 5. This data is also organized by category in Figure 11 and by school in Figure 12.

Table 5

School Median by Question Category

Question Category	**School A**	**School B**	School C	School D	School E
GC+	**3.80**	**3.73**	3.69	3.59	3.87
GC-	**1.25**	**1.21**	1.83	1.34	1.23
TA+	**3.20**	**3.43**	3.33	3.57	2.92
TA-	**1.07**	**1.01**	1.10	1.14	1.17

Note. Bolded columns represent schools that practiced peer observation.

Figure 11. Average Group Competence and Task Analysis Across School.

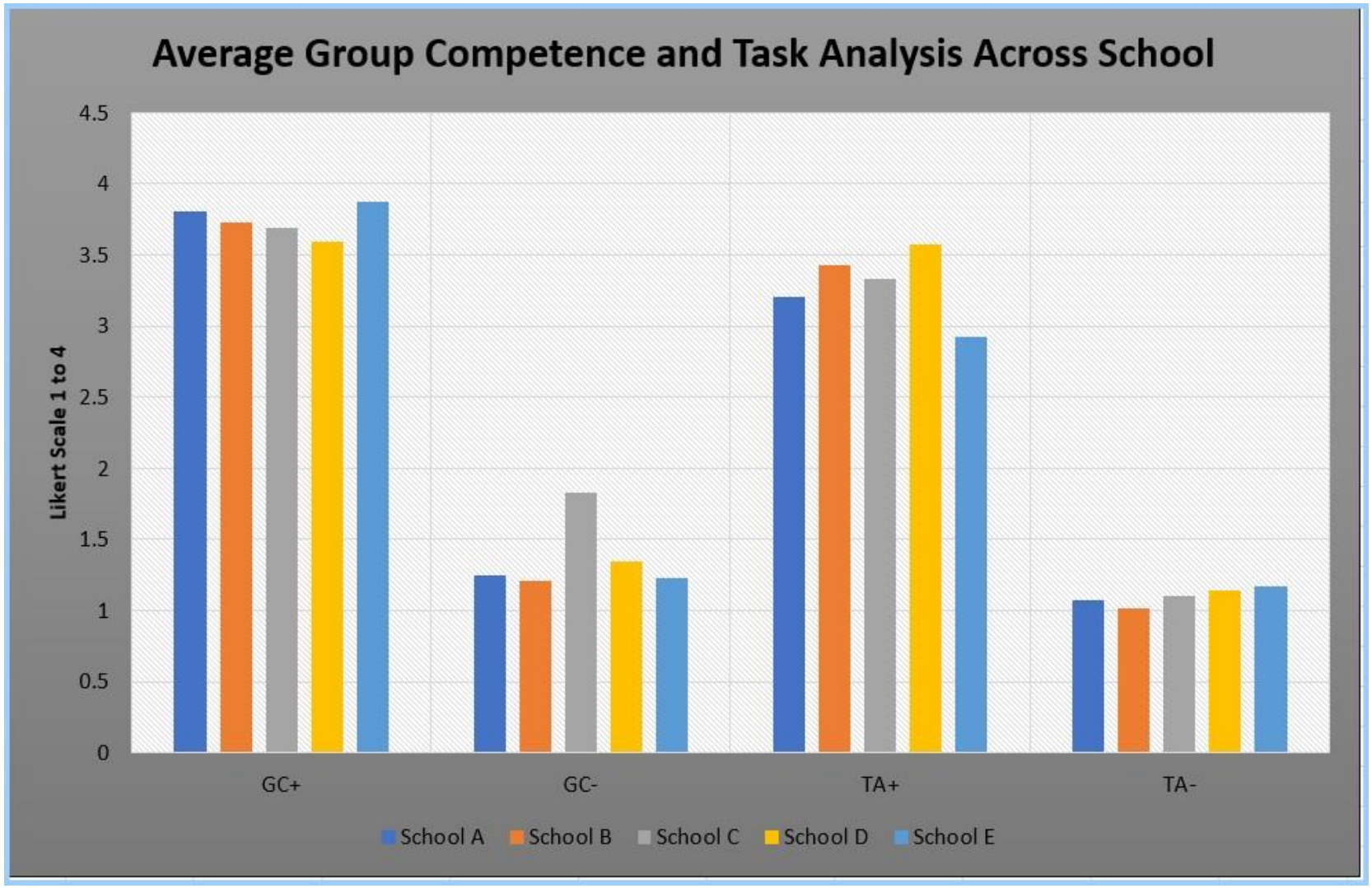
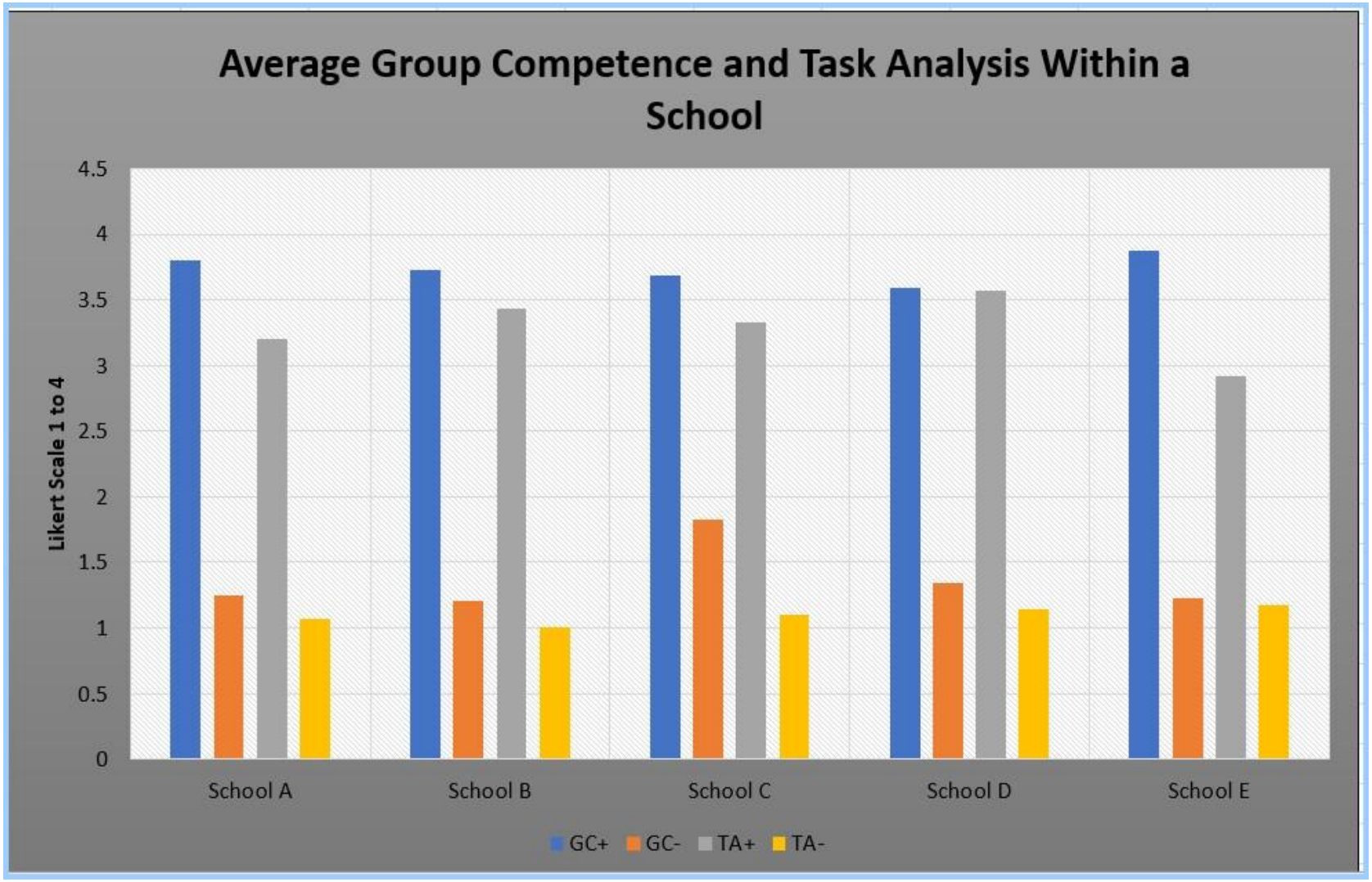


Figure 12. Average Group Competence and Task Analysis Within a School



Interestingly, it was not in the positively worded survey questions that faculties that practiced peer observation tended to score higher, it was in the negatively worded questions that these faculties were less critical of their own and colleagues' competence. This may suggest that peer-observation promotes increased empathy among faculties, which contributes to increased collective-efficacy. They seem less willing to dismiss poor student achievement and behaviour as a result of a lack of effort on the part of the teachers—perhaps understanding more holistically the nature of student interactions in their schools. Peer observation is discussed in some more detail in the qualitative findings section. As survey samples were too small, this correlation needs further research.

The number of respondents for the collective-efficacy survey did not meet the threshold for reliability. As the survey was anonymous, there is no way to confirm who did or did not respond or for what reasons. One possible explanation is the nature of the schools surveyed. These were private schools in the Philippines, which means that parent and administration expectations on faculty are quite high. In addition, faculty likely feel that are already excellent teachers as they work in an exclusive school with high performing students. Faculty may have felt that, despite the guarantee of anonymity, their identity may somehow have become known due to the size of the faculties surveyed, and they feared job implications or that their perceived efficacy differed from that of their school leader. The data tended to suggest that factors outside the control of the teacher, such as student safety, drug and alcohol use, or a lack of school resources had little impact on teacher's sense of efficacy.

There were also some inconsistencies in answers between questions that were worded positively and negatively. This is possibly due to English not being the first language of all the respondents.

As the sample was too small, outlying responses had a larger impact on the overall totals. Also, as the size of the samples of quantitative data was too low, the scale does not work to conduct a T test in order to compare efficacy results

between the two independent groups: teachers and school leaders. It would have been interesting to compare the efficacy results of school leaders, who were engaged in instructional leadership behaviours, with the teachers and their experience and perception of those instructional leadership behaviours. There were clearly respondents who had either misread the questions or whose views were polarized to either end of the spectrum, but as the sample was too small, the impact of these outlying responses could not be minimized.

In the following section discussing the qualitative findings of the interviews, I will look at the relationship between school leaders' instructional leadership behaviour and collective-efficacy. I will discuss the behaviours described in the interview in relation to the four major sources that contribute to the development of efficacy: mastery experiences, emotional state, vicarious experience, and social persuasion (Bandura, 1977).

Qualitative Findings

The transcripts of the interview were analysed by reading through them and assigning codes to important and reoccurring comments or ideas. After several reviews, the codes were reduced into three broad themes: Protocols, Feedback, and Distributed Leadership. Those themes will be explored more thoroughly in the following section.

Theme 1—Protocols

Darling-Hammond (2014) noted that proper conditions must be in place in order to develop and appropriately use skills on the part of individual practitioners. Having protocols in place was needed to help teachers find the time to reflect, distinguish between school leaders acting as supervisors and evaluators, and build collaborative relationship with their colleagues.

All school leaders spoke about having some protocols in place surrounding supervisors being in classrooms for teacher observation and providing feedback based on those observations. Sometimes they were very formal, laying out clear expectation at the beginning of the school year with faculty and providing

handouts of expectations; other times school leaders would have less structure for choosing who and when to observe and how to provide feedback.

In their ability to answer the interview questions, there was a clear distinction between school leaders that had very specific protocols in place surrounding teacher supervision and evaluation, and those whose protocols were less structured. Examples of these protocols are the frequency of classroom observations, the means of delivering feedback, specific programs designed to help teachers' professional growth with school leaders and with peers, and peer classroom observations.

In some cases, school leaders' observations were formal and contributed to official evaluation, but in most cases they were informal and were intended to focus on teacher growth and supervision. School leaders noted that many of their faculties were used to an administrator in the classroom as being purely evaluative. Several school leaders noted the difficulty of getting teachers to buy into programs designed for teacher growth, and they were dealing with this issue in a few ways.

School leaders intentionally built time into the school day for teachers to meet with school leaders, and for teachers to meet and collaborate among themselves. According to school leaders, this scheduling helped both teachers and school leaders use their time efficiently. In all schools interviewed, these 'built-in' times occurred on one set morning each week where students would arrive late, giving teachers and school leaders time to meet. In other cases, this involved manipulating teacher timetables in order to arrange for common preparation blocks for teachers in the same department to conduct meetings.

> I really worked hard on building collaborative planning, and I cracked it about seven years ago….I finally cracked a way for the system to give me what I wanted, and it's been really really well received because now they have three times a week, plus the Wednesday morning, where they can meet…where they can moderate, where they can do some articulation some

> vertical articulations, sometimes where they can plan the next units, they can reflect on the last one and tweak it for next year. (Scott)

All school leaders spoke about intentionally scheduling time into their days to be present in classrooms. Caryn emphasized the importance of blocking time to engage in observations by relaying the instructions they had given to their secretary:

> It's untouchable. You have to push, push me out the door. Whatever is happening, if it's a parent, it's…unless I need to jump on a grenade it can wait. I can always send the email tomorrow, schedule an appointment with them when I am available, but please, don't take me away from being in lessons.

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) would describe this as instructional leadership behaviour that helps maintain the instructional program. The importance of being in classrooms to observe and provide feedback is an example of school leaders acting as teachers of teachers.

Many of the school leaders had specific programs they had developed in order to ensure that they were providing quality feedback to all teachers. This most often took the form of some level of classroom observation, followed by feedback that always included questions that invited teacher reflection.

> We've got these teacher self-reflection questions that we share with teachers so they can do it [with each other], too. Often I just start with a teacher, I will say on a lesson, "of 1 to 10, I'm just curious, how did you think that lesson went?" And they'll give you a number and then I'll say, "okay, so if you give it a six, why not a seven or eight? What would had to have happened differently for you to rate that higher?" And then we talk about that. (Caryn)

For school leaders who had organized peer observations or peer led professional learning communities, they spoke about making sure protocols are clear, and labeled, so that everyone is able to participate in the program:

> They will introduce protocols, like the small fires protocol, or the final word protocol that will make sure that every member of the group participate in the conversations and share their thoughts so we don't get those reluctant participants that say nothing…and so far the chairs have reported, you know, good things—a high level of participation and a high level of fun and enjoyment. (Mark)

School leaders were conscientious of the evaluative element of their observations and feedback, and how that might affect how teachers reacted to what they said. For this reason, some school leaders noted that they were very clear about a different set of protocols teachers could expect if there was a problem and they were under evaluative as opposed to the day to day supervision and professional growth protocols. Caryn spoke about the importance of being clear about the difference between conversations about teacher growth, and conversations about teacher evaluation:

> So we try and, you know, when people are coming in, to always give them feedback straight away. Is this an evaluation conversation, or is it simply an appreciative conversation, or is it a coaching conversation? To really delineate those three areas rights off the bat.

Faculty reporting to school leaders who did not have these distinctions of protocols in place did not have responses lower on their efficacy surveys as seen in Tables 2 and 3. However, given the sample size of teachers who responded in these schools (only 11%), the survey results are not reliable enough to note any

significant connection between the vagueness of the protocols and collective-efficacy. In their book, Leithwood and Beatty (2008) note that "organizational opportunities that encourage teachers to think about their work in new ways and commit themselves to new standards and goals" (p. 77) are crucial in motivating teachers to improve their own practices.

School leaders also acknowledged that, to some extent, their presence in meetings or classrooms always carried with it some sense of evaluation: "Now whenever an administrator walks into a classroom, there's a certain aspect of evaluation going on, that's unavoidable. And I'll say that to faculty as well" (Scott). "By being in classrooms often and frequently, and having small conversations, I think it lowers the temperature of that evaluation" (Caryn). Though they were clear on their own practices in terms of observing lessons, one school leader did speak about some inconsistencies that existed within the protocols at their school that needed to be addressed:

> I'm not sure that…[the] four administrators do it in exactly the same way, and I'm not sure that there is a clear understanding of the expectations around visits. So I think that's something that we could definitely clear up, that is something we could improve. (Mark)

Some school leaders spoke about the protocols to have faculty in each other's classrooms often, and that they were to be giving feedback to each other. The most notable distinction amongst protocols was between schools that practiced protocols for peer observations, and those who did not practice it at all. Those who incorporated peer observations were much more organized in their overall protocols around faculty supervision and evaluation. School leaders from schools A and B, who had the protocols in place for peer observation, spoke very highly of the experience and reported that teachers valued the opportunity. This type of program required a high level of trust amongst faculty. The combined median efficacy results (as seen in Table 4) from schools with peer observation

protocols in place were higher than those without. A possible explanation for this is because these teachers have a better sense of the classroom strategies and management of their colleagues. It would be interesting to conduct a wider study where the self-efficacy results of faculties who practice peer observation are compared with those who do not. They also reported that teachers enjoyed participating the peer observations:

> We have peer observations where people are expected to be in and out of each other's classrooms. We say it's three a year, but I know people do a lot more than that, too. Very much an open door policy. (Caryn)

These peer observations were an opportunity for teachers to support each other using personal areas of strength:

> I think that through these groups we have people who have put themselves forward as being in need of some kind of development in this area. A lot of people who have said, "I think this is one of my strengths" and vice versa. And so we have got people who are going in, looking for specific things from teachers who are particularly good at a particular teaching strategy. (Scott)

These types of protocols, where teachers are working together and observing each other, create a culture of continuous learning in the school—as not only are the students getting constant feedback, but teachers as well. School leaders where being intentional about promoting the school's climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This type of culture contributes to the emotional state aspect of collective-efficacy development as teachers were enjoying the practice of peer observations. The peer collaboration through the professional learning communities also allowed for excellent opportunities in the area of vicarious experience.

Mastery experience as source of information for efficacy is highly personal, and therefore hard for school leaders to influence. In all interviews, there was a focus on observation, either by peers or school leaders, during actual teaching time. During this time is when teachers are acquiring their information about their own mastery experiences. The protocols set in place by school leaders can help create an environment among peers and school leaders where teachers are able to reflect upon their mastery experiences collaboratively. Through these types of collaborative meetings, teachers become conscientious of their performance, and are able to reflect on their ability to affect student learning. It is also helpful for teachers to have common ground with someone else who was present during a lesson to gain different perspectives, or observations that they may have missed while conducting the lesson.

Theme 2—Feedback

Another main theme that permeated the interviews with all school leaders was the giving and receiving of feedback. It was highlighted that not all feedback will inspire professional reflection. Caitlin mentioned, "some of them, they'll take [feedback] with a grain of salt and continue within their own methods."

Faculty engagement with feedback was largely reported to have to do with the relevance of the feedback. In order to ensure that teachers were getting relevant feedback, most school leaders would meet with faculty early in the school year to ensure they had a clear professional goal based off departmental/ school focuses. Scott spoke about his program:

> We have a system in place where the start of each academic year all teachers will form a professional goal, usually around a theme. So for example a couple years ago the main theme was approaches to teaching and learning.

Another school leader established the goal setting by considering the faculty self-reflections:

> They then also get a link to a new form that is their goal setting form, and they can't get the goal setting link until they [finish] the self-evaluation. And it describes that they need to take a look at their self-evaluation and choose two variants, two aspects perhaps where they scored themselves a bit lower, and then develop two goals with action plan on how they are going to improve in that area. (Jesse)

In this way, school leaders could be going into classroom and providing feedback specific to a teacher's interest, instead of providing generalized feedback.

> I think those targets and observations are helpful because they give the observer cart blanche to actually address some of those issues head on, whereas if [the feedback] could have come from left field and the teacher wasn't ready for it, I guess then you could have to sugar coat the observations a little bit. (Mark)

This focused feedback was also reported to put teachers in a better mind frame to receive the feedback and act upon it. "When the person being observed is really in the mood to hear those observations and really wants to know specific observations, then I guess making yourself open to feedback is a huge benefit" (Mark).

The work school leaders were doing in helping teachers choose a focus or a goal for their year, especially when done among peers in professional learning communities, helps to build a shared vision for growth among faculty. It makes the goals and direction of growth a part of everyone's mission, not just that of the school leader. This is an example of instructional leadership behaviour that helps define the school's mission (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The most prevalent relationship between the instructional leadership practices and a source for efficacy from the interviews is social persuasion. The main source of this

connection is the feedback that was described. Whether it is positive or constructive feedback, teachers were made to feel encouraged to take on challenges they face in their daily work in classrooms. This can be seen in the intentional positive feedback school leaders would give in order to encourage teachers and bring them into a growth mindset.

Ensuring feedback is relevant to teachers, and that they are prepared to accept that feedback is an example of behaviour that contributes to both emotional state and social persuasion, leading to an increase in teacher efficacy. Whether it is positive or constructive feedback, teachers were made to feel encouraged to take on challenges they face in their daily work in classrooms.

Caryn made mention of a handout they made use of in questioning teachers following an observation. Figure 9 is the handout that was sent to me following our interview. It shows ten different types of questions school leaders can use to help stimulate critical thinking and professional reflection in teachers.

Figure 13. Ten Questions for Better Feedback for Teachers. Source: The Principal Center (2018, p. 4).

TEN QUESTIONS
FOR BETTER FEEDBACK WITHOUT SUGGESTIONS

Try these structures next time you share feedback with a teacher:

1. ***Context:*** *I noticed that you [ ]...could you talk to me about how that fits within this lesson or unit?*
2. ***Perception:*** *Here's what I saw students [ ]...what were you thinking was happening at that time?*
3. ***Interpretation:*** *At one point in the lesson, it seemed like [ ] ...What was your take?*
4. ***Decision:*** *Tell me about when you [ ] ...what went into that choice?*
5. ***Comparison****: I noticed that students [ ] ...how did that compare with what you had expected to happen when you planned the lesson?*
6. ***Antecedent:*** *I noticed that [ ] ...could you tell me about what led up to that, perhaps in an earlier lesson?*
7. ***Adjustment:*** *I saw that [ ] ...what did you think of that, and what do you plan to do tomorrow?*
8. ***Intuition:*** *I noticed that [ ] ...how did you feel about how that went?*
9. ***Alignment:*** *I noticed that [ ] ...what links do you see to our instructional framework?*
10. ***Impact:*** *What effect did you think it had when you [ ] ?*

Notice a theme here: good feedback begins with noticing specific aspects of the lesson, and sharing those observations with the teacher as the starting point for the discussion.

When we share evidence-based feedback, then stop talking and listen, we can have a far greater impact on teaching practice than if we're too quick to make suggestions.

School leaders also spoke about their own ability and training in providing feedback, as well as training teachers in how to give and receive feedback. Caitlin spoke about her own professional development goals:

> Just know how to approach teachers, how to have those difficult conversations, right? And without just stepping in, right? So that has been something that has consistently, I've been working on. Just having, how to approach someone in a kind manner, but also just making sure that it is something that I'm looking at the person as a whole, so building those relationships.

Teachers were also interested in learning about giving and receiving feedback:

> Teachers were asking more guidance on how to [give] feedback to teachers when they do a peer observation in a way that doesn't sound critical and condescending, and how do teachers receive feedback in the way that it's meant to be given. It's not meant to be critical even though a question, if it is framed wrongly, can be received critically. So next phase of our training will be on giving and receiving feedback that then leads into this peer observations and administration observations to faculty. (Scott)

School leaders all spoke about the importance of specifically providing positive feedback to their teachers:

> In those personal interactions I am able to really let that teacher know that I'm paying attention and that he is doing a good job and I can tell him that…. Human nature is, with positive feedback, you are helping inspire educators …that's practicing instructional leadership" (Jesse).

> If there is something you see, something that is being done well you have to let them know…So a positive feedback is critical….I'm looking for things they're doing well, because I know as a former teacher I wanted someone to acknowledge and to give me some praise, tell me what I'm doing right. I really look for those right moments. (Caitlin)

> I give them feedback that day in writing about what I've seen. I call it a 2 + 2…two positive pieces of feedback…the other two parts can be a questions that I have or just another opinion, it could be a third piece of positive feedback, it could be a constructive piece of feedback. (Tyler)

This intentional providing of positive feedback is a leadership behaviour that contributes to the emotional state of teachers. Teachers need to hear positive things, and know that supervisors are not just looking for problems, or as Charlotte Danielson (2012) would call it *low hanging fruit*—that which is obvious and easy to fix. This helps teachers feel like their school leaders are on their side, and will be more receptive to feedback given by that school leader. If they feel noticed for the positive things they are doing, they will approach those and similar situations in the future with increased confidence knowing they have succeeded before, and that their supervisor supports them.

The means of giving feedback varied among school leaders, some choosing to send emails, others speaking informally outside classrooms or in faculty lounges. It is important that teachers are able to reflect on their actions and decisions as a result of this feedback, not simply told what they did and how it can be fixed. As teachers must feel they have personally confronted and succeeded at tasks which they find challenging—there can be no direct school leader of peer influence on their success—they must feel solutions and ideas come from them. This is why having teachers reflect on their experience through questioning, instead of just providing constructive criticism, is crucial to behaviours that contribute to collective-efficacy. Given the high level of performance expected at

private schools, some teachers could feel that their teaching abilities are more inherent rather than acquired, stalling their development of self-efficacy—this may have been a contributing factor in the low teacher participation in this research.

Mark, who was part of a larger administrator team at his school, noted that feedback is not always given from all classroom visits: "I personally think it is okay for [no comment to be given] if it's just a pop in to see what is going on in the class. A teacher shouldn't expect feedback all the time."

Theme 3—Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership, in this case, refers to principals relinquishing direct supervision over faculty who report to them. Instead, they allow for teachers to lead groups and be accountable to themselves instead of administration. Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2004) have published research supporting this approach to leadership. Teachers are left to their own sense of professionalism as motivation to improve their practice (Brandt, 1992).

Peer observations, or peer-led groups was a common practice discussed throughout the interviews—there was frequent reference to distributed leadership, where school leaders were setting up groups, helping establish direction, but then stepping back and allowing peers to work together.

> The chairs of each one of those focus groups is not a head of department, and not an administrator. So it's very peer-to-peer and so it does build up leadership potential in some teachers….I think it's made teachers excited about teaching and I think it helped create a culture of learning within the school and openness to learning, which I'm sure has had benefits across the board. (Scott)

As stated earlier in relation to peer-observation, the survey results tend to suggest that teachers who observe and are observed by peers rate higher in average collective-efficacy scores. This may be due to an increased trust in their colleagues. Trust in colleagues was found to foster higher levels of collegiality and

more opportunities for vicarious learning resulting in higher collective-efficacy (Goddard et al., 2000). The peer collaboration through the professional learning communities allowed for excellent opportunities in the area of vicarious experience, as teachers were both seeing and demonstrating competencies in various areas of teaching.

There was a general sense that peer feedback, through either peer observations or professional learning communities, was more influential to teacher growth than school leader feedback. One school leader even mentioned faculty-wide training in the giving and receiving of feedback to ensure everyone was trying to achieve the same goal through feedback—growth.

On their roles in these settings, all school leaders spoke about stepping away to allow for teachers to lead themselves.

> I try not to be a participant. I'm not a participant who sits in one meeting for the entire meeting. I want the folks to want those meetings and my presence sometimes can set the meeting in a different direction…when I take up that air time it's taking away air time for somebody else and I don't need to do that. (Tyler)

> We made it such that it was teachers that will facilitate in those meetings, not even program leaders. So my role in that was primarily to set it in motion and to make sure that the right people are in the right groups. But then to kind of coach the facilitators ahead of their meetings…make sure that they were comfortable with the process. (Mark)

In addition to allowing their teachers to work and reflect with peers, school leaders also noted their preference for interacting and reflecting with their peers.

> I remember in [a different school], a good friend of mine, we were just constantly talking school. And it might start at the negative side, but it was a

joke, we would tear down the school but we would build it back up in our conversations. It was very reflective with "ok, this is a problem, how do we fix it? What's the plan?" (Jesse)

I actually think the best kind of PD is when you visit other colleagues in other schools…I was just chatting with [another] principal, we spent three hours chatting just about our different jobs…So talking to like-minded people that have a job-a-like situation. (Mark)

Summary

The major themes that emerged from interviews with school leaders were 1) having protocols in place to support professional reflective practices among teachers. Some ways school leaders were doing this was through allocating specific time for teachers to meet and collaborate, outlining expectations around classroom observations, and organizing professional learning communities to include all faculty in collaborative practice. This related to improving efficacy through the opportunity for teachers to reflect on mastery experience, and demonstrated instruction leadership behaviours of maintaining the instructional program and intentionally promoting the school's climate. 2) Providing specific, relevant, and timely feedback to faculty. Some ways school leaders were doing this was through having intentional goal setting meetings with teachers, sometimes accompanied with a self-reflection, and also ensuring that teachers were getting positive feedback along with constructive feedback. This related to improving efficacy through social persuasion and is an example of the instructional leadership behaviour of defining the school's mission. 3) Allowing for distributed leaders of professional learning communities in order to balance teacher evaluation and supervision. Some ways school leaders were doing this was by limiting their presence in Professional Learning Community meetings, and by appointing designated teach-leaders with group to ensure participation and report. This

related to improving efficacy through vicarious experience and was an example the instructional leadership behaviour of fostering leadership.

The collective-efficacy surveys yielded limited data, but did suggest a relationship between peer-observation and high collective efficacy. The survey results also suggested that faculties in the Philippines International school context tended to rate higher in collective efficacy than school leaders, and that faculties that practice peer observation are less critical of colleagues and have high collective efficacy than faculties that do not practice peer observation. Overall, school collective efficacy scores in this study were high, which is likely due to the high student achievement these school expect.

Whether the high efficacy scores are a result of excellent teaching or not, it is still important for school leaders in this context (or in any context) to be practicing behaviours that would increase collective efficacy in their faculties. When teachers have experiences that promote an increase in efficacy, they are more likely to repeat behaviours, or try other behaviours that would generate those types of experiences again (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008). And students in classroom where teachers have a higher sense of efficacy also show higher achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Çalik et al., 2012; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). So regardless of the source of efficacy for teachers, those who practice behaviours that would increase their sense of efficacy will have students who achieve higher because of it. Through professional reflection, teachers process experiences that contribute to their sense of both personal and collective efficacy. It is therefore important for school leaders to be promoting opportunities for those behaviours in their schools.

Chapter Five: Limitations and Future Considerations

In order to better understand the relationship between instructional leadership practices and teacher efficacy, a more controlled program should have been used in the research. Initially, this research intended to have schools implement the RPR protocols described in the introduction for a six-week period, interviewing school leaders at certain stages of the process, and surveying teachers for collective-efficacy before and after to measure differences. However, while there were a sufficient number of school leaders who agreed to participate in the study, we were not able to find enough teachers willing to participate and therefore had to base the research on practices currently in place.

This lack of teacher participation in the initial research proposal carried into the revised research as a low response rate from teachers surveyed. Possible reasons for the lack of teacher participation include the nature of the schools themselves—private International school that have high tuition costs (especially compared to other educational institutions in the country)—expectations on teacher from both administration and parents are quite high. Teachers may have felt that information they provided about the school of their colleagues' performance may be discovered and there could be employment implications. Likewise, in regard to the initial research proposal sent to them, most of the schools already practiced teacher evaluation (though not always annually), which they would have already underwent. Participating in the research may have felt to them like another opportunity for their supervisors to conduct an evaluation, again, which could carry employment implications. These teachers do not have a union which could protect them should they be accused of saying or doing something unprofessional, or to protect their salaries should an additional evaluation impact their pay.

There was also a considerable time and effort commitment in participating in the RPR program. Teachers may have felt that they did not have time in their schedules for the meetings, observations, and writing required to participate in the study. If school leaders had been approached before the beginning of the academic

school year, and had agreed to implement the program with their faculty regardless of their individual participation in the research, there likely would have been a much higher participation from teachers. There needed to be a larger and better-balanced sample.

In addition, faculty working in these types of school contexts likely feel that are already excellent teachers as they work in an exclusive school with high performing students and they felt that they would not benefit from the processes outlined in the RPR procedures. They may, too, have feared that their perceived efficacy differed from that of their school leader or other colleagues.

It is not uncommon, when working in these exclusive private schools, to receive many requests from local high school and university students looking to conduct research for their program requirements. Quite often, these research studies have very poor methodology and have not undergone approval from an ethics board. As both a teacher and a principal working in this context, I received many of these types of requests. When I followed up with researchers or supervisors, it became clear that supervisors often had far too many students conducting research studies to properly advise and maintain academic rigour in these studies. It is possible that the request to participate in this study was dismissed as another one such study, even though it was clear in the participant consent form that it was being conducted through a Canadian university and had undergone ethics board approval.

It raises a question about teachers in the context of high performing private schools. As stated earlier, teachers in schools such as those in this study likely have a high degree of confidence in their teaching as they are employed in an exclusive private school and work with students who perform at a high level. It is likely that teachers attribute much of this student success to their own teaching effectiveness. It is known, for instance, that teachers in low-performing schools may experience some lack of efficacy as they sometimes struggle to show evidence of student learning and achievement that is at a high level. It raises some questions: Is it then also possible that teachers in high performing schools over-personalize the

achievement and attribute achievement to their wonderful teaching? Could this same principle be extended to the self-perception of school leaders in these contexts? Did teachers feel an unacceptable level of vulnerability if they participated in the study? That their teaching ability might reflect differently than their perceived efficacy? Or that there may be too great a difference of perceived efficacy between their own and that of their supervisor?

It may also call into question the role that both self and collective-efficacy even plays in high performing schools. The role of examining teacher and leader practices may benefit from some sort of holistic consideration that includes student learning and achievement but also includes other aspects of engaged schools, such as instructional innovation that requires some risk-taking, etc.

It would also be useful to extend this type of study beyond Philippine schools to see if there is a cultural factor in the Philippines (a country known to have a very high power distance) dissuading teachers from participating in this type of research, as well as how efficacy may differ across cultures. The same principle could be extended to including public schools in addition to private in order to study schools with more diverse achievement levels as it would be interesting to see if there is a difference in collective-efficacy and what sort of factors may contribute to the difference.

As the interviews were being reviewed and coded, I felt the study would have been greatly improved by adopting a couple different theoretical lenses surrounding the multicultural nature of these international schools, which could have been explored through the interviews with school leaders, and possibly through a short answer question to teachers. Firstly, an interesting lens would have been that of equity pedagogy. This refers to the practice of teachers changing their methods so that students from diverse cultures, genders, socio-economic classes, etc. can all learn and achieve (Banks, & Michelle, 1998). This goes beyond including content that reflects cultural diversity. It means that teachers must diversify their strategies and techniques to accommodate the wide range of learners present in their classrooms. This can be through strategic groupings,

mother-tongue language instruction, guided reading, etc. It is the acknowledgement that "every child learns differently in school, but our disposition as educators includes ways to help students minimize communication gaps without taking time away from academic demands" (Murakami-Ramalho, 2008, p. 77). It's about the presentation and interaction with content, not the content itself. This would have been a particularly relevant lens to the school context of the International schools were the research was conducted.

Secondly, the lens of empowering school culture and social structure would have been an interesting addition to the study. This goes beyond a single classroom, looking to the school as a whole in its practice of multicultural education (Banks & Michelle, 1998). This includes what kinds of conversations administrators and teachers are having about diversity, how achievement and participation is distributed across all students, what social cliques have developed on campus, in what ways they contribute and belong, and "the promotion of the values [that] takes place in a more subtle fashion, through the ethos generated by the intermingling of students and staff drawn from many nations" (McKenzie, 1998, p. 248). Differences cannot be ignored, but must be acknowledged, celebrated, and given an equitable opportunity to achieve. In addition to this, and specific to the Philippines, teacher cultural disposition should be considered. Specifically in relation to power distance, power underlies collaborative cultures resulting in many forms and functions of PLCs as well as levels of engagement (Lee & Lee, 2018). High power distance is likely a factor in the low participation from teachers and is worth looking at more closely in a future study.

A study on the impact of peer observations practices and their effect on collective-efficacy would also be interesting. The trend of teacher efficacy results in the quantitative data suggests a relationship between the two could exist. To support this further, the enthusiastic manner in which school leaders were speaking about the peer-observation protocols and how their teachers were behaving would suggest that there might be interesting information that could be gathered through a systematic study in this area. This element could easily be

added to the RPR protocols to allow for peer observation to be studies alongside collective-efficacy.

Chapter Six: Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine how programs encouraging professional reflection and teacher growth have evolved and are practiced in private schools in the Philippines, how school leaders are using this in their supervision/evaluation of faculty, and how teacher collective-efficacy is impacted by the practice of these programs. This was done through a mixed methods approach using interviews with school leaders, and surveys to school faculties.

Three major themes emerged from the interviews in how school leaders are encouraging professional reflection in their supervision and evaluation of teachers. The first theme is protocols. School leaders are ensuring that protocols are in place to create the condition for teachers to be able to meet and discuss their shared practice. Strategies such as time allocation, observation procedures, and meeting protocols were used to ensure teachers where aware of expectations and had appropriate time to meet them. Schools which had peer observation protocols in place, tended to be less critical of their colleagues in the survey data; however as the results of the survey data was limited, further study of this relationship is needed.

The second theme that emerged from the interviews was feedback. School leaders were giving intentional feedback to teachers based on classroom observations and conversations. Feedback was often presented as open-ended questions in order to have teachers think critically about their teaching. School leaders were conscious to provide relevant feedback to their faculties by narrowing in on pre-established professional goals set by teachers. It was acknowledged that positive feedback is an important factor in instructional leadership and contributes to positive teacher efficacy.

The final theme that emerged from the interviews was distributed leadership. School leaders felt it was important for them to allow teachers to meet and reflect without fear of evaluation attached to those actions. Accountability for group meetings was largely placed on group members instead of school administration. This was acknowledged as crucial in maintaining a balance of the

two roles school leaders embody of teacher evaluation and teacher supervision.

In comparing the behaviours of school leaders in promoting professional reflection in their schools to the sources of efficacy, there were clear links between certain practices school leaders were doing and the development of efficacy. The survey results from teachers reporting to the school leaders was this study's main limitation, with only 11% of all teachers responding to the survey. It is therefore impossible to draw any conclusions from this data, though some trends did emerge suggesting possible relationships. Firstly, teachers tended to rate their collective-efficacy higher than their school leaders'. Secondly, teachers who practiced peer observation tended to be less critical of their colleagues, resulting in high collective-efficacy.

The study raised questions about the perception of collective efficacy from teachers in high performing schools. As students in these schools tend to have high achievement scores, and go on to top universities and colleges, it is likely that teachers feel their teaching ability is already very high. More research is needed to understand the role of efficacy in this type of school context, and how it compares to the role of efficacy in lower performing school contexts.

The relationship between peer observation and collective-efficacy is very interesting and merits further study. If peer observation could be worked into the RPR protocols, it would be the next step in this research to look for a relationship between the two. I would hypothesize that there would be a positive relationship as peer observation fulfills both social persuasion and vicarious experience sources of self-efficacy development.

This study has managed to reproduce some of the conclusion of pre-existing research in the areas of sound instructional leadership behaviours and their influence on collective-efficacy. It has also generated many new and unanswered questions in the areas of how teacher collective-efficacy compares to school leader collective-efficacy, and factors contributing to a low teacher participant turn out.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Interview Protocols

Project: Professional Reflection: Its Implementation in Instructional Leadership and Affect on Collective Efficacy in International Schools in the Philippines

Time of Interview:
Date:
Place:
Interviewer:
Interviewee:

[This research is seeking to ask what your views are on the Reflective Practice in your formal and informal interactions with teachers. The data collected in this interview will be securely kept in an encrypted computer file, and your name and will be assigned a pseudonym to ensure anonymity. This interview should take about one hour.]
[Begin recording]
Questions

1. What experiences did you have as a classroom teacher with reflective practice?

2. Do you have any examples of principals inspiring reflective practice when you where a classroom teacher? Did this influence your practice or conversations with teachers in your school? How?

3. Of the workshops or PD you have attended, what has been the most meaningful to you? How has this changed or influenced interactions in your school?

4. In what ways do you currently help your teachers as an instructional leader? Do you feel responsible for encouraging your teachers to grow instructionally? What do you think makes a difference in your teachers' classroom practice?

5. What kind of professional learning communities exist in your school and what is your role in them?

6. How do these affect the learning and environment in classes?

7. How do you currently conduct faculty evaluations? Are you interested in how reflective practice is working in your school? How are your teachers using reflective practice?

Appendix B: Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Project Title: Professional Reflection: Its Implementation in Instructional Leadership and Affect on Collective Efficacy in International Schools in the Philippines.

Researcher: Benjamin Josephson

Thompson Rivers University

This form is provided to aid you in deciding whether you wish to participate in this study. You are free to decide not to participate or to withdraw at any time without affecting your relationship with this researcher or Thompson Rivers University. This study is being overseen by my thesis supervisor, Dr. Victoria Handford, who can be reached at 250-8526353 vhandford@tru.ca. You may also contact the Ethics Committee at TRU-REB@tru.ca or the Dean of the Faculty of Education and Social Work, Dr. Airini at airini@tru.ca.

The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding how Professional Reflection is used by principals and teachers, and its effect on the collective-efficacy of a school.

The data will be collected in the form of a one interview with the principal, lasting approximately one hour, and one 22 question survey to be filled out anonymously by teachers reporting to the principal, which should take approximately 15 minutes.

Before participation, or at any point during the study, please do not hesitate to ask any questions about the study that you might have. I will share the findings with you after the research is completed in the form of an executive summary. Neither your name or school will be associated with the research findings in any way, and only the researcher will know your identity—no quoted information will be linked with any individual participants. All research data will be kept electronically on an encrypted thumb-drive in a locked condition at Thompson Rivers University for a period of five years, after which all information will be destroyed.

There are low risks associated with this study.

You are signing this consent form with full knowledge of the nature and purpose of the procedures. A copy of this signed form will be provided for your files.

_____ _____

Signature Date

Benjamin Josephson, Thompson Rivers University (0998-565-6875) josephsonb17@mytru.ca

Appendix C: Collective Efficacy Survey

*Collective Efficacy Scale**

Project Title: Professional Reflection: Its Implementation in Instructional Leadership and Affect on Collective Efficacy in International Schools in the Philippines.

This section is provided to aid you in deciding whether you wish to participate in this study. You are free to decide not to participate or to withdraw at any time without affecting your relationship with this researcher or Thompson Rivers University. This study is being overseen by my thesis supervisor, Dr. Victoria Handford, who can be reached at 250-8526353 vhandford@tru.ca. You may also contact the Ethics Committee at TRU-REB@tru.ca or the Dean of the Faculty of Education and Social Work, Dr. Airini at airini@tru.ca.

The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding how Professional Reflection is used and its effect on collective-efficacy.

The data will be collected in the form of a one short answer question and a 21 question survey. The time invested in this study approximately 15 minutes

Before participation, or at any point during the study, please do not hesitate to ask any questions about the study that you might have. I will share the findings with you after the research is completed in the form of an executive summary. Neither your name or school will be associated with the research findings in any way, and only the researcher will know your identity—no quoted information will be linked with any individual participants. All research data will be kept electronically on an encrypted thumb-drive in a locked condition at Thompson Rivers University for a period of five years, after which all information will be destroyed.

There are low risks associated with this study.

In submitted this completed survey you are consenting to participate in this research. You are submitting it with full knowledge of the nature and purpose of the procedures.

How do you currently use professional reflection in your practice as a teacher?

Directions: Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements about your school on a scale from **"1" Disagree** to **"4" Agree.**	Rating of 1-4
1. If a child doesn't learn something the first time teachers will try another way.	
2. Teachers in this school are skilled in various methods of teaching.	
3. Teachers here are well prepared to teach the subjects they are assigned to teach.	
4. Teachers in this school really believe every child can learn.	
5. If a child doesn't want to learn teachers here give up.	
6. Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teaching	

methods.	
7. Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.	
8. Teachers in this school have what it takes to get the children to learn.	
9. Teachers in this school are able to gut through to difficult students.	
10. Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.	
11. The lack of instructional materials and supplies makes teaching very difficult.	
12. Teachers in this school do not have the skills to deal with student disciplinary problems.	
13. Teachers in this school think there are some students that no one can reach.	
14. The quality of school facilities here really facilitates the teaching and learning process.	
15. Home life provides so many advantages they are bound to learn.	
16. These students come to school ready to learn.	
17. Drug and alcohol abuse in the community make learning difficult for students here.	
18. The opportunities in this community help ensure that these students will learn.	
19. Students here just aren't motivated to learn.	
20. Learning is more difficult at this school because students are worried about their safety.	
21. Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with these students.	

* Goddard, R.D., Hoy, W.K., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2000). Collective Teacher Efficacy: Its meaning, measure, and impact on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal,* 37(2), 479-507.

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Appendix D: Transcriber Confidentiality Agreement

Project: Professional Reflection: Its Implementation in Instructional Leadership and Affect on Collective Efficacy in International Schools in the Philippines.

1. I, _____ transcriptionist, agree to maintain full confidentiality of all research data received related to this research study.

2. I will hold in confidence the identity of any individual that may be revealed during the transcription of interviews.

3. I will not make copies of any audio-recordings, video-recordings, or other research data, unless specifically requested to do so by the researcher.

4. I will not provide the research data to any third parties.

5. I will store all study-related data in a safe, secure location as long as they are in my possession. All video and audio recordings will be stored in an encrypted format.

6. All data provided or created for purposes of this agreement, including any back-up records, will be permanently deleted. When I have received confirmation that the transcription work I performed has been satisfactorily completed, any of the research data that remains with me will be returned to the research team or destroyed.

Transcriber's name (printed) _____

Transcriber's signature _____

Date _____