

Socially and Emotionally Competent Leadership: Practices That Shape the Sources of Collective Efficacy

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BOSTON COLLEGE

Lynch School of Education and Human Development

Department of Educational Administration and Higher Education

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SOCIALLY AND EMOTIONALLY COMPETENT LEADERSHIP: PRACTICES THAT
SHAPE THE SOURCES OF COLLECTIVE EFFICACY

Dissertation in Practice by

GEOFFREY ROSE

with Michele Conners, Mark Ito, Adam Renda, and Donna Tobin

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements

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Socially and Emotionally Competent Leadership:
Practices that Shape the Sources of Collective Efficacy

by
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ABSTRACT

Research has shown that collective efficacy, school-based leadership, and social and emotional (SEL) competencies positively contribute to student success. In the context of education, collective efficacy refers to whether teachers believe in the ability and capacity of their colleagues to support the achievement of all students. Limited research has examined the bridge between leadership practices and the primary sources of collective efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal/social persuasion, and affective states. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to identify leadership practices and determine how they shaped the sources of collective efficacy. Findings indicated that leadership practices – meeting time, professional development, positive praise, coaching, feedback, and sharing expertise – modeled the SEL competencies of social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. Implications of these findings further establish the sources of collective efficacy as influential factors that shape adult interactions, actions, reflections, and ultimately, student achievement.

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CHAPTER ONE¹

Introduction and Statement of the Problem

Opportunity and achievement gaps continue to challenge the educational system in the United States, as it struggles to balance a student's academic, social, and emotional skills. District and school-based leaders face the difficulties of monitoring expectations related to increased academic rigor while developing emotionally stable and healthy students. To address student and systemic educational challenges, social and emotional learning (SEL), as a conceptual framework, has gained traction in the field of education. Dusenbury et al. (2015) define SEL as:

the process through which children and adults acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to understand and manage emotions, set and achieve positive goals, feel and show empathy for others, establish and maintain positive relationships, and make responsible decisions. Social and emotional skills are critical to being a good student and citizen. (p. 2)

The ever-expanding body of research available supports the benefits of students having strong SEL competencies (Durlak et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2017; Zins et al., 2007). Research shows that SEL has positive effects on a student's physical health, academic achievement, and lifelong success (Jones & Kahn, 2017; Taylor et al., 2017; Zins et al., 2007). The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) highlights five competencies, including self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making (CASEL, 2017) necessary for students to develop college and career readiness. Numerous studies suggest that high-quality SEL programs in schools do matter, and that students with SEL competencies are better able to manage their emotions and problem-solving skills as well as engage in more positive behaviors with fewer conduct and internalizing problems (Durlak et al., 2011; Jones., D. et al., 2017; Hagood, 2015; Zins et al., 2007). Due to the

¹ This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach to this project: Michele Conners, Mark Ito, Adam Renda, Geoff Rose, and Donna Tobin.

development of SEL competencies that promote health and wellbeing, student learning improves.

Knowing the benefits for students, district and school-based leaders work to put SEL initiatives into place. Adelman and Taylor (2000) argue that if schools and leaders focus only on instruction to help students obtain academic success, they will not effectively educate the whole child. Many states, like Massachusetts, encourage the inclusion of SEL competencies as part of their core curriculum expectations. Additionally, the federal law, *Every Student Succeeds Act* (ESSA), requires educational leaders to provide the necessary support in developing a student's SEL competencies that prepare them for success in college and career. These mandates call for schools to implement SEL; however, federal and state mandates focus primarily on developing student skills only and not the adults who influence them daily, including their social and emotional development.

Limited in the research is a focus on SEL competencies for adult staff. Long (2019) reminds us that, "unless they [districts] also address the SEL needs of teachers, especially those experiencing stress, poor working conditions, and classes with many historically underserved students—long-term, systemwide gains for students are less likely" (p. 1). Further complicating the matter, research shows that teacher stress, burnout, and low job satisfaction are formidable challenges in our nation (Beltman et al., 2011; Bobek, 2002; Greenberg, et al., 2016). Educators feel increasing pressure to strengthen relationships with all students, especially those that are marginalized, disenfranchised or disengaged. It is unclear, however, the degree of training and support available to educators, as well as how much care is being given to their own social and emotional health in the process.

Few studies have investigated the extent to which leaders in schools promote SEL through their own actions and behaviors (Bridgeland et al., 2013; Buchanan et al., 2009; DePaoli

et al., 2017). While some staff, including teachers and mental health staff, recognize that children benefit from developing their SEL competencies and skills, educators are generally not intentionally shown or explicitly told by leaders how to develop these competencies in their own practices. Due to this lack of knowledge, staff feel the overall stress, as they are expected to foster an environment in which they possess and model SEL competencies themselves. However, leaders play an important role in influencing the behaviors of their staff (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Minckler, 2014; Spillane & Lee, 2014). We explore this further in our literature review.

The impact of SEL is widespread; thus, we argue that it is critical and essential that district and school leaders model the SEL competencies that shape varied aspects of their schools and/or promote opportunities that develop the SEL competencies of all members of their community. The following overarching research questions guided our work: 1) What leadership practices model SEL competencies, or promote SEL opportunities for staff? and 2) How do these leadership practices shape a district and its schools? For the purpose of our study, we identified practices that modeled (i.e. displayed and demonstrated) SEL competencies. Additionally, we also identified practices that promoted (i.e. actively encouraged) opportunities for staff to develop their SEL skills. Table 1.1 summarizes our focus areas of study by researchers.

Table 1.1

Researcher and their individual focus area of study.

Researcher	Conceptual Frameworks	Focus of study
Conners	Sensemaking (Weick, 2009)	District-wide leadership practices that supported sensemaking on SEL for school-based leaders, and how its focus shaped school-based leadership practices.
Ito	Distributed Leadership (Spillane et al. 2004)	School-based leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies, as they shaped adult collaboration.

Renda	CASEL (Casel, 2017)	School-based leadership practices that promoted SEL opportunities, as they shaped mental health staff.
Rose	Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977)	School-based leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies, as they shaped collective efficacy.
Tobin	Prosocial Classroom (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009)	School-based leadership practices that promoted SEL opportunities, as they shaped staff resilience and well being.

Literature Review

The following literature informed our study by supporting our argument to integrate the SEL competencies into leadership practices. We present our review in two sections. In the first section, we focus on SEL competencies for students and adults that include the social and emotional intelligences, SEL competencies in schools, the identification of key SEL competencies and skills (CASEL, 2017), and SEL for district and school-based staff. In the second section, we explore the literature that further supports our research questions, focusing on leadership in districts and schools that include emotional intelligence, theories and practices such as transformational, distributed and social capital; and finally, social and emotional leadership. This final topic bridges the gap between what we know is good for students and adults, and discusses social and emotional competent leadership.

SEL Competencies for Students and Adults

This section describes a brief history of the social and emotional intelligences and how it set the foundation for developing CASEL's core competencies framework. We also discuss the benefits of SEL competencies for students. It is important to lay this groundwork, as our group and individual studies use the CASEL competencies and skills to analyze the identified leadership practices. The work of CASEL furthers our emphasis on the importance of SEL for

students' academic learning and personal health, and also provides insight into the limited research on the adults, including the leaders and staff who work with those students.

Social and Emotional Intelligences

The history of SEL dates back at least a century, as seen in the work of researchers on emotional intelligence and social intelligence. Thorndike introduced social intelligence in the 1920's and framed this concept as the ability to act wisely in human relations (Thorndike & Stein, 1937). Salovey and Mayer (1990) extended this research on social intelligences to focus more specifically on individual self-awareness and self-management skills related to one's emotions. They explicitly defined emotional intelligence (EI) as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). Goleman (1996) increased the prevalence of this concept by providing a research-based argument for the importance of EI, how it can be developed throughout life, and the need for our society to increase our focus on emotional literacy.

Additionally, Goleman (2006) stated that the initial intent of EI was to "focus on a crucial set of human capacities within us as individuals, our ability to manage our own emotions and our inner potential for positive relationships" (p. 5). From these theories of social and emotional intelligences, the four domains of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management emerged (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008). These four domains laid the groundwork for the five core competencies defined by CASEL. Traditionally, these competencies have been applied to the emotional health and wellbeing of all people.

SEL Competencies and Schools

CASEL, an organization developed in 1994 to specifically consider the needs of social and emotional development programming in districts and schools, created a framework for SEL

in educational settings. Each piece of the framework addresses the mental health needs of children and the fractured response to those needs in schools (Elias et al., 1997). Research affirms the positive influence this approach has on students and schools. It makes sense that when schools have structures and supports in place to meet the needs of the whole child, students perform better academically, relationships are stronger, and behavioral issues decrease. It follows then that the purpose of CASEL’s framework is to “establish high-quality, evidence-based SEL as an essential part of preschool through high school education” (Elbertson et al., 2010, p. 1017). Increasingly, schools became responsible for more than just a student’s academic performance.

More specifically, CASEL defined five core competencies within its framework that provided educators a common understanding about the knowledge and skills students and adults needed (Table 1.2). In addition to the four competencies originally established by Goleman (1996), CASEL added “responsible decision-making” as a fifth. With this additional competency, CASEL showed us that SEL is needed to “enhance students’ capacity to integrate skills, attitudes, and behaviors to deal effectively and ethically with daily tasks and challenges. Like many similar ones, CASEL’s integrated framework promoted intrapersonal, interpersonal, and cognitive competence.” (CASEL, 2017). Table 1.2 defines the core competencies in detail.

Table 1.2

A Definition of CASEL’s Core SEL Competencies

SEL competencies	Definition of competency
Self-awareness	Recognizing one’s emotions and identifying and cultivating one’s strengths and positive qualities
Self-management	Monitoring and regulating one’s emotions and establishing and working toward achieving positive goals

Social awareness	Understanding the thoughts and feelings of others and appreciating the value of human differences
Relationship skills	Establishing and maintaining healthy, rewarding relationships based on cooperation, effective communication, conflict resolution, and an ability to resist inappropriate social pressure
Responsible decision-making	Assessing situational influences and generating, implementing, and evaluating ethical solutions to problems that promote one's own and others' well-being

Source: CASEL, 2017

Research supports the need for districts and schools to focus on developing competencies as part of their students' overall academic, social, and emotional growth (Taylor, et al., 2017; Elias, 2009). Zins et al. (2007) stated, "[SEL competencies] are particularly important for children to develop because they are linked to a variety of behaviors with long-term implications" (p. 192). These behaviors include anxiety disorders such as depression, eating disorders, attention-deficit/hyperactivity, substance use disorders, truancy, dropping out of school, teen pregnancy, bullying, and violence (Elias et al., 1997). When these behaviors go unaddressed and their effects not considered, they compromise a student's academic learning. Zins et al. (2007) maintains that our educational system must support students holistically in order to address the SEL challenges that obstruct students' abilities and capacities to connect to and perform in schools. Research over the past decade claims that students *with* SEL competencies have increased academic achievement, enhanced problem-solving skills, and higher levels of engagement in more prosocial behaviors with fewer conduct and interpersonal problems (Durlak et al., 2011; Jones, et al., 2017; Hagood, 2015). In summary, research shows that students' academic learning strongly benefit from the development of SEL skills, as healthy, attentive children focus more on classroom content.

Dusenbury and Weissberg (2017) support these findings. A meta-analysis of follow-up studies of 82 SEL interventions found the benefits of SEL to be durable over time and across diverse samples. Specifically, SEL programs and interventions implemented at the elementary school level effectively promoted academic achievement, improved positive behaviors, and reduced conduct issues. As evidenced by follow-up interviews, students continued to show positive achievement, and that they used SEL competencies after graduating from high school. Learning SEL competencies benefited students not only in the classroom, but also in their ability to be college and career ready for the future.

An additional study of 753 children from low-socioeconomic neighborhoods showed that, “perceived early social competence at least serves as a marker for important long-term outcomes and at most is instrumental in influencing other development factors that collectively affect the life course” (Jones et al., 2015, p. 2289). These outcomes included a greater likelihood of graduating from college, more positive work and family relationships, better mental and physical health, and reduced criminal activity (Jones, et al., 2015; Jones & Kahn, 2017).

Our review of these empirical studies strongly suggests that educating our students on SEL competencies, supporting students to practice them, and allowing students to experience the long-term benefits of their impact are essential to success in today’s schools. However, SEL development in adults, as it relates to improved relationships, productivity, and feelings of satisfaction in the workplace, is not a priority in leadership practices or research (Patti et al., 2015; Brackett & Salovey, 2006). We assert that adults can benefit from the acquisition of these competencies, especially knowing that if leaders and staff model and/or promote them, then students are ultimately more likely to internalize their importance, and use them to their advantage, too.

SEL for Staff

Further bolstering our argument for the systemic integration of SEL for adults in districts and schools, research conducted through CASEL maintains that district and school-based staff must develop their own SEL competencies. In support of these competencies as necessary in the workplace, CASEL (2017) stated that individuals need "...the ability to use SEL practices in life and on the job" (p. 1). With an increased focus on SEL in schools, the field of education needs all stakeholders, specifically leaders, teachers, and mental health staff, to continue to develop their own SEL competencies as well as be given the professional training to do so.

Brackett et al. (2010) conducted a quantitative study in England that measured 123 teachers' emotion-regulation ability (ERA). Specifically, these researchers found a positive relationship between the emotion-regulation abilities of teachers and their job satisfaction as well as their sense of personal accomplishment. Moreover, they found that teachers with higher ERA experienced greater levels of principal support and had better relationships with colleagues. Additionally, Jennings and Greenberg (2009) acknowledge that research (Goleman, 1996) over the past few decades has informed the education profession to promote teachers' SEL competencies. However, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) point out that, "researchers also know little about how teachers regulate their emotions, the relationship between teachers' emotions and motivation, and how integral emotional experiences are in teacher development" (p. 328). Although current studies stress the importance of SEL for teachers, our study examines the need for SEL competencies to be displayed, demonstrated and actively promoted by district and school-based leaders, as they influenced the members of their organizations, including mental health staff.

In consideration of the impact teacher SEL training has on students, Reyes et al. (2012) conducted a study that involved 812 sixth grade students and their teachers from 28 elementary

schools in a large urban school district in the northeastern United States. This study categorized teachers by their degree of resistance or acceptance to teaching SEL programs and named them low-, medium- and high-quality implementers. Analyses revealed that teachers who received more training and delivered more lessons, or were high-quality implementers, had more positive outcomes and felt more efficacious in their work. These findings showed that teacher beliefs, along with training and program fidelity, impacted SEL interventions and the students who received them. Leaders played an important role in ensuring that all staff received the training that they needed.

We argue that leaders need to engage in practices that model SEL competencies and/or promote opportunities for staff to develop their own skills, which ultimately impact student achievement. Jennings and Greenberg (2009) remind us that “teachers influence their students not only by how and what they teach but also by how they relate, teach, and model social and emotional constructs, and manage the classroom” (p. 449). That being said, limited research provides evidence of effective pre-service and professional development opportunities focused on staff competencies (Brackett & Salovey, 2006). Due to the importance of SEL in schools, and the need for professional training, our study examined leadership practices and how they shaped adults’ work in a district and its schools.

SEL Competencies and Leadership

In our research, we explored the integration of SEL competencies and leadership theory. The following section describes how social and emotional intelligences connect to leadership, how leadership theories and practices lay the groundwork for capability and capacity building (Cohen et al., 2007), and how social and emotional leadership is in its nascent stages. We explored the topic of leadership, as it supports our argument in understanding more deeply how leaders employed socially and emotionally competent practices in a district and its schools.

Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Leadership

The focus on EI, a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), gained strong momentum from the research of Goleman (2006) on emotional literacy. Since the inception of this concept, numerous studies emerged related to EI, including the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Boyatzis et al., 2011; George, 2000; Siegling et al., 2014; Walter et al., 2012). For example, Hur et al., (2011) conducted a quantitative study that exclusively utilized questionnaires to explore how emotional intelligence related to leader effectiveness, team effectiveness, and organizational climate. The findings revealed that followers who rated team leaders as more emotionally intelligent also rated them as more effective at shaping a positive climate in the organization.

Initially, corporate organizations conducted much of this EI research by seeking to align the EI of leaders with their overall performance. Over the past two decades, however, this work has found its way into educational leadership practices. As Moore (2009) cites in her work on school reform, "EI can be the difference between a high performing school and a low performing school, and leaders who possess high levels of EI are more skillful in leading change and cultivating commitment among their staff" (p. 23). Cai (2011) also examined empirical studies published between 1996 and 2011 to explore the relationship between the EI of principals and the turnaround of low performing schools. While Cai acknowledged further investigation was needed, he concluded that the higher the school leader's EI, the more likely teachers collaborated with each other and the greater prevalence that the leader demonstrated transformational leadership behaviors (e.g., idealized influence and intellectual stimulation). Lastly, evidence also suggested that the higher a principal's EI the greater likelihood that they

utilized positive interpersonal skills including communication, conflict management, and stress management.

Also, several studies described the relationship between leadership and EI (Palmer et al., 2001; Gardner & Stough, 2002). For example, Palmer et al. (2001) concluded that the foundation for competency of transformational leadership is a person's skill to manage and monitor the emotions of themselves and others. Relatedly, Berkovich and Eyal (2015) conducted a narrative review of 49 peer-reviewed studies published between 1990-2012 that focused exclusively on educational leaders and emotions. In their analysis of quantitative, qualitative and mixed-methods studies, the researchers identified three main themes across the literature including leaders' behaviors and their effects on followers' emotions; leaders' emotional abilities; and leaders' emotional experiences and displays of emotions. While these themes helped researchers better understand the importance of EI and leadership, we argue that schools and districts are complex systems that require not just the development of an individual leader's skills, but more importantly, the collective skills of many.

Leadership Theories and Practices

Strong educational leadership highly impacts student academic achievement (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Principals are instructional leaders, and through their directive, they set teacher expectations and influence classroom activity that impacts student achievement (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Branch et al., 2013). That being said, leaders are not only responsible for individual and collective academic successes but also ensuring the infrastructure to support these successes. Furthermore, leadership practices—what leaders think and do within the social contexts of schools—allow adults and students to grow. By extension, transformational and distributed leadership practices can be critical to the growth, progress, and success of both students and adults, and social capital theory strongly supports the benefits of

colleagues interacting, supporting, and strengthening their work. Each of these theories value human relationships and encourage the development of capabilities and capacity building within the organization.

Transformational Leadership. Burns (1978) introduced “transformational leadership,” as a theory based on relationships and meeting the needs of followers to help foster change within an organization. A transformational educational leader delivers a mission-centered emphasis on setting direction and vision, a performance-centered emphasis on developing people, and a culture-centered emphasis on redesigning the organization (Leithwood, 1994; Marks & Printy, 2003). Bass (1998) used transformational leadership as a lens to view organizations, specifically how leaders impacted the behaviors and feelings of other members within the organization. Furthermore, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) extended the transformational model to include seven dimensions: (1) build school vision and establish school goals; (2) provide intellectual stimulation; (3) offer individualized support; (4) model best practices and important organizational values; (5) demonstrate high performance expectations; (6) create a productive school culture; and (7) develop structures to foster participation in school decisions.

In their study, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) examined the practices of leaders in twelve Ontario schools that displayed effective collaboration. They found that principals who utilized transformational leadership such as developing people, and setting vision, better assisted in the development of collaborative school cultures. By extension, Northouse (2016) proclaimed that transformational leaders are “concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long term-goals. It includes assessing followers’ motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings” (p. 161). This focus on understanding the emotions of others and the relationships between leaders and followers reflected the integration of SEL competencies with the dimensions of transformational leadership.

Hackett and Hortman's research (2008) sought to understand a relationship between SEL competencies and the behaviors associated with effective leadership performance. In this study, researchers analyzed any relationships between the four domains of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management and four transformational leadership behaviors. Specifically, researchers focused on the dimensions of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. With data collected from self-reports of both instruments, they found that emotional competencies were related to these transformational leadership dimensions. Thus, it makes sense for researchers to explore how leadership practices, such as those identified by the transformational leadership theory, model or promote SEL competencies.

Furthermore, in relation to transformational leadership focused on developing people, Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) asserted that "capital has to be shared and circulated" and further state that, "groups, teams, and communities are far more powerful than individuals when it comes to developing human capital" (p. 3). This focus on developing people through collaborative structures relies on leaders utilizing, modeling, and promoting the SEL competencies of social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. In addition to transformational leadership, social capital theory further extends the fundamental importance of colleagues' relationships to support their work.

Social Capital. Bourdieu (1985) and Coleman (1990) first introduced the social capital theory by acknowledging that the relationships and interactions between people can serve as a resource for them. Leana (2011) conducted a large-scale, quantitative study in New York City that analyzed the work of staff in relation to student achievement. Leana found that "teachers were almost twice as likely to turn to their peers as to the [outside] experts designated by the school district, and four times more likely to seek advice from one another than from the

principal” (p. 33). Moreover, when teachers engaged in more frequent conversations and expressed positive relationships with their peers, students showed higher achievement gains. This showed the importance of collegial relationships grounded in trust and sharing of practices to support improvement as well as the understanding that the formal school leader cannot solely bear the responsibility of supporting and coaching staff.

In addition to Leana’s findings, Minckler (2014) enhanced social capital theory by emphasizing that strong relationships provide value to individual members and the collective organization. In her quantitative study, Minckler (2014) explored the relationship between school leadership and the development of teacher social capital through a convenience sample of thirteen schools in two school districts in the southeastern United States. One major finding of this study suggested that the transformational leader played an essential role “in developing the structures, both physically (e.g., shared scheduling time) and culturally (e.g., norms of collegiality) that create opportunities for groups of teachers to work together to create and use teacher social capital” (p. 672). This shows that formal leaders play an important role in creating essential, supportive contexts for leaders and staff to interact within the school day.

Distributed Leadership. Distributed leadership theory focuses on how multiple leaders in an organization interact with others in a specific context to create leadership practices. Spillane et al. (2004) states, “rather than seeing leadership practice as solely a function of an individual’s ability, skill, charisma, and/or cognition, we argue that it is best understood as a practice distributed over leaders, followers, and their situation” (p. 11). This theory supports the importance of increasing capabilities and capacity for change within the organization by considering the relationship of multiple leaders and followers, and their activities. As defined by Hargreaves and Fullan (2012), capabilities are more than just having “adequate ability,” but rather the possession of “attributes required for performance or accomplishment” (p. 55).

Additionally, Mullen and Jones (2008) referred to capacity in their work as “enabling the growth of teachers as leaders who are responsible for their actions” (p. 329). In many schools, leadership is not just the job of one person, but rather a “web” that includes district, school, and teacher leaders engaged with a variety of different colleagues and contexts.

In considering a distributed leadership model, we argue for the importance of knowing where the key relationships reside and understanding how leaders emerge from amongst the staff. When leadership is viewed from a distributed perspective, the analysis of power relationships inevitably changes (West et al., 2000) and distinctions between leaders and followers blur (Gronn, 2003). Staff leaders, who are content experts (e.g., subject-area teachers), do not always hold positional authority such as that of a supervisory administrator. This means that an evaluative approach during interactions is not the driving dynamic between them. Due to this potential dynamic, staff leaders influence the organization’s leadership practices by focusing on those skills (e.g. listening) that enhance relationships between colleagues.

In one empirical study, Timperley (2005) observed literacy instruction in seven elementary schools and examined its impact on student achievement. Timperley found that the followers who did not respect their designated positional leaders, sought out their peers as teacher leaders. These teacher leaders were not appointed by the school or district, but organically rose as leaders within the situations in which they worked with colleagues. Followers selected colleagues based on camaraderie and like-mindedness (i.e., not necessarily content expertise) which ultimately led to ineffective leadership practices. We acknowledge that this research showed that peer interactions did not result in positive outcomes that impact productive adult collaboration and student learning.

In much of our research, we identified leaders as both those who were hired and appointed formally and those who assumed the role amongst their colleagues informally. We

also considered the leader's level of administrative and/or content expertise in relation to those staff members following them. In a distributed framework, the interdependencies between leaders, followers and a situation, and who the follower sees as a leader, can influence what leadership practices emerge. For leaders to act in ways that support increased staff effectiveness, they must consider their practices, and how they foster situations that build capabilities and capacity amongst staff (Cohen et al., 2007). We believe that socially and emotionally competent leadership practices will result in stronger collaborative and collegial relationships that yield greater feelings of sensemaking, collective efficacy, resilience and well-being.

Socially and Emotionally Competent Leadership

Due to the importance of SEL competencies in adults, and the role leaders play in building staff capabilities and capacity within their districts and schools, we turn to the current literature on leadership development that integrates SEL into its practices. Goleman's work (2006) deepened our research by naming explicitly that social intelligence should be included when thinking about effective leadership practices. Goleman (2006) observed that "a more relationship-based construct for assessing leadership is social intelligence, which we define as a set of interpersonal competencies" (p. 76). This construct considers how the actions of leaders, and their relationships with staff, impact a school environment.

Relatedly, Berg (2018) distinguished that leaders should "engage in collaborative problem solving around key school-wide issues, using protocols that engage team members in generating multiple perspectives . . . and resolving decisions in a way that allows everyone with relevant knowledge to contribute" (p. 83). This illustrates how leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies enhanced opportunities for collective decision-making amongst staff, and how it allowed for shared responsibility in reaching district and school goals. In response, we explored further how school communities are shaped by district and school-based leadership

practices that may, or may not, model and/or promote social and emotional competencies. We seek to deepen knowledge in this field about how these socially and emotionally competent leadership practices existed within various aspects of a district and its schools.

Administrators build their organizations by sharing leadership responsibilities with their staff. Patti et al. (2015), stated, “school leaders have a great opportunity to impact student growth and achievement by shaping a culture that cultivates motivated, engaged, and effective teacher leaders” (p. 438). Additionally, they asserted that districts and schools must invest in high quality leadership development to create and sustain teacher leaders and school success (Patti et al., 2012; Sparks, 2009). As described, transformational leadership, social capital and distributed leadership all argued in favor of building staff capabilities and capacity throughout an organization. Furthermore, we argue that as leadership responsibilities spread, administrators build structures within their schools that allow for staff to work independently of them, and that staff consider both their own personal well-being and that of others.

Conclusion

Prior research on social and emotional intelligences and learning has established the importance of SEL for students, both in terms of personal health and academic learning. Yet little of this research has focused directly on the adults that work with these students. School-based staff face increasing pressure to serve as role models to students in the ways in which they behave and possess the core competencies expected in their practices. In support, district and school-based leaders recognize the need to strengthen the SEL competencies of adults, although further research is needed to understand the most effective practices to move the work forward.

The importance of district and school-based leadership is seen both in theory and practice. Transformational and distributed leadership theories both place an emphasis on leaders developing people and/or practices within the organization, and social capital theory highlights

the importance of understanding the working dynamic between them. Leadership practices, as they are implemented in districts and schools, are important in shaping the ways in which adults feel, act and perceive their work in schools.

As we continue to implement education reforms intended to close achievement gaps, we strongly believe in the need to prioritize a focus on the development of socially and emotionally competent leadership. Cherniss (1998) writes that “to be successful, educational leaders must be able to forge relationships with many people. They need to be mediators and mentors, negotiators and networkers. In short, educational leaders need to be more emotionally intelligent” (p. 26). We argue that leaders need to integrate SEL competencies into their leadership practices that influence staff behaviors. Although research is currently limited, our study contributes to the field by exploring how SEL competencies are integral components of what leaders think and do, and how they understand and shape their staff’s work.

Our research study focused on both social and emotional learning and leadership by identifying key leadership practices, understanding how these practices modeled and/or promoted SEL competencies and skills for adults, and further showing how these practices shaped a district-wide focus on SEL, collective efficacy, adult collaboration, staff resilience and wellbeing, and the work of mental health staff. We aimed to contribute to the SEL field by understanding the actions of leaders and how they shaped a district and its schools. The goal of our study was to encourage leaders to integrate social and emotional learning competencies into their practices in order to support the positive perceptions, sensemaking, productivity, and wellbeing of adults.

The research questions for our individual studies, as outlined in Table 1.3, reflect how each piece of our work contributes to the greater field.

Table 1.3

Overview of research questions by individual researchers

Name	Individual Research Questions
Conners	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do district leaders support school-based leaders as they make sense of district-wide focus on SEL? 2. How does a district-wide focus on SEL shape school-based leadership practices? 3. What leadership practices, if any, model social and emotional learning competencies?
Rose	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What school-based leadership practices, if any, model social and emotional learning competencies? 2. How do these school-based leadership practices shape the sources of collective efficacy?
Ito	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What school-based leadership practices, if any, model social and emotional learning competencies? 2. How do these school-based leadership practices shape the ways in which adults collaborate?
Tobin	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What leadership practices develop and support the resilience and well-being of school-based staff? 2. How do these practices relate to promoting SEL opportunities for staff in school settings?
Renda	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do school-based leadership practices promote social and emotional learning opportunities for mental health staff in schools? 2. How do these school-based leadership practices shape the work of mental health staff in schools?

CHAPTER TWO²

Research Design and Methodology

Our study identified leadership practices that modeled social and emotional learning (SEL) competencies, and/or promoted SEL opportunities for adults, while investigating how those leadership practices shaped a district and its schools. While our collective study examined this phenomenon, our individual studies examined leadership practices through a variety of theoretical and conceptual lenses (see Table 1.1).

This chapter outlines the methodology of our larger, collective study. Collaboratively, the team of five researchers designed the protocols for collecting and analyzing semi-structured interview data. Data collection and analysis unique to the individual studies are outlined in those respective chapters. The sections to follow describe our individual researcher positionality, the overall study design and site selection, our common data collection procedures, and an overview of the data analysis the team used.

Researcher Positionality

As a team of researchers conducting a qualitative case study, we recognize that we are the data collection instrument. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that our backgrounds and experiences are important variables that may affect the research process. We are all district or school-based leaders, in public school districts in Massachusetts, with a belief in the importance of socially and emotionally competent leadership practices. It is because of this belief that we seek to understand how leadership practices model and/or promote SEL competencies and skills for adults, and further investigate how those practices shaped a district-wide focus on SEL, collective efficacy, adult collaboration, staff resilience and wellbeing, and the work of mental health staff. This reflects the likelihood that our own subjectivity could come to bear on our

² This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach to this project: Michele Connors, Mark Ito, Adam Renda, Geoff Rose, and Donna Tobin.

study and report findings. The data collection and analysis methods described below demonstrate the steps we took to remain objective throughout the process and present trustworthy findings.

Study Design

In order to identify leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies, and/or promoted SEL opportunities for adults, while investigating how those leadership practices shaped a district and its schools, we utilized a qualitative case study methodology. The qualitative case study method suited our research process because our unit of analysis was a single school district in Massachusetts, or a bounded system (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). More specifically, we employed an instrumental case study. Stake (1995) defines an instrumental case study as one in which the issue is dominant, and studying the organization will enable the researchers to gain insight into a particular issue, redraw generalizations, or build theory. Thus, this methodology was appropriate for our study, because investigating the *issue* of leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies, and/or promoted SEL opportunities for adults, was of greater significance than investigating the *case*, or the school district as a whole (Stake, 1995). The instrumental case study method enabled our team to provide a narrative, or “thick description” (Mills & Gay, 2019, p. 8) of the school district in relation to our research questions.

Site Selection

Recently, the National Association of State Boards of Education highlighted Massachusetts as a state committed to social emotional learning (SEL) for both students and adults (Long, 2019). Supporting students’ SEL is one of five Core Strategies identified in the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education’s (DESE) Strategic Plan (2018). While adults are not specifically mentioned in the plan, Massachusetts’ standards for High Quality Professional Development require professional learning experiences to be grounded in strong SEL practice (Long, 2019). A recent study on SEL initiatives, which included

Massachusetts, found that SEL initiatives must be “championed at the district level and tailored to each local context, in order to build on existing success” (*Opportunities for Massachusetts, Lesson for the Nation*, 2015, p. 16).

Given that SEL is a DESE priority for school districts, the research that supports the importance of developing SEL in educational leaders and students alike, and our roles as educational leaders in Massachusetts school districts, we felt it was important to examine the link between SEL and leadership in a school district in Massachusetts. This interest led to our goal of investigating leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies, and/or promoted SEL opportunities for adults. Therefore, a key criterion in selecting an instrumental case for our research was that the district demonstrated a focus on SEL, specifically a mission, vision, and/or strategic plan that articulated a focus on SEL across the district. We conducted our study in a mid-sized school district of 10-15 schools with a multi-tiered leadership structure across the district and its schools. Specifically, our instrumental case study took place across six schools within a suburban school district of approximately 6,000 students and 410 teachers.

Data Collection

As a qualitative methods approach, our individual studies relied on data collection from document reviews, a questionnaire, observations, and semi-structured interviews. Table 2.1 outlines the data collection methods utilized by each researcher for their individual study. The variety of data collection formats enabled us to both confirm and triangulate findings during our data analysis, as well as enrich our collective understanding of the research problem within a specific district context (Creswell, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Across all studies, we used semi-structured interviews. Sub-study specific data collection and analyses methods for document reviews, observations, and the questionnaire are found in the respective chapters of those researchers who utilized each data source (see Chapter 3).

Table 2.1

Overview of data collection methods by individual researchers

Data Collection Method	Researcher
Semi-structured interviews	Conners, Ito, Renda, Rose, Tobin
Questionnaires	Ito Renda, Rose, Tobin
Document Review	Conners, Renda, Tobin
Observations	Ito, Rose

Semi-structured interviews

We conducted semi-structured, face-to-face individual interviews from September 2019 to December 2019. Table 2.2 lists interview participants by position, and the studies that utilized each data source. The use of our semi-structured interview protocol allowed flexibility to respond to the interviewee with additional probing questions as the dialogue occurred (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The interviews helped us gain an understanding of the extent to which a district-wide focus on SEL influenced leadership practices across multiple domains. The focus of the interviews enabled interviewees to highlight their experiences around leadership practices, and their perceptions of how leadership practices shape a district and its schools, specifically around a district-wide focus on SEL, collective efficacy, adult collaboration, teacher resilience, and the work of mental health staff. The interview protocol ensured consistency in the process, and our research team utilized the protocol with all interview participants and ensured that we asked the same questions of each participant.

Table 2.2

Interview Subjects

Participant by Role	Number	Researchers who Utilized Each Data Source
---------------------	--------	-------------------------------------------

Superintendent of Schools	1	Connors
Director of Social Emotional Learning	1	Connors
School-based Leaders	9	Connors, Ito, Renda, Rose, Tobin
Teaching and Learning Directors	3	Connors
Teachers	20	Ito, Renda, Rose, Tobin
Mental Health Staff	10	Ito, Renda, Rose, Tobin

Semi-structured interview protocol. We developed semi-structured interview protocols for district leaders (see Appendix A), school based-leaders (see Appendix B), and teachers and mental health staff (see Appendix C) to explore the extent to which a district-wide focus on SEL influenced leadership practices from the perspectives of both school-based leaders and other school staff, specifically teachers and mental health staff. We developed the protocols collaboratively by including specific questions to address our individual studies as well as the broader focus of the larger study. We piloted our interview protocol with district leaders, school-based leaders, and teachers outside our case study district. This process ensured that our interview items were clearly and respectfully worded in an effort to elicit relevant responses. Additionally, piloting the protocol helped us identify and correct potential problems and ensure we stayed within a one-hour time frame (Singleton & Straits, 2018).

Participant Selection. To select participants, we used purposeful sampling, which is “based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned” (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 96). This method of sampling is most effective when a limited number of people can serve as primary data sources due to the nature of study. Utilizing purposeful sampling, we

selected our interview participants from four categories: district leaders, school-based leaders, teachers, and mental health staff. Purposeful sampling helped us discover, understand, and gain insight from a sample of participants from whom we felt the most could be learned relative to our research questions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Because we focused on leadership practices, it was important to not only interview district and school-based leaders, but also teachers and mental health staff who work with those leaders. The interview participants reflected a typical sample of district and school-based leaders, as well as teachers and mental health staff, that were common to public school districts in Massachusetts.

Participant Recruitment. In August, we met with the Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Director of Special Education, and the Director of Social Emotional Learning and School Counseling. This afforded us the opportunity to discuss the scope of both our collective and individual studies, as well as who they felt should be interviewed at the district level. After meeting with the Superintendent's leadership council to explain our study needs and gather information on the various populations of each school, we selected four of the six elementary schools, and both middle schools, for the study. We focused on the four elementary schools based on district programs housed within the schools, as well as student demographics, providing us a diverse student population. Research team members coordinated their independent school visits with the principal in each building. We contacted each of the six school-based leaders through email, explained the scope of our collective and individual studies, and invited them to participate in a series of interviews. All six school-based leaders agreed to participate. All interview participants received a confidentiality statement and signed an informed consent, at the time of the interview.

Interview Process. Given the nature of our individual studies, each school-based leader was interviewed twice, once by a pair of researchers and once by an individual researcher. This

ensured all of our individual questions were addressed in addition to our collective questions, as well as a means to ensure consistency in our interview process. On average, the interviews lasted 40-60 minutes. We recorded and transcribed all interviews and reviewed transcriptions for accuracy. Since only one researcher collected data specific to district leaders, that round of interviews was completed prior to interviewing school-based leaders. This enabled the other four researchers to complete their interviews with school-based leaders first, share the transcripts from those interviews with the individual researcher, and provide that researcher an opportunity to focus on questions related to her individual study. Throughout the interview process, we shared our interview transcripts and checked in as a group to ensure our use of questioning and prompting was eliciting the data necessary to explore our research questions.

Data Analysis

Creating meaning and making sense of the data is the main purpose of qualitative data analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). According to Creswell (2014), data analysis consists of “... ‘taking the data apart’ to determine the individual responses, and then ‘putting it together to summarize it’” (p. 10). Data analysis guided our identification of leadership practices that modeled social and emotional learning competencies, and/or promoted social emotional learning opportunities for adults. Further analysis supported our work to investigate how those leadership practices shape a district and its schools. Ongoing data analysis required us to continually revisit and reflect upon the data we collected (Creswell, 2014). Further, data analysis involved assigning meaning through codes, themes, or other categorization processes, as we moved through the data and towards the answers to our research questions (Saldaña, 2016). Individually, researchers kept analytic memos to document the coding process, field notes, and reflections to aid in a thorough understanding and analysis of our data (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Creswell (2014) suggests including the following steps in the process of qualitative data analysis “...(a) organizing and preparing the data for analysis, (b) gaining an overall sense of the information by reading through data, (c) coding the material into categories, using a descriptive term to label the topics, and (d) using the coding process to produce an explanation of the background or people as well as categories or themes for analysis” (p. 193). Following these steps, or variations thereof as appropriate for each individual study, provided us with a structured process of analyzing the textual data we collected. Specific data analysis processes, connected to our individual studies, can be found in the corresponding chapters, as each researcher employed a variety of methods and coding processes to analyze their data based on the research questions and conceptual framework of their study (see Chapter 3).

The CASEL framework (Figure 2.1) provided a model for our unit of analysis, and conceptually grounded our individual studies. The five CASEL competencies (see Table 1.2) served as the lens for identifying leadership practices that modeled or promoted SEL competencies, guided and facilitated our understanding of the data, and established our initial categories for data analysis. After transcribing the interview data, each researcher read through the transcripts and identified leadership practices, defined as what leaders think and do. Once the leadership practices were identified, we applied our *a priori* codes to those practices for our initial cycle of coding. Our *a priori* codes, or the codes we identified before examining our data (Saldana, 2016), are based on the skills and competencies within the CASEL framework: self-awareness (SA), self-management (SM), social awareness (SOA), relationship skills (RS), and responsible decision-making (RDM). We re-examined the initial categories to further focus our data to reveal subsequent patterns or categories. Re-examining the initial categories helped us understand if the identified leadership practice modeled (i.e., displayed or demonstrated) or

promoted (i.e., actively encouraged) SEL competencies. Our coding manual can be found in Appendix D.

Since each researcher identified their individual conceptual framework and research questions, additional coding was completed specific to the individual study (see Chapter 3).

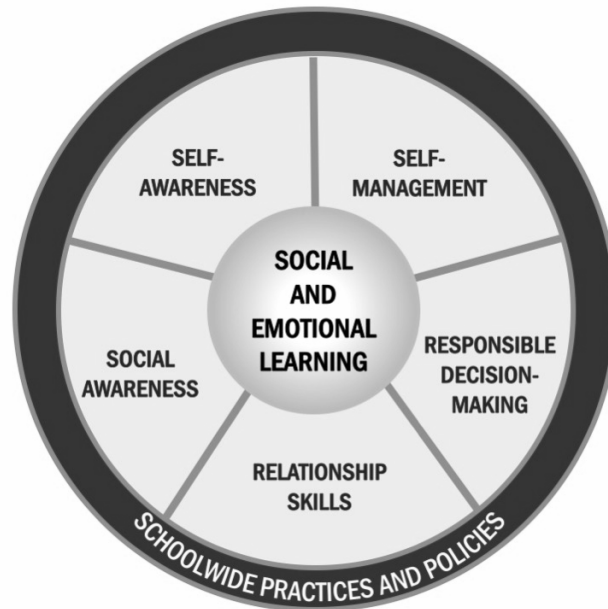


Figure 2.1. CASEL Social Emotional Learning Framework, 2017

Triangulation. Across the five individual studies, data collection methods involved semi-structured interviews, document review, observations, and a questionnaire. Given the variety of data collection methods, we were able to compare and cross-check our data with one another, providing both investigator and data triangulation (Merriam, 2009). Triangulation involves researchers' (investigators') cross-checking information and conclusions with one another through the use of multiple procedures and sources (data) (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The use of multiple methods of data collection within and across our individual studies enabled us to confirm information we heard in interviews alongside information we read in documents, witnessed in observations, or gathered through questionnaires during the course of our individual

data analysis. The ability to triangulate our data and findings was one way we addressed the trustworthiness of our findings.

Trustworthiness. As a team of researchers, we took several steps to ensure our findings were trustworthy. Merriam (2009) and Mills & Gay (2019) suggest multiple strategies to support trustworthiness. Among those strategies, we identified triangulation, adequate engagement in the data collection, researcher's position (reflexivity), peer review, and rich, thick descriptions as those strategies that support the trustworthiness of our study.

As discussed previously, we triangulated our data through the use of multiple investigators and data collection methods. We engaged deeply in data collection from September through December 2019 through the semi-structured interviews, document review, observations, and questionnaires to ensure our data was saturated. We recognized data saturation when we began to see and hear the same information repeatedly and were not uncovering any new information (Merriam & Tisdell 2016).

Lincoln and Guba (2000) define reflexivity as “the process of reflecting critically on the self as researcher” (p. 183). As a team of district and school-based leaders, we recognized that we hold assumptions about educational leadership, and that those assumptions could have an impact on our role as a human instrument in the research process, so it was important that we engaged in ongoing discussions central to our assumptions and biases.

Because this study was conducted by a team of researchers, peer review was ongoing. Throughout the course of data collection and analysis, we discussed the processes we were following, compared our emerging findings against the raw data, and developed tentative interpretations of those findings. These ongoing, evolving discussions enabled us to identify gaps in our understanding of the data as well as confirm our common findings across studies.

Finally, our study created a “rich, thick description” (Merriam, 2009) of how a school district’s leadership practices modeled social emotional learning competencies, or promoted social emotional learning opportunities for adults, and how those practices shaped the district and its schools. This description of the study’s setting, participants, and findings support the possibility of the study “transferring” to other settings (Merriam, 2009).

CHAPTER THREE

Purpose of Study and Problem Statement

Over the past decades, numerous education reforms have focused on raising the rigor of academic standards, establishing more effective accountability systems, and assessing students' academic proficiencies (Payne, 2010). While many of these policies have been implemented, reforms initiated, and resources spent, our nation continues to have its most marginalized populations suffer significant opportunity and achievement gaps. These gaps are demonstrated by inequitable opportunities to learn, which limit upward social mobility of our most marginalized students (Putnam, 2015; Ladson-Billings, 2006). What is the solution to this problem? Perhaps, focusing on the factors that have the strongest correlation to increased student achievement might be a sound place to start. These three factors include leadership, social and emotional learning (SEL) competencies, and collective efficacy.

In today's educational climate, research has supported that leadership is one of the most influential school, district, and system level factors that impacts student achievement (Daly, 2009; Leithwood et al., 2010; Branch et al., 2013; Hitt & Tucker, 2016). Ultimately, school leaders have the responsibility to positively shape the way a school operates, and as a result, can impact both academic achievement and adult proficiencies. In order to achieve equitable outcomes, research also has demonstrated that effective school leaders need to build positive relationships with and among other educators (Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Minckler, 2014; Patti, et al., 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). This focus on relationships is an essential tenet of the SEL competencies outlined by the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL).

Researchers have also assessed that SEL has positive effects on students' academic performance and is essential for lifelong success (Greenberg et al., 2017; Domitrovich et al.,

2017; Durlak et al., 2011). In addition to the importance of SEL competencies, a recent surge in research has linked teachers' perceptions of collective efficacy and student success (Goddard et al., 2015; Francera & Bliss, 2011; Donohoo et al., 2018). Bandura (1997) defines collective efficacy as "a group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments" (p. 477). In the context of education and leadership, collective efficacy refers to whether teachers believe in the ability and capacity of their colleagues to support the achievement of all students.

In a meta-analysis of over 1,200 studies, Hattie (2012) identified teachers' perceptions of collective efficacy as the most significant influencing factor of student achievement. This research highlighted the importance of collective efficacy, but there remains limited research about how leadership practices impact the sources of collective efficacy (Goddard & Skrla, 2006; Versland & Erickson, 2017; Dussault et al., 2008). These four primary sources of collective efficacy include: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal/social persuasion, and affective states (Bandura, 1993). More specifically, no studies focus on whether leadership practices that model the five CASEL competencies of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making shape the sources of collective efficacy. It follows then that two questions guided this research: (1) What school-based leadership practices, if any, modeled SEL competencies? (2) How did these school-based leadership practices shape the sources of collective efficacy?

Literature Review

The first section of this review provides an overview of the theoretical framework, social cognitive theory, which grounded this study. The next section includes a brief history of collective efficacy, its importance, and how the literature defines it. Third, I include a section

that highlights the research relating leadership, collaboration and collective efficacy. Lastly, I present gaps in the research and how they impact the design and purpose of my study.

Theoretical Framework - Social Cognitive Theory

As mentioned, our current educational climate is continuously reflective of adjustments to national, state and local policies. School and district leaders are expected to implement reforms intended to ensure that every student succeeds. Relatedly, Wahlstrom & Seashore-Louis (2008) remind us that “as educational reforms are initiated in schools, feelings of efficacy may shape teachers’ willingness and preparedness to adopt reform strategies, including those that ask them to share practices with colleagues or take on more responsibility in the school” (p. 466). It is for this reason, I sought to understand what and how leadership practices may or may not, support the sources of efficacy, specifically collective efficacy.

Domitrovich et al. (2017) explains that “SEL is the process through which social-emotional competence develops” (p. 408). These SEL competencies can be both interpersonal and intrapersonal. Similarly, many researchers in psychology, behaviorist, and educational fields believed that people’s actions and reflections about social experiences strongly contributed to their feelings of efficacy (Bandura, 1993; Adams & Forsyth, 2006; Goddard, 2001). This relationship between action, reflection and efficacy is grounded in Bandura’s social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). Four main sources of collective efficacy laid the foundation for this theory including: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal/social persuasion and affective states. These four sources play out in schools every day.

Table 3.1
Definitions of the Four Sources of Collective Efficacy

Source	Definition of Source
Mastery experiences	When you feel something you did, works

Vicarious experiences	When you see or hear someone else have a successful experience; when you share or hear a successful idea
Social/verbal persuasion	When you receive feedback from someone else that causes you to reflect or change practice
Affective states	When actions make you feel a certain way

Source: Adapted from Goddard et al. (2004)

For this individual study, an adapted “Internal Coherence Framework” (see Figure 3.1) served as the conceptual framework to guide my two research questions (Forman et al., 2017). I have intentionally adapted this framework to reflect the purpose of this study by highlighting an integration of leadership practices that may, or may not, model SEL competencies and how these leadership practices may shape the sources of collective efficacy. Forman et al. (2017) asserted that in order for instruction and student learning to be improved, leaders and their practices significantly influenced “the structures and processes that support collaborative learning among educators, and the knowledge, skills and beliefs that educators bring to their work with students and colleagues (p. 89). Additionally, the adapted framework represented by Figure 3.1 also reflects the social cognitive theoretical model developed by Goddard et al. (2004) to highlight the relationship between identified leadership practices, the four sources of efficacy, and how they may shape the perceptions of collective efficacy.

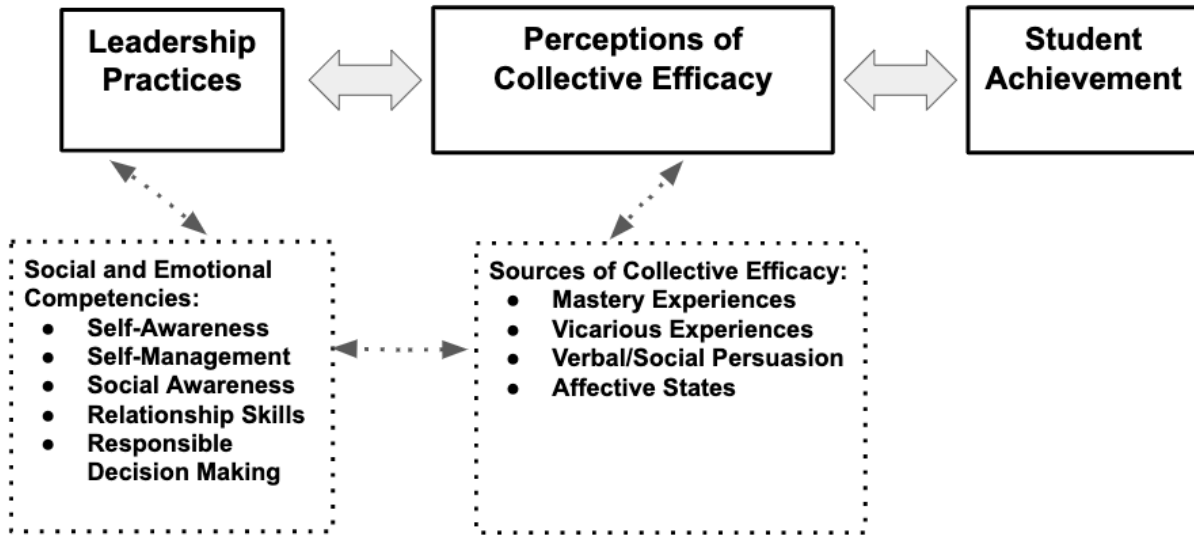


Figure 3.1: Adapted from Forman et al., 2017; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2004

In relation to Figure 3.1, numerous empirical studies have established collective efficacy as a strong predictor of student achievement (Angelle & Teague, 2013; Goddard et al., 2004; Donohoo, 2017; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). This study, however, did not focus on the relationship of collective efficacy to student achievement. Instead, the purpose of this study was to focus predominantly on what leadership practices specifically shaped the sources of collective efficacy. Relatedly, Moolenaar et al. (2012) conducted an international quantitative study that focused on teachers' perceptions and found that "collective efficacy is a powerful concept for both leadership and the successful implementation of reform" (p. 260). To put it another way, researchers, such as Donohoo (2018), found that collective efficacy has a positive relationship with increased student achievement and that leadership may impact this efficacy.

Using this framework, my study explored how identified leadership practices within the individual schools of one district modeled the five SEL competencies including self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills and responsible decision making (CASEL, 2003). Additionally, this study sought to understand how these leadership practices were related to the sources of collective efficacy including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences,

verbal/social persuasion, and affective states. Collectively, this qualitative study contributes to the research integrating leadership practices with collective efficacy and SEL competencies.

Collective Efficacy and Its Importance

Bandura (1993) first demonstrated a positive link between self-efficacy of individual teachers, the perceived collective efficacy of school staff, and student achievement. He observed that “once formed, efficacy beliefs contribute significantly to the level and quality of human functioning” (Bandura, 1993, p. 145). While the research highlighting collective efficacy was promising, Bandura (1997) acknowledged that high collective efficacy, as evidenced by teachers’ perceptions, can be challenging due to shared responsibility for student achievement, public accountability, and limited control over resources including facilities and funding.

More recently, Donohoo (2017) extended Bandura’s definition to focus more narrowly on education by stating that “collective teacher efficacy refers to the perceptions and judgments of a group of educators regarding their ability to positively influence student outcomes” (p. 102). The essence of this definition relates to the idea that teachers’ perceptions of the collective group’s capability will influence their own actions (Goddard et al., 2000). As mentioned in the previous section, this relationship between actions, reflections, and efficacy were the foundation of Bandura’s social cognitive theory.

Previous research focused on how specific elements of the social cognitive theory, such as mastery experiences, related to teachers’ perceptions of collective efficacy. Mastery experiences are ones in which teachers perceive their work to be successful. For example, in a quantitative study of 91 elementary schools in a large urban district, Goddard (2001) established that mastery experiences are strongly related to increased collective efficacy. In the discussion of the findings, Goddard also suggested that empowering school staff and providing feedback increased mastery experiences and collective efficacy. Specifically, in order to support the

development of collective efficacy through mastery experiences, Goddard (2001) recommended as a leadership practice for schools to set short-term, measurable school improvement goals, established by the staff. Thus, it was worthwhile to explore if this form of responsible decision-making, an SEL competency, emerged in the findings of this research as this study investigated the relationship between leadership practices and the sources of collective efficacy.

Collective Efficacy and Leadership

While research established a direct link between collective efficacy perceptions of educators and student achievement, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004) reminded us that “it is widely accepted that good principals are the cornerstones of good schools and that, without a principal’s leadership efforts to raise student achievement, schools cannot succeed” (p. 573). As a result, one of the purposes of this study was to learn more about the specific leadership practices of good principals and other informal leaders within a school. Currently, there continues to be a strong research base on the impact that principals and their leadership practices can have on student performance (Branch et al., 2013; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). Relatedly, Leithwood and Sun (2012) distinguished leadership as second only to teachers in relation to impact on student achievement. Additionally, Leithwood et al. (2010) urge us to focus future educational leadership research on “discovering the leadership practices most likely to improve the condition or status of variables in schools for which there is already considerable evidence of impact on student learning” (p. 698). As the research about the impact of educational leadership continues to be validated and published, it is also increasingly important to learn about which leadership practices relate to collective efficacy.

Furthermore, it is important to note that leaders exercise influence through shaping the organizational context and conditions that teachers and other stakeholders experience and perceive (Francera & Bliss, 2011; Grissom & Loeb, 2011). Cansoy and Parlar (2017) conducted

a quantitative study in Istanbul to understand the relationship between leadership and teachers' perceptions of self and collective efficacy. They followed a relational model using three surveys. After assessing data from 427 teachers who completed the "Effective Leadership Scale," the "Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale," and the "Collective Efficacy Scale," they concluded that within each school community, there was a positive correlation with increases in effective leadership behaviors and teachers' collective efficacy beliefs.

As outlined by the social cognitive theory, leadership practices can impact adults in various ways. This might be seen through vicarious experiences, such as opportunities to observe each other's successful teaching lessons, through verbal persuasion, or from receiving positive feedback from colleagues or an administrator. Based on a recent review of more than 90 empirical studies focused on the affective states of teachers, it is recommended that leadership practices and educators' emotions continue to be explored (Leithwood et al., 2010). Similarly, Goddard et al. (2000) reminds us that "the affective state of an organization has much to do with how challenges are interpreted by the organizations" (p. 485). Accordingly, one can conclude that leadership practices, what leaders think and do related to these challenges, can contribute to the actions, reflections, and perceptions of staff.

As researchers continue to more intentionally examine how leaders' actions relate to organizational success, it will be increasingly important to also understand how specific practices impact individuals within schools. To illustrate, Ross and Gray (2006) conducted a quantitative research study within two large school districts of Ontario, Canada. The survey participants included over 3,000 educators from 218 different schools. They found that leadership practices including the modeling of good professional practice, providing individualized support and intellectual stimulation, and holding high performance expectations, had a positive impact on the collective efficacy of the school.

In relation to the four sources of collective efficacy, staff leadership opportunities can allow for mastery and vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and can positively influence affective states. The findings of Derrington and Angelle (2013) supported the claim that teacher leadership and collective efficacy are closely related. These researchers utilized descriptive statistics to analyze the data from 719 teachers who completed the *Teacher Leadership Inventory* and *Teacher Efficacy Belief Scale-Collective*. Through this quantitative design, the findings “indicated a clear and strong relationship between collective efficacy and the extent of teacher leadership in a school” (p. 6). While this finding might not be surprising, my goal was to study how leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies, might shape these teacher leadership opportunities that also impact the collective efficacy perceptions of teachers.

In a similar study, Angelle and Teague (2014) used the same survey instruments to examine the relationship between collective efficacy perceptions and teacher leadership across three districts in one southeastern U.S. state. While these findings also confirmed a strong relationship between teacher leadership and collective efficacy, the researchers also explained that “teachers perceive the *informal* aspects of teacher leadership as a greater indicator of collective efficacy” (p. 748). These informal aspects are aligned with collaboration and “extra role behaviors” as opposed to department head and grade level chair positions. Moreover, the findings also aligned with the main theoretical premise behind social capital (as discussed in chapter one) to reflect the importance of teachers’ collegial relationships to support their work (Leana, 2011; Minckler, 2014).

By highlighting the importance of informal teacher leadership opportunities, one can assume that the ways in which leaders support, or do not support, teacher collaboration can influence the vicarious experiences, social persuasion and affective states of educators. Admittedly, these sources of collective efficacy, which may be integrated into what leaders think

and do, can positively or negatively shape the perceptions of teachers. Furthermore, at times, high expectations and relentless focus on student outcomes might lead to a variety of teachers' perceptions. Our current educational system, with heightened accountability measures and significant pressures to support students' academic, social, and emotional skills, strongly impacts the actions and reactions of leaders and school staff. It is for these reasons that the *collective efficacy* perceptions continue to be important as these beliefs are related not simply to the self but to the capacity of the organization to work together successfully. Moreover, in addition to these perceptions, this study also focuses on the leadership practices that may shape the individual SEL competencies of teachers and all school-based staff.

Adult Collaboration and Collective Efficacy

Across various public and private organizations, anyone familiar with working on teams may be aware that simply putting structures in place will not lead to effective collaboration. As Donohoo (2017) reminded us, "The provision of time and the formation of teams, however, does not guarantee that collaboration will result in a sense of collective efficacy, changes in beliefs and practice, and/or increased student outcomes." (p. 37). To put it another way, leaders can allocate consistent scheduled time as well as invest significant financial resources into collaborative structures without any resulting student or adult improvements.

Nonetheless, collaborative relationships have value to the individual when they accomplish two major goals: helping the individual accomplish things he or she cannot do alone and satisfying the belonging needs of the individual (Minckler, 2014). It is for these reasons that vicarious learning experiences and social persuasion are fundamentally linked to teachers' perceptions of efficacy. Goddard et al. (2004) remind us that social persuasion may involve "encouragement or specific performance feedback from a supervisor or a colleague or it may involve discussions in the teachers' lounge, community, or media about the ability of teachers to

influence students” (p. 6). Goddard and colleagues corroborated the foundations of both social capital and distributed leadership theories by explicitly naming that educators can be influenced by collegial leaders in various situations (Spillane et al., 2004; Leana, 2011).

Goddard et al. (2015) studied the relationship between collaboration and collective efficacy in which they surveyed 1,606 teachers in elementary schools serving students in rural, high-poverty areas located in a Midwestern state. They used a quasi-experimental quantitative design to determine potential relationships between instructional leadership, teacher collaboration, collective efficacy beliefs, and student achievement. They found that through the promotion of a collaborative culture focused on instructional improvement, principals’ leadership positively influenced teachers’ collective efficacy beliefs and thus promoted student achievement. Accordingly, valuing and building collaborative structures while focusing on a few instructional priorities are important leadership practices reflective of Bandura’s social cognitive theory.

Furthermore, Ross et al. (2004) conducted a large quantitative study that sought to better understand the school processes that related to collective efficacy perceptions. Surveys of 2,170 teachers in a large school district in Ontario, identified that leaders influenced collective efficacy through “goal setting, facilitating teacher collaboration, and fitting school plans with school needs” (p. 181). Additionally, school leaders who supported teacher empowerment through shared decision-making processes also contributed to higher collective efficacy perceptions. This finding reflected the belief that when teachers believed they had agency, it can be a powerful contributor to their feelings of collective efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Although collaborative structures, teacher agency, and shared leadership are variables of effective organizations, more research must closely examine what leaders think and do to shape these behaviors in schools.

While the literature examining leadership and collective efficacy is predominantly composed of quantitative studies, Versland and Erickson (2017) conducted a case study of a Montana middle school. Using interviews, focus groups, and document reviews findings supported previous research that teacher collaboration was a predictor of collective efficacy and student achievement. This qualitative research study interrogated relationships between teacher collaboration, collective efficacy, and student achievement. So too, findings from this study also emphasized the importance of principals leading by example as contributing to increased teachers' perceptions of collective efficacy. It is important to note that both teacher collaboration and leaders modeling the behaviors they seek from teachers, were reflective of vicarious experiences, one of the four main sources of efficacy.

Summary and Collective Efficacy: Research Gap

This literature review supports a relationship between the four primary influencers of collective efficacy (mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal/social persuasion, affective states) with leadership practices, increased teacher collaboration, and teacher leadership. While a solid research base exists that establishes the benefits of collective efficacy, Dussault et al. (2008) observed that research has provided little information about the antecedents of collective efficacy. Relatedly, Goddard et al. (2004) critiqued that out of the four primary sources of collective efficacy, limited research explored the impact of the affective states of organizations on the collective efficacy beliefs of teachers. Thus, limited research and literature has elucidated the practices within schools that lead to increased perceptions of collective efficacy as well as the sources that shape these perceptions.

Therefore, in this research I sought to better understand how the leadership practices, what leaders think and do, might shape the sources of collective efficacy within the studied district. These research efforts were supported by researchers who recommended the further

exploration of principals' actions or practices that promote teachers' collective efficacy (Goddard et al., 2015; Derrington & Angelle, 2013; Versland & Erickson, 2017). In summary, current collective efficacy research has been described to be in "its infant stages," with scholars recommending further exploration of causes and effects of collective teacher efficacy (Goddard & Skrla, 2006). As a result, this study intended to contribute to the research by exploring the sources of collective efficacy, specifically by focusing on leadership practices and the integration of SEL competencies.

Methods

My individual study was part of a larger qualitative case study that examined how leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies or promoted SEL opportunities shaped schools. Specifically, my study explored the extent to which school-based leadership practices modeled social and emotional competencies and whether these identified leadership practices shaped the sources of collective efficacy. The following two questions guided this research: (1) What school-based leadership practices, if any, modeled social and emotional learning competencies? and (2) How did these school-based leadership practices shape the sources of collective efficacy? A full discussion of the larger study's design and shared interview protocol can be found in Chapter 2 and Appendix A. The following sections describe my data collection and data analysis.

Data Collection

I collected data through semi-structured, face-to-face interviews with school-based leaders and school-based staff as well as through the observations of six school-based meetings. Additionally, a majority of interview participants completed a short questionnaire. Table 3.2 summarizes my data collection methods in relation to each of my research questions.

Table 3.2

Methods to Explore Research Questions #1 and #2

Method	Data Group	Frequency	Additional Details
Semi-Structured Interviews	School-Based Leaders	9	15 total questions; 45 minutes each
	School-Based Staff	30	15 total questions; 45 minutes each
Observations	School-Based Leaders and School-Based Staff	6	40 minutes for each team meeting observation
Questionnaire	School-Based Leaders	8	25 total questions
	School-Based Staff	26	

Semi-structured interviews. In addition to the overarching research questions, I asked interview questions specifically related to the sources of collective efficacy including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion and affective states (See Appendix B). Our research team conducted semi-structured interviews at each of the six schools in pairs to ensure reliability (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Moreover, interviews took place in private locations, and I provided all participants with a unique identification number to ensure confidentiality. The table below shows an overview of the interview participants.

Table 3.3

Interview Participants by School Level and Role

Data Group	Role	Elementary School (ES) Participants	Middle School (MS) Participants
School-Based Leaders	Principals	4	2
	Assistant Principals	1	1
	Instructional Coach	1	0

	<i>Total</i>	6	3
School-Based Staff	Staff Teachers	12	6
	Mental Health Staff	8	4
	<i>Total</i>	20	10

**Mental Health Staff (MHS) included the following roles: social workers, guidance counselors, nurse, Board Certified Behavior Analyst (BCBA)

Questionnaire. At the conclusion of the semi-structured interviews for school-based staff and school-based leaders, participants completed a 25-item questionnaire. This questionnaire, which took about 5-7 minutes to complete, included questions focused on the themes of collaboration, perceptions of collective efficacy, and staff resilience and well-being.

Observations. I collaboratively engaged in six observations of team meetings with one member of our research team. I conducted approximately 40-minute observations at each of the four elementary schools and two middle schools at the focus of this case study. For each elementary school, the observations focused on an “Assessment Collaboration Evidence” (ACE) meeting, a new collaborative structure in the district, intended to provide grade level teams and school leaders weekly time to focus on data. For each of the middle schools, observations took place during “Learning Community” meetings, which were interdisciplinary team meetings. Observation data focused on the identification of leadership practices, whether observed practices modeled SEL competencies and how these practices may relate to the sources of collective efficacy.

Data Analysis

Data Analysis began in September of 2019 and finished in December of 2019. In order to ensure validity, I collected and analyzed data in a research partnership with Mark Ito, one of my team members (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I organized and synthesized the data gathered from

the interviews, observations and questionnaire items to identify themes, look for patterns, discover relationships, and make interpretations of the data in order to develop a coding system as a means of analysis (Saldaña, 2016). I engaged in multiple rounds of coding with the goal of fully understanding and making sense of the data. This process reflected Saldaña (2016) who asserted that engaging in multiple rounds of coding “further manages, filters, highlights, focuses the salient features of the qualitative data” (p. 8). The first cycle focused on coding the interview transcriptions with *a priori* and additional codes that emerged. Second cycle coding established broader categories and themes. Lastly, third cycle coding employed further synthesis of themes with triangulation of all three data sources: interviews, observations, and questionnaire. Below I describe each cycle in further detail.

Cycle 1 Coding. My research team and I transcribed all semi-structured interviews, uploaded transcriptions to the *Dedoose* application, and organized these by participant and school identification numbers. In order to answer research question #1 (RQ1), I read through interview transcriptions, selected, and coded excerpts that represented leadership practices (e.g. codes “leaders do,” “leaders think”). Additionally, I coded excerpts to *a priori* codes focused on SEL competencies, SEL skills and/or other additional codes created in our coding manual. Please see Appendix C for the coding manual used. Specifically, I focused on identifying leadership practices that modeled the SEL competencies (i.e. social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making) in the context of adult interactions as opposed to SEL competencies (i.e. self-awareness and self-management) that focused more on attributes specific to an individual. As a result, during this first cycle coding, I recognized that the *a priori* codes of self-awareness (SA) and self-management (SM) were not frequently coded. It follows then that social awareness (SA), relationship skills (RS) and responsible decision-making (RDM) became the identified codes related to SEL competencies used within our research. Furthermore, in order

to answer research question #2 (RQ2), I also coded, when applicable, each leadership practice excerpt to my individual focus area including the sources of collective efficacy (CE) which included mastery experiences (ME), vicarious experiences (VE), social/verbal persuasion (SP), and affective states (AS).

Cycle 2 Coding. In the *Dedoose Analyze* tab, I reviewed *Code Chart* options, and selected the *Code Co-Occurrence* chart, to find the highest frequency of two intersecting codes (e.g. “relationship skills” and “leaders do”). In order to further analyze research question #1, I focused on the highest numbers found at the intersecting points of coded leadership practices (what leaders do) and SEL skills within each competency (e.g. “communicates clearly” within “relationship skills”). I then engaged in the same process for RQ2, using the categories of what leaders do and each of the four sources of collective efficacy. After that, I exported excerpts from our interview transcripts that represented these most frequently coded SEL skills and most frequently coded sources of collective efficacy. After exporting the highest occurring excerpts using Microsoft Excel, I organized the excerpts under separate tabs by the competency and skills as reflected by the table below:

Table 3.4

Most Frequently Coded SEL Skills

SEL Competency	SEL Skill
Social Awareness	Respects others Recognizes resources and supports
Relationship Skills	Works cooperatively with others Communicates clearly Collaborates with team members Seeks and offers support
Responsible Decision Making	Analyzes situations accurately Evaluates consequences in consideration of the well-being of others

After the exportation process, to better understand the coded leadership actions, I then read each of the excerpts and identified who displayed or demonstrated the action (e.g. School-based Leaders (SBL) or School-based Staff (SBS)). I also identified the excerpts by themes (e.g. “SBL Individual Praise,” “SBS Sharing Expertise”). After identifying these themes, I reviewed the excerpts to establish definitions related to specific leadership practices. Four general themes emerged to represent the most prominent leadership practices that modeled the SEL competencies and skills.

These four leadership practices included: a) leaders encouraged and provided opportunities for professional development; b) leaders provided opportunities for feedback and praise; c) leaders provided opportunities for collaboration with coaches; and d) leaders recognized the importance of collaborative time. As a result, this cycle 2 coding process confirmed that leadership practices in our district did model SEL competencies (RQ1). I then applied these four leadership practices to the four sources of collective efficacy to determine how the practices shaped the sources of collective efficacy (RQ2).

Cycle 3 Coding. During this third cycle, I further analyzed interview data to revise the themes I had identified through the analysis. To do so, I also reviewed and analyzed observations and questionnaire data as a means for triangulating interview data and strengthening the internal validity of the identified leadership practices (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Lastly, as part of the data analysis, we engaged school-based leaders in “member checks” with some of our initial findings, as a means to avoid misinterpreting the meaning of participants’ responses (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Semi-structured Interviews. I then worked to understand the relationship between the four identified leadership practices with the SEL competencies they modeled. During this process, I recognized a connection existed between the identified practices and overall theme of adult

learning. I also revisited the themed excerpts from interviews and realized a progression of the leadership practices and the SEL competencies of social awareness, relationship skills and responsible decision making leading to changes of practices and beliefs. As a result, I decided to separate out the four leadership practices into six in order to more accurately map them to the SEL competencies that were determined in the previous coding cycles. These new practices included: meeting time, professional development, positive praise, feedback, coaching, and sharing expertise.

Questionnaire Analysis. I analyzed the data from the questionnaire (See Appendices E & F) to learn more about the perceptions about collaboration and collective efficacy of the two different participant groups at the focus of this case study: school-based staff and school-based leaders. I engaged in an analysis of questionnaire responses to support, extend, or potentially contrast the data analyzed from interviews and observations. I also analyzed individual items of the questionnaire to determine any patterns related to the perceptions of school-based staff compared to school-based leaders. Using the *Qualtrics* application, I exported questionnaire responses from both School-based Staff and School-based Leaders. I then quantified the number of participants in each category by grouping the answers by “Strongly Agreed/Agreed”, “Somewhat Agreed”, “Neither Agreed or Disagreed”, “Somewhat Disagreed”, and “Strongly Disagreed/Disagreed”. After that, I determined the percentages of each of the responses and analyzed the data to identify key takeaways related to the similarities and differences of school-based staff and school-based leaders.

Observation Analysis. After each observation, my team member and I completed an analytic memorandum summarizing our key takeaways from the observation and recorded these memoranda on the transcriptions. Using *Dedoose*, I analyzed data from the observations by using the coding manual from the semi-structured interviews (see Appendix C), which we developed in

coding cycle 1. I then used *Dedoose* application to assess the most frequent SEL competencies modeled during the observations. Specific to the observation data, the “responsible decision making” and “non-SEL” codes were most frequent, but further analysis revealed significant disparities between each of the six observations. As a result, I revisited the observation transcriptions and analytic memoranda to analyze the transcripts looking for additional patterns and themes. During this further analysis, in relation to the six identified leadership practices, some inconsistencies emerged between the perceptions of leaders and staff within each school.

Findings

The first section describes the identified school-based leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies (RQ1). I review each of the six identified leadership practices by specifically naming which SEL competencies and skills the practice modeled as well as providing evidence from observations, interviews and questionnaire data. It is important to note that through the data analysis processes, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision making emerged as the most frequently modeled CASEL competencies.

The second section explores how the identified leadership practices shaped the four sources of collective efficacy, including vicarious experiences, verbal/social persuasion, affective states and mastery experiences (RQ2). In this section, I examine each of the four sources by highlighting which leadership practices contributed to the staff’s opportunities to feel something they did worked (mastery experience); see or hear someone else have a successful experience (vicarious experience); receive feedback from someone else (verbal/social persuasion); or when others acted to make them feel a certain way (affective states). Throughout this section, I integrate excerpts from semi-structured interviews, takeaways from meeting observations, and when applicable, questionnaire data from both school-based staff and leaders.

School-based Leadership Practices that Modeled SEL Competencies

The first research question (RQ1) sought an identification of leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies. Through extensive analytical approaches to the data, I identified leadership practices from the coding and analysis of interview responses, questionnaire results, and observations of school-based staff and school leaders. In response to RQ1, I found evidence supporting six leadership practices (See Table 3.5). Furthermore, I explain which SEL competencies and skills each leadership practice modeled by providing specific examples of data throughout this section. As evidenced by Table 3.5, when synthesizing the data, I purposely chose to align one SEL competency that each leadership practice most accurately modeled.

Table 3.5

Leadership Practices Modeling SEL Competencies

Leadership Practices	Definitions	Modeled SEL Competencies
Meeting Time	Leaders provided opportunities (time) for staff to meet	Social Awareness
Professional Development (PD)	Leaders provided opportunities (time and resources) for staff to attend trainings, workshops, conferences	Social Awareness
Positive Praise	Leaders noticed/recognized positive practices of staff	Relationship Skills
Feedback	Leaders engaged in dialogue about practices of staff	Relationship Skills
Coaching	Leaders interacted with staff to support their practices	Relationship Skills
Sharing Expertise	Staff interacted to change of practices and beliefs	Responsible Decision Making

Meeting Time

Throughout the semi-structured interviews, I learned of various different meeting structures that staff engaged in both during the school day and after school. This identified leadership practice focused on leaders providing scheduled time for staff to meet. The provision of time modeled the social awareness SEL competency by recognizing that staff interacting collaboratively was a resource to support their work. Additionally, this leadership practice modeled an understanding that time, across different schools, was utilized, to improve instructional practices. As an example, one school leader stated, “we did a real work over of our schedule to allow for weekly grade level progress monitoring meetings.” Furthermore, when asked how leaders supported their work, one staff member reflected, “I think helping to facilitate time to meet, so providing coverage. Not letting a lot of conversations happen in silos or isolation and helping facilitate those conversations.” In each of these illustrations, leaders showed an awareness of, and a responsibility for, establishing and protecting opportunities for collaborative time.

In relation to this collaborative time, during semi-structured interviews, staff frequently referenced a number of different weekly and monthly meetings that leaders scheduled. The table below summarizes the different meeting types.

Table 3.6

Required and Scheduled Meetings of Westlake Public Schools (WPS)

Type	Frequency	Focus
Middle Schools (Grades 6-8)		
Learning Community	1x/4 days; during school	Interdisciplinary Team
Faculty	1x/month; after school	Schoolwide
District Department	1x/month; after school	Curriculum
Department	1x/4 days; during school	Curriculum (staff only)

Professional Learning Community	1x/month; after school	Goal development (staff only)
Elementary Schools (Grades K-5)		
Assessment Collaboration Evidence (ACE)	1x/week; during school	Data
Faculty	1x/month; after school	Schoolwide
District Grade Level	1x/month; after school	Districtwide
Common Planning Time	1x/month; after school	Grade-level (staff only)

As seen in Table 3.6, both elementary and middle school staff engaged in various structures of scheduled time to meet and these meetings did, or did not, involve school-based leaders. It is important to note that in WPS, I learned of different leadership expectations for the collaborative time of middle school and elementary staff. Specifically, elementary schools engaged in early release days every Tuesday afternoon in which they rotated between school-based faculty meetings, common planning time meetings, or district grade level team meetings for approximately 1.5 hours each week. Furthermore, the “Assessment Collaboration Evidence” (ACE) meetings were a newly implemented structure for all elementary schools across the district. These weekly, grade-level team meetings averaged approximately 40 minutes, were facilitated by the principal, and were intended to have a data focus. Conversely, middle school staff engaged in two different weekly team meetings (45 minutes each) that were facilitated by teachers. These meetings included “Learning Community” (interdisciplinary by grade level) and weekly department meetings (i.e. ELA department); middle school staff also engaged in monthly (60 minutes each) after school meetings.

While this leadership practice focused on time as a resource, during semi-structured interviews, a few (less than five) staff specifically mentioned how these various meeting types positively shaped their work. Nonetheless, a majority of leaders (5 out of 8) “strongly agreed” or “agreed” that staff were committed to collaborative time. Interestingly, only some leaders (2 out of 8) and staff (11 out of 26) “agreed/strongly agreed” that school staff effectively used their

meeting time. One school leader shared, “I personally feel I need to better support teams to be collaborative and understand best practices, and ways to use this time with their teams for it to be productive.” Interestingly, when asked to “describe what leaders (i.e. teachers or administrators) do in meetings,” elementary participants focused more on the coaches’ and principals’ roles during meetings. Conversely, when middle school staff discussed meetings, they focused on their colleagues’ shared facilitation responsibilities such as “getting through the agenda items.” Relatedly, across the four elementary team meeting observations, the principal was the main facilitator and driver of the agenda, yet coaches were not present. During the two middle school observations, the teachers facilitated and created the agenda while an administrator was present as a listener or “presented updates” at the end of the meeting.

In summary, I found that these data sources illustrated that time is scheduled and provided but not consistently purposeful and also differs across the elementary and middle schools. Ultimately, leaders modeled the social awareness SEL competency by establishing the structures that allow for collaboration and sharing, however, the data identified opportunities for improvement.

Professional development (PD)

A second identified leadership practice, when leaders provided PD opportunities for staff, also modeled the social awareness SEL competency. In the context of this study, I framed PD opportunities as those that allowed staff to attend training, workshops, and conferences. This leadership practice modeled the social awareness competency when leaders utilized the resources of time and money to support staff’s development. More specifically, leaders recognized a need for outside expertise to support staff growth and provided funding for these opportunities. Leaders also modeled social awareness when they increased staff’s access to, and awareness of, these PD opportunities and actively encouraged participation.

Many (more than 50%) of school-based staff highlighted opportunities to participate in out-of-district PD as a way that leaders showed support for their work and encouraged growth. During interviews, staff explained that leaders supported their growth when they were sent to training, allowed to go to conferences, or attended summer courses. Across the six schools, staff highlighted opportunities in which they asked their leaders to attend PD opportunities focused on various topics including instructional pedagogies, content-specific conferences or SEL-focused training. Moreover, a number of staff expressed that their leaders most often supported this PD through “sending out emails about attending workshops,” “providing funding,” or “arranging substitute coverage when needed.” These emails referenced specific workshops and were often sent to the whole school and at times, specific individual teachers. Despite the strong evidence of resource allocation to support out-of-district PD, only one (of a total of 30 interviews) school-based staff stated that these PD opportunities were the major impetus that drove them to change their practice. Furthermore, while some staff recalled having opportunities to “do a very introductory presentation” or “mention or share their learning,” limited data focused on the ways in which PD shaped further collaboration with colleagues.

So, many staff had opportunities to attend PD, but they did not yet identify these opportunities as pivotal to changing practice and limited evidence supported that staff shared learning from these PD opportunities. It is for these reasons that this leadership practice only modeled social awareness, as opposed to relationship skills and responsible decision-making competencies. Leaders allocated resources to support opportunities, but interview data did not support the positive impact of this practice on individual growth or collective learning. Staff frequently discussed that leaders were willing to send them to external PD but only a few staff discussed how the specific learning led them to change their practice (i.e. a trauma course at a local university). Conversely, when asked “what drives you to change your practice?” staff most

frequently pointed to informal collaboration and discussions with colleagues. Moreover, this finding was significant due to the fact that over the past five years, the district has averaged spending nearly \$500,000 each year on PD (WPS Report to Town Meeting & Fiscal Year 2020 Budget Summary, p. 30). I further explore these data in the implications and recommendations sections of this study.

Positive Praise

Evidence collected from interviews showed that WPS leaders provided praise when they noticed and recognized positive practices of staff. This leadership practice modeled the relationship skills competency by leaders understanding that the recognition of others' successes supported and maintained positive relationships. By extension, providing praise modeled the relationship skill of communicating clearly by sharing positive information in understandable ways. As the following examples demonstrate, staff viewed provision of positive praise as effective communication that supported their work.

Praise that effectively modeled the relationship skills SEL competency included various forms of noticing, acknowledging, appreciating, and recognizing staff's work. Almost half of the staff (13/30) identified praise as a means for contributing to their success including "acknowledging people for things that happened or good things they saw" or "acknowledging small wins" such as specific student growths. This recognition extended beyond formal feedback from classroom observations and could include "simply noticing." As an illustration, one staff member articulated, "just praising us once in a while, giving some positive praise and saying, 'I saw you doing that', it just makes you really feel validated that you knew you were doing the right thing, but someone else noticed it." These data showed that staff valued praise from leaders as effective communication about instruction, effort, or student successes.

In addition to individual praise to staff, most (6 of 9) of the school leaders discussed the importance of publicly and positively providing praise to the collective staff during whole staff and team meetings. Supporting this finding, one staff member acknowledged that “I feel like they'll often compliment the work that we are doing,...kind of helping us to acknowledge the fact that we are putting in a lot of work as a collective team.” Relatedly, during semi-structured interviews, most (7 out of 9) school-based leaders highlighted praise as an important way in which they contributed to staff's success. These included “noticing and citing specifics” or “celebrating successes.” Although a majority of leaders expressed that praise supported their staff's success, during the six observations, only one WPS school-based leader provided specific praise when they let one teacher know “that's a great idea.” This finding shows an interesting distinction between leaders' spoken values, specifically related to praise and staff's feelings of success, and how these practices may or may not be seen in action. Additionally, this finding presents an opportunity for further connections to the sources of collective efficacy, which I discuss in the second section of these findings.

Feedback

Similar to positive praise, the practice of providing feedback to staff also modeled the relationship skills SEL competency. By engaging in dialogue with staff and providing clear communication about practices, leaders modeled the importance of giving individualized attention to the person and what they did. This leadership practice of providing feedback, both formal (i.e. evaluative) and informal, also valued supporting others through collaborative conversations and listening opportunities.

Evidence collected showed that some (10/30) school-based staff pointed to feedback as the primary way in which leaders contributed to their success, such as “hearing feedback victories is really helpful” or “coming in [to my classroom] and providing feedback.” So too, one

staff member provided a specific example of a school leader effectively communicating by "initiating a conversation about something that she had found in my classroom." While some staff expressed that feedback was important to their success, others expressed an eagerness for more clear and explicit feedback about their practice. As an illustration, one staff member stated, "everyone else just says you're doing a great job, which is not all that helpful when you want to know how you can improve." Similarly, another staff member added that although she appreciated positive comments, "it doesn't cause me to stop and reflect." These examples showed that having conversations about practice matters to staff. Additionally, these examples demonstrated a distinction between providing praise, engaging in dialogue about practice to support improvement, and guiding critical self-reflection.

In addition to interview responses, data gathered during observations, did not support a strong presence of feedback during meetings. Only one of the six meetings provided evidence of a school-based leader engaging in feedback with a staff member. During the observed meeting, when a grade-level team was looking at student work, the leader stated "so, it's clear that when you did that lesson and that impact was there, and that's what we were talking about, we want to see that progression." As a result, the staff member noticeably showed a positive reaction about receiving this public feedback about her practice. While this example does not represent a high frequency of findings that point to specific, actionable feedback, the interaction provided a strong glimpse into why feedback that modeled the relationship skills competency can effectively support the work in schools.

Relatedly, based on interview responses from thirty school-based staff, including both mental health staff and teachers, collaborating with colleagues was frequently identified as a primary driver for changing practice, yet few staff members received feedback from these colleagues. These data show that staff often turn to their colleagues for advice on their practices

and do not necessarily rely on formal feedback structures from their administrators as levers for change. This finding highlighted that while evidence supported that leaders provided feedback, increased opportunities for staff to give and receive peer feedback can potentially provide more positive change in practices.

Coaching

In addition to formal leaders delivering praise and feedback, findings also highlighted coaching as a leadership practice that modeled the relationship skills SEL competency. Coaching and interacting with staff provided evidence of formal and informal leaders communicating clearly with staff by talking about pedagogical practices in understandable ways. It is important to note that in WPS, coaches were school-based staff that were shared across various schools. Additionally, coaches collaborated with staff when they worked inclusively in their classrooms to model lessons or when they assisted the planning of lessons. Each of these actions reflected coaches interacting with staff in purposeful and empathetic ways that supported them and their work. Specifically, staff highlighted the trusting relationships that coaches built such as asking them to “grab a cup of coffee” to learn more about how she could provide better support.

Staff expressed appreciation when leaders modeled this SEL competency by supporting their practices. Examples of these interactions included when coaches modeled “doing lessons with her” or simply “coming in and offering us support.” Observation data also illustrated staff appreciation for coaches interacting with them and modeling instructional practices. For instance, when conversing about shared literacy practices across grades, one teacher explained, “I feel like it was really helpful to actually watch her do it [the lesson] in your room, to do it with the group of kids.” By extension, staff also expressed the benefits of coaches interacting with them during meeting times. One staff member expressed, “they [coaches] met with us during common time to figure out how to support the kids doing RTI [Response to Intervention].” This

example demonstrated how coaching opportunities during collaborative time utilized student data to support staff and students. These examples highlight a relationship between coaching opportunities, change of practices, and the sources of collective efficacy, specifically vicarious experiences and social persuasion, which will be explored in more detail in the next section.

In addition to the data gathered from semi-structured interviews, observations also integrated evidence of coaching. During three of the six observations, leaders engaged in coaching or discussed further opportunities for coaching with staff about their practices. When formal leaders, instructional coaches, or peer mentors interacted with staff in order to support their practices, they communicated clearly. For instance, when collaborating with a content coach, one staff member remarked, “she's been really great at pulling in our ideas, and then relaying them back to us in a way that we can make some forward motion.” In a meeting observation, one school leader and staff worked in partnerships to co-administer a new assessment with individual students. The meeting also provided opportunities for staff to collaboratively reflect and compare their assessment data to improve their practices. Each of these examples demonstrated how coaching interactions can shape staff practices with the ultimate goal of positively impacting student learning and teacher change.

Despite evidence of positive support for coaching interactions across various schools, findings also suggested opportunities to improve the clarity and coherence of coaching. During one observation, a school leader asked the grade level team:

I wonder if we think about next steps to using this time . . . we have our coaches and maybe then we loop them into this conversation a little bit and share some of what you've been doing in order to make sure that they can have that input.

This excerpt reveals a leader's reflection that coaches are not consistently involved in the discussions during weekly team meetings. At a different school, one coach articulated that “If I have a relationship with all those teachers, then how can we make that [collaboration] the most effective time?” By extension, one elementary staff stated “So I think that we actually get to

spend a lot of time with those coaches, more so than other schools, you know, based on him [the principal] really trying to foster that relationship with us and it's not required.” Each of these excerpts from various stakeholders including a teacher, coach, and school leader demonstrated perceptions about how coaching opportunities are utilized or could be improved.

Sharing expertise

This final identified leadership practice demonstrated evidence of staff interacting with each other to change practices and beliefs. When staff shared expertise, they modeled the responsible decision-making competency through a focus on people-oriented outcomes and positively impacting others. Furthermore, when staff discussed ways in which they supported their colleagues' work, they effectively modeled making “constructive choices about their personal behavior and social interactions” (CASEL, 2017). The opportunities for staff to interact identified a focus on developing relationships and concern for the well-being of others through the sharing of resources, ideas, listening, and supporting. As aforementioned, some staff referenced opportunities during whole staff meetings for quick share outs of their learning from external PD. This leadership practice, however, focused specifically on staff sharing expertise during both formal and informal opportunities that led to changes in practice or positive feelings of support.

One staff member illustrated the positive impact of sharing expertise by explaining, “there's plenty of things that I've gotten from my colleagues over the years that I don't know if I could accomplish on my own and we're trying to constantly improve and give our kids the best of everything.” This showed how a colleague's support of her practices has felt efficacious with the overarching goal of helping students. Moreover, from the data collected during semi-structured interviews, some (over one third) of staff referenced an opportunity in which school-based staff shared expertise. This included seeking “advice about specific students” or engaging

in informal dialogue with various staff members including grade level peers, mentors, mental health staff (MHS), or special education teachers. Additionally, staff expressed the pedagogical and student learning benefits of “sharing resources with grade level team colleagues” and “sharing lessons or student-focused strategies (i.e. annotation).” In these examples, staff discussed and valued the support they received from colleagues as opposed to their formal leaders.

Furthermore, one staff member highlighted the importance of talking with colleagues when feeling frustrated or unsure how to get better. Another teacher stated that she appreciated “when someone says this doesn’t work” so that they can work together collectively to make adjustments to better support their work. Relatedly, a MHS in reference to student support, concluded that:

I think sometimes they don't know that they have the skill set to be able to do it. So the dialogue is kind of valuable, and being able to say like, “well, have you thought about this? Or what are your thoughts? Or tell me what you're doing? Tell me what works.” And then it gets people thinking about what they can do themselves.

This excerpt and previous examples highlight that staff valued the knowledge of colleagues to change their practices in order to improve educational outcomes.

Despite these findings from the interviews, inconsistencies existed across schools in how staff and leaders perceived the sharing of expertise during collaborative time. Half of school-based staff (50%) agreed that staff shared their expertise during collaborative time, but a significant subset (39%) only somewhat agreed. Additionally, only some school-based leaders (2/8) agreed or strongly agreed that teachers shared their expertise during collaborative time. The observations data also confirmed inconsistencies with only three of the six observations showing some evidence of staff sharing expertise to support change of practice or beliefs. Nonetheless, the findings support staff valued the opportunities to interact with and to learn from colleagues.

This will be further addressed in the next section which assesses how the leadership practices relate to collective efficacy sources.

Leadership Practices and Collective Efficacy

The second research question (RQ2) sought to explore how the aforementioned leadership practices shaped the sources of collective efficacy which include mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social/verbal persuasion, and affective states. As a reminder, vicarious experiences occurred when staff saw or heard someone else have a successful experience; social/verbal persuasion opportunities happened when staff received feedback from someone else; affective states took place when others (colleagues or leaders) acted to make staff feel a certain way; and mastery experiences could be observed when staff felt something they did worked.

In this section, I review the ways in which the leadership practices – meeting time, PD, positive praise, coaching, feedback, and sharing expertise – shaped, or did not shape, the collective efficacy sources. As previously stated, in the context of education, collective efficacy refers to whether teachers believe in the ability and capacity of their colleagues to support the achievement of all students. First, I connect the most frequently coded source of collective efficacy, vicarious experiences, with the leadership practices of sharing expertise and coaching. Next, I show how feedback, coaching and sharing expertise shaped opportunities for social persuasion. Third, I link praise and feedback with the efficacy source of affective states. Lastly, I assess mastery experiences, as the least frequently found source of collective efficacy.

Vicarious Experiences

When staff engaged in coaching and sharing expertise opportunities, they also frequently participated in vicarious learning experiences. Across all six schools, the leadership practice of staff sharing expertise through classroom visits and observations emerged as a common theme.

Leaders referenced various structures for sharing learning such as creating a “what do you want to see project,” posting staff schedules online to allow for self-identified pedagogical strengths and times when others can observe, publicly posting a board with staff strengths, and utilizing different frameworks for learning walks. Despite the fact that all leaders identified these different structures for sharing expertise, few school-based staff mentioned these specific practices during interviews. This finding may not reflect a refusal of staff to actively participate in these structures designed to encourage classroom visits. Alternatively, limited data may have been related to leader-identified barriers such as time constraints and adequate substitute coverage available. Moreover, during observations of team meetings at each of the six schools, only one observation provided evidence for staff to share learning or visit colleagues.

In addition to peer observations, the leadership practices of providing meeting time and coaching also shaped the vicarious experiences of educators in schools. One instructional coach, who works primarily with one elementary school, stated that:

I see learning as a collaborative process. I'll say you need to go and watch this teacher because she's doing an amazing job. And then I'll try to go in with them and sort of say, now pay attention to what you see and what you hear and, you know, what could you take back to your classroom?

This excerpt was a strong example of how collaborative time, through collegial visits and coaching, can effectively scaffold teachers' opportunities to see their peers' successful classroom experiences, reflect on what they see, and adjust their own practice. Further evidence confirmed how coaching and sharing expertise can support vicarious learning opportunities. One staff member confirmed, “to be able to see it in action, to be able to take notes, to be able to ask questions as it's happening in real time makes a real difference.” Similarly, another staff member shared that “it's really helpful when you can have like a back seat and watch somebody else teach.” These reflections from different WPS schools demonstrated evidence of how vicarious experiences strongly align with the changing of practices.

While interview participants recognized the importance of staff sharing practices and references different structures that allow these opportunities to occur, they acknowledged implementation barriers. These barriers included both time and having adequate substitute coverage available. One elementary leader summarized some of these challenges when she stated that “if we are going to put time and energy into making sure that peer observation happens, then we also need to have time to talk about that, and what we learned from that.” Similarly, another school leader emphasized, “we’ve had success with peer observation, but we’re not systemic, it’s not embedded in the culture of what we do, but we keep it on the radar and we’ll support it whenever it becomes an opportunity with professional development.” These excerpts showed that leaders valued vicarious learning opportunities but were still working to create the conditions and culture in which these opportunities happen and lead to further collegial discussions and collaboration.

Social/Verbal Persuasion

Data confirmed that feedback, praise and coaching shaped the social/verbal persuasion opportunities of staff. Throughout the semi-structured interviews, both leaders and staff discussed how the leadership practices of feedback, coaching, and sharing expertise shaped their reflections and practices. When asked the question, “what drives you to change your practice?”, the most frequent response centered around colleagues. For instance, one staff member reflected that “I definitely learn a lot from them [my colleagues], and it makes me think differently sometimes about how I did things and willing to try it a different way, which is great.” Similarly, a teacher referenced the impact of dialogue with a colleague when she explained that “she would give me her perspective, and it may have me look at things a little differently. So I might change my practice with that child, or with the class in general based on that conversation.” This

example highlighted how collegial relationships allowed for social persuasion opportunities that, in turn, lead to changes in practices.

In addition to staff sharing expertise to support social/verbal persuasion, coaching and feedback opportunities also shaped this source of collective efficacy. One staff member explained that “I work a lot with those coaches, I think their feedback means a lot to me and so that would drive me to change some things up a little bit because I would trust their opinion about things.” By extension, another staff shared, “receiving the feedback [from coaches] and saying [things] like, “This isn't working”” supported a change in practice.

Although the data I collected highlighted social persuasion opportunities with colleagues and coaches as the most frequent, staff also expressed that the formal and informal feedback they received from leaders also shaped their reflections and change of practices. Relatedly, when referencing the importance of clarity when providing feedback, one school leader stated “When they have that [feedback], and they do improve, and they feel really successful. [They can say,] I got this feedback, I did this thing, and look how great it is now, so that feels good.” This example provided a connection between social persuasion and affective states, which I discuss next.

Affective States

Within this case study district, I found that the leadership practices of feedback and praise shaped the affective states of school-based staff. Many staff (more than 75%) reported how noticing leads to positive feelings such as “feeling validation or feeling seen” and “feeling positive after feedback.” One school-based staff articulated that “it feels good to have someone notice concretely and it helps me be mindful of that and repeat it.” Interestingly, most of the data collected that shaped the affective states of staff reflected direct communication from the school-based leaders. As an illustration, one school-based staff stated, “I think they recognize what you do well and are verbal about that and tell you. I think their clarity is very important and that they

are clear about what the expectations are of you.” This excerpt supported the integration of the SEL skill of communicating clearly with affective states and change of practice.

Staff also discussed how the leadership practice of feedback shaped their feelings both positively and negatively. One staff member mentioned, “I usually feel [positive] after receiving the feedback because she comes at most conversations from a perspective of strength” while another acknowledged, “depending on if it's positive or negative, I might feel good, or I might feel like, oh, I wish I'd done that differently.” Additionally, school-based staff specifically mentioned how the feedback of coaches and/or formal leaders shaped their affective states by supporting their practices. For instance, one teacher named, “so that [coming into my classroom] really had a good feeling and I feel like I still can go ask her for advice.” Similarly, one staff member articulated that “it always feels good when they've [leader] helped you through a tricky thing.” These examples provided clear connections between the practices of leaders and the actions, reflections, and emotions of staff. Lastly, one school-based staff highlighted they feel good when a school leader said, “we want other people to see what you're doing.” This example provided insight into how leaders can utilize vicarious experiences to shape both the changing of practices and the affective states of staff.

Mastery Experiences

Limited data emerged to support how leadership practices supported this final source of collective efficacy, mastery experiences, which occur when an individual self-recognizes something they did worked successfully. Nonetheless, one leadership practice that shaped the mastery experiences can be seen during meeting time. During one elementary team meeting observation, in which teachers looked at student work, a teacher commented “He’s [a student] someone who really made a lot of gains, a lot of gains. I think just having actual time to work on it too makes a huge difference.” This structured time in which staff and leaders looked at

qualitative data, created a “mastery moment.” Within the same meeting observation, another teacher stated, “almost all of my kids, I felt like have really strong leads, and those who didn't, I mean they were still different . . . So, they did make progress in some way with the leads, which I think is pretty awesome.” Within this example, I observed positive affective states from not only the teacher experiencing the mastery moment, but from her colleagues who also expressed both verbal and non-verbal praise and excitement. This showed that when staff and leaders collaboratively analyzed data, the practice shaped mastery experiences. Similarly, one staff member stated that data meetings are times when leaders can say “look at the progress these kids made and that's because of what you're doing in the classroom.” Relatedly, of the 39 interview participants, leaders or staff, few (less than three) mentioned data as a motivator for changing practice. While limited, opportunities for sharing expertise also can shape mastery experiences. For example, one staff member expressed,

I think the amount of responsibility that she [the school leader] puts on me to support teachers and students in different ways, I think that makes me feel successful because it tells me that she acknowledges that I'm capable of doing that and that I can do that well.

This example from a MHS provided evidence that supports how the feelings of responsibility of colleagues and leaders also relate to their feelings of mastery. Moreover, one school leader articulated the connection of mastery experiences to the leadership practice of feedback by proposing that “I think, knowing what success looks like is really important and maybe they [staff] don't always know. But I think you truly feel successful, when something has been a little bit difficult.” This final excerpt demonstrated the importance of leaders better understanding how what they do (their leadership practices) can shape the work of their staff, specifically related to the sources of collective efficacy.

Discussion

This study described the ways in which six leadership practices modeled the SEL competencies and how these practices shaped the sources of collective efficacy. The identified leadership practices included providing meeting time, using resources to support staff PD, providing positive praise, giving feedback, coaching, and sharing expertise. Through the analysis of the data, I found that these leadership practices most frequently modeled three SEL competencies: social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. Findings also exhibited that these identified leadership practices shaped the sources of collective efficacy through opportunities for vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and affective states. Furthermore, the data yielded that the leadership practices of social persuasion and vicarious experiences most frequently shaped the sources of collective efficacy, followed by affective states. Despite being the strongest source of collective efficacy, evidence of mastery experiences, however, were limited.

The following sections discuss the major implications of these findings on educational practices and further research. First, I discuss how leadership practices that modeled social awareness relate to resource allocation. Next, I discuss how positive praise and feedback shape staff, their relationships, and their work. Finally, I provide a rationale for how collegial learning most effectively modeled the responsible decision-making SEL competency in shaping the four sources of collective efficacy. Figure 3.2, an adjusted version of the conceptual framework that grounded this research (see figure 3.1), guides these “three levels of implications” of this study.

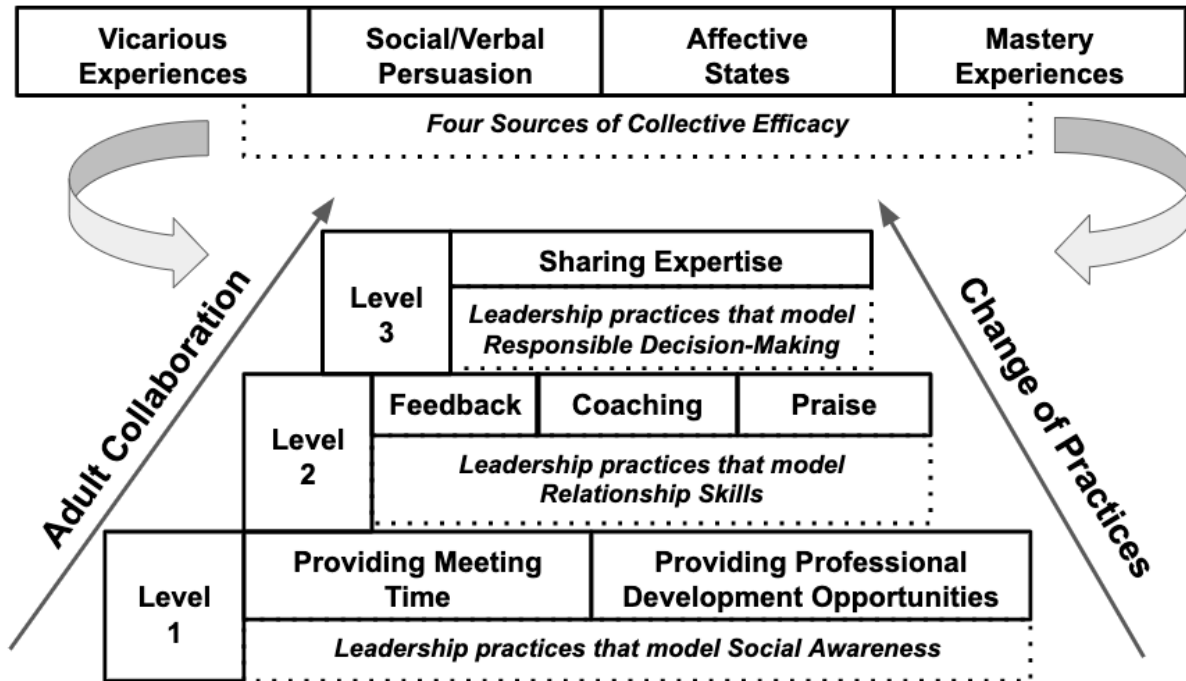


Figure 3.2: Adapted from Goddard et al., 2004; Forman et al., 2017; Donohoo & Hite, 2019

“Level 1” Leadership Practices: Allocating Resources and Social Awareness

When school leaders provided meeting time and PD opportunities for staff, they modeled the social awareness competency by understanding that resources and structures can be utilized to improve instructional practices. The social awareness leadership practices observed in this case study align with the assertion that leaders are responsible for how resources are identified, allocated, coordinated, and used (Spillane et al., 2004).

Leaders demonstrated a responsibility for establishing, protecting, and improving opportunities for collaborative time. This finding aligns with Forman et al. (2017) who discussed how leaders’ practices can shape the collaborative structures that support the learning of educators. Data gathered from questionnaires confirmed that both staff and leaders expressed a commitment to collaborative time. Throughout the data collection process, I learned of various structures in which WPS staff meet (see Table 3.6).

Specifically, evidence showed that elementary staff engaged in principal-led weekly meetings during the school day and also attended weekly after-school district grade level meetings, school-wide faculty meetings, or common planning time with colleagues. Furthermore, findings confirmed that middle school staff participated in weekly teacher-led department and grade-level meetings during the school day and attended monthly school-wide or district-wide meetings after school each month. These differences in how collaborative time is resourced as well as the distinction between administrator-led compared with teacher-led weekly meetings is interesting since research supports a relationship between teacher leadership, teacher collaboration, their collective efficacy beliefs, and ultimately student achievement (Goddard et al., 2004; Versland & Erickson, 2017).

Despite these formal structures for collaboration, a few (less than five) staff specifically mentioned how these various meeting types positively shaped their work. Additionally, less than half of staff and only one fourth of school leaders “agreed/strongly agreed” that school staff effectively use their meeting time. This finding is consistent with Donohoo (2017) who argued that simply providing time and having teams does not necessarily mean that collaboration will be effective. In this specific study, having time and meetings did *not* strongly shape the sources of efficacy or changes in practice, which are proven to relate to higher student achievement (Hattie, 2012; Goddard et al, 2004; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). This implication is important for leaders to acknowledge and better understand - intentionally utilizing collaborative structures and time as opportunities for vicarious learning experiences and social persuasion can support individual and collective practices.

It is important to note that one school leader recognized his role in supporting time to be more productive and collaborative with the goal of staff better understanding best practices. As an identified instructional leader, this principal’s reflection modeled an awareness and

responsibility for shaping the work of others. While limited, this important finding is consistent with Wahlstrom and Seashore Louis (2008) who maintained that “principals play an important role in allocating time for teachers to meet and for providing increased opportunities for job-embedded professional development (p. 463). Additionally, this reflection aligns with Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) who assert that leadership practices need to shift away from managing the specifics of collegial time to focusing more intentionally on what is happening during this time.

In addition to formal meeting time in the district, findings showed that leaders utilized additional resources to support staff’s PD, specifically by encouraging staff to attend out-of-district training and conferences. Leaders allocated resources; however, interview data did not support the positive impact of this practice on individual growth or collective learning. Staff did not identify PD as pivotal to changing practice and limited evidence supported purposeful and comprehensive shared learning from these “external” opportunities.

This finding relates to the research that supports a shift away from *professional development* through single workshops, conferences or external courses to *professional learning* with a greater emphasis on internal, collaborative learning opportunities (Forman et al., 2017; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Vicarious learning experiences and social persuasion opportunities are both examples of “internal collaborative opportunities.” Nonetheless, findings showed that these two sources of collective efficacy took place more frequently during staff informal collaboration as opposed to formalized meeting times and PD opportunities. Moreover, research supports the importance of both formal and informal collaborative time for staff to learn, interact, share knowledge, and change practices (Angelle & Teague, 2014; Guskey, 1996). This focus on using internal resources within our schools to support individual and collective improvement

leverages trusting relationships, something that money cannot buy, leaders cannot necessitate, and formal meeting structures cannot guarantee.

In summary, although these “level 1” leadership practices of providing meeting time and PD opportunities modeled the social awareness competency, findings of this study showed that they did not strongly shape the sources of collective efficacy.

“Level 2” Leadership Practices: Praise, feedback and relationship skills

The leadership practices of providing positive praise, feedback and coaching modeled the relationships skills SEL competency, positively shaped the work of the staff, and contributed to the sources of collective efficacy. Data from the study showed that leaders delivered positive praise to individuals and collective groups. Staff members viewed the provision of praise as effective communication that supported their work. More specifically, staff interview data confirmed the importance of how recognizing others’ successes can support and maintain positive relationships (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Additionally, evidence showed that staff appreciated when leaders “noticed their work” which directly shaped their affective states. Hence, the practice of providing praise contributed to teacher efficacy by emphasizing accomplishment (Ross & Gray, 2006). When leaders recognize individual successes, this practice can support an individual’s self-efficacy which can also lead to greater collective efficacy perceptions (Badura, 1993; Cansoy & Parlar, 2017). In sum, providing specific praise/recognition to individuals, teams, or whole staff can positively (or in absence, negatively) shape the perceptions of collective efficacy by allowing staff to learn and connect with others who are demonstrating success (vicarious experiences) as well as encouraging strong practitioners to recognize their own successes (mastery experiences).

While some staff explained that feedback was important to their success, others expressed an eagerness for more clear and explicit feedback about their practice that causes them

to stop and reflect. This finding corroborates the research of Ross and Gray (2006) who argued that giving frequent feedback is a “critical leadership task” that helps teachers “identify cause-effect relationships that link their actions to desired outcomes” (p. 193). Relatedly, a number of teachers, a coach, and one school leader coherently demonstrated perceptions that coaching opportunities are under-utilized and could be improved.

Although data collected showed that staff valued leaders’ praise and feedback, few staff members received feedback from their colleagues. As a result, fewer opportunities for feedback limited the opportunities for vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and affective states. The limited finding of collegial feedback in this study also relates to the work of Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) who explained, “individuals get confidence, learning, and feedback from having the right kinds of people and right kinds of interactions and relationships around them” (p. 4). Furthermore, the limited data supporting collegial feedback relates to the research of Goddard (2001) who discussed that more opportunities for staff to feel empowered to share collegial feedback (social persuasion opportunities through vicarious experiences) supported stronger perceptions of collective efficacy. This implies an understanding that while formal, evaluative feedback may continue to be inherently embedded in our educational system of accountability, when colleagues truly collaborate, they are focused on supporting each other and their work through trusting relationships.

In sum, staff appreciated praise, feedback and coaching from formal leaders, but data confirmed that staff more strongly valued the informal support from colleagues. This finding was consistent with the research that emphasized formal and informal social persuasion opportunities may involve feedback and praise from both supervisors and colleagues (Goddard et al., 2004).

“Level 3” Leadership Practice: Collegial learning and responsible decision-making

Within this case study, the leadership practice of sharing expertise occurred when staff interacted with others that led to changes of practices. Sharing expertise not only integrated the social awareness and relationship skills competencies, but also modeled responsible decision-making. When leaders and staff shared expertise, they shared responsibility and considered the well-being of others. Across all six schools, this leadership practice of staff sharing expertise emerged as a common theme.

Findings demonstrated that collaborating with colleagues was the primary driver for staff changing practice. Moreover, staff expressed that they learn a lot from their colleagues and that informal collegial discussions support their work. When teachers shared and discussed ideas or demonstrated effective practices for their colleagues, they did not rely on their formal school leader for feedback (Wahlstrom & Seashore Louis, 2008). One staff member illustrated that there are many things “they’ve gotten from colleagues that she couldn’t accomplish on her own.” This example parallels the findings of Minckler (2014) who also found that collaborative relationships have value to help the individual accomplish things he or she cannot do alone. As discussed in chapter one, this shared responsibility for supporting the work of colleagues reflected the distributed model of leadership by acknowledging the pivotal role of teacher leaders (Spillane et al., 2004). It follows then that when staff engaged more frequently with interactive collegial learning opportunities, sources of efficacy were influenced, practices improved, and stronger teacher efficacy perceptions result (Goddard et al., 2015).

In addition to the finding that informal collaboration and dialogue between staff supported their practices, school leaders also referenced various structures designed for staff to share their practices. Despite the fact that all leaders identified different structures, few school-based staff mentioned these specific practices during interviews. One school leader

acknowledged that their community had some success with peer observations, but he hoped to better these collegial opportunities in the future. This insight reflects a leadership approach that valued the interconnected relationships between various structures that support adult learning (Ross et al., 2004; Patti et al., 2015).

In summary, the three different “levels of leadership practices” shaped or did not shape the four sources of collective efficacy in different ways, therefore extending the literature on collective efficacy and school leadership. Moreover, since Hattie (2012) highlighted collective efficacy as the most significant influencing factor of student achievement, this study identified leadership practices that shaped the sources of efficacy, which aligns with the need for research to focus on variables with strong evidence of impact on student learning (Leithwood et al., 2010). Relatedly, this study did not focus on establishing the collective efficacy of individual schools by qualifying whether participants believed in the ability and capacity of their colleagues (Bandura, 1977; Donohoo, 2018). This case study, however, did successfully integrate leadership practices with collective efficacy and SEL competencies.

Collectively, as evidenced by Figure 3.2, findings supported the leadership practices that modeled responsible decision-making and relationship skills more positively shaped opportunities for vicarious experiences, affective states, social persuasion and mastery experiences compared to the leadership practices that modeled the social awareness competency. Furthermore, this qualitative case study builds on the research that has established connections between the structures of adult collaboration, changes in practice and the sources of collective efficacy (Goddard et al., 2004; Guskey, 1996). Moreover, Donohoo et al. (2018) reminded us that the “power and promise of collective efficacy is that it can be influenced within schools” (p. 44). With this in mind, I encourage our educational professionals and policy makers to continue to explore potential relationships between leadership practices and the sources of collective

efficacy as influential factors that shape adult interactions, actions, reflections, and ultimately student achievement.

Limitations and contributions

I acknowledge the limited scope of this case study related to the quantity of interview and questionnaire participants as well as limited observations. Additionally, within the observations data source, I only observed two different types of meetings (e.g. learning community meetings and grade level team). While I examined the sources of collective efficacy and explored potential leadership practices that modeled the SEL competencies, I did *not* seek to examine interactions of multiple stakeholders including students, families, and school partners. Furthermore, I did not examine the interactions between district leadership with school-based staff. Lastly, this specific study does not make claims about how leadership impacts student achievement. Thus, I did not triangulate data collected from interviews, observations, and questionnaires with individual school and district achievement data. Further limitations of our research team's collective study can be found in the next chapter.

Despite these limitations, this study contributes to the current research on collective efficacy, specifically by identifying leadership practices within, and across, schools that shaped the sources of efficacy. Moreover, this study highlighted six leadership practices that modeled the SEL competencies of social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. Lastly, the findings of this study explicitly connect what leaders do to support opportunities for mastery and vicarious experiences, social persuasion and positive affective states. Given the importance of these sources of collective efficacy, it will be important for school and district leaders to understand how resources can be effectively utilized to support positive school reform and ultimately, increased student achievement outcomes.

Conclusion

In the context of education, collective efficacy refers to whether teachers believe in the ability and capacity of their colleagues to support the achievement of all students. By identifying leadership practices that shaped the sources of collective efficacy, this study adds to leadership and collective efficacy research, both of which impact student learning (Leithwood et al., 2010). I hope that all educational practitioners, researchers, and policy makers can utilize this research as a motivator to embrace the mindset that we have a shared collective responsibility to improve student outcomes. By extension, this study builds on the work of others including Wahlstrom & Seashore-Louis (2008) who deduce that “collective responsibility is often regarded as the outcome of collective efficacy” (p. 466). In conclusion, this research has successfully integrated leadership practices, SEL competencies, and the sources of collective efficacy with the goal of “shaping” future practice, research, and policy.

CHAPTER FOUR³

Summary of Research Questions and Methods

The purpose of this study was to identify leadership practices that modeled social and emotional learning (SEL) competencies for adults and/or promoted opportunities for the SEL of staff. Our intent was to determine how these practices shaped different aspects of a district and its schools. To do so, we examined how district leaders supported sensemaking among school-based leaders around SEL (Conners, 2020) as well as the influences that school-based leaders had on adult collaboration (Ito, 2020), mental health staff (Renda, 2020), collective efficacy (Rose, 2020), and teacher resilience and well-being (Tobin, 2020).

We developed two overarching research questions that guided our collective work. Research question one (RQ1) was “what leadership practices model SEL competencies and/or promote SEL opportunities for staff?” Research Question two (RQ2) was “how do these leadership practices shape a district and its schools?” Our methodology included a qualitative case study with a unit of analysis of a single school district in Massachusetts, fictitiously named Westlake Public Schools (WPS). Our study encompassed four elementary and two middle schools. Utilizing purposeful sampling (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), we selected our interview participants from four categories: district leaders, school-based leaders, teachers, and mental health staff (MHS). For data collection, we employed semi-structured interviews, document reviews, online questionnaires, and onsite observations. To analyze the data, our team used coding software, Dedoose, and used the coded data to find patterns and themes (Creswell, 2014).

In our analytic lenses, all members of the team used the CASEL competencies which included self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationships skills, and responsible

³This chapter was jointly written by the authors listed and reflects the team approach to this project: Michele Conners, Mark Ito, Adam Renda, Geoff Rose, and Donna Tobin

decision-making and their associated skills (Appendix D) when determining the social and emotional competence of our identified leadership practices. Individually and collectively, we established that the competencies of social awareness, relationship skills and responsible decision-making were the most widely recognized SEL competencies related to the identified leadership practices (i.e., what leaders think and do).

From our synthesis of our individual studies, we found three common themes in response to our RQ1: 1) Leaders allocated time and resources to meet the needs of individuals; 2) Leaders engaged in relationship building with staff and/or colleagues; and 3) Leaders created structures for shared responsibility amongst colleagues. We found these leadership practices shaped the district and its schools (RQ2) when leaders prioritized outside resources and time to support individual development; staff felt validated when their leaders supported their personal and professional wellbeing; and leaders created structures designed to access shared knowledge and decision-making. In the following sections, we present our synthesized findings, discuss these findings in relation to the literature, propose a new framework for socially and emotionally competent leadership, and discuss recommendations and implications for practice.

Synthesis of Findings

We begin the section by examining common leadership practices identified across our studies. To address RQ1, we determined if the practices modeled (i.e., demonstrated or displayed) the SEL competencies or promoted (i.e., actively encouraged) SEL opportunities. For RQ2, through districtwide examples and the existing literature, we also explored how these practices shaped the district and its schools. As a result, we make recommendations to the district on how to potentially approach these practices when implementing them in the future.

Leaders Allocated Time and Resources to Meet the Needs of Individuals

This leadership practice focused on professional development (PD) and scheduled time in relationship to how leaders allocated time and resources that affected the needs of staff. In relation to RQ1, leaders modeled and/or promoted the SEL competency of relationship skills in their practices when they worked cooperatively with others, engaged socially with diverse individuals, listened well, and communicated effectively in order to increase the professional knowledge of their staff. Additionally, when leaders allocated resources for scheduled time in their practices, they also modeled and/or promoted the competency of social awareness, because they recognized the importance of collaboration for staff and the resource of time needed for them to engage. In response to RQ2, this practice shaped the district and its schools by leaders prioritizing outside resources for learning as opposed to internal expertise; and providing time in the schedule as opposed to developing greater capacity for shared responsibility of the work.

Professional Development

Collectively, we found that leaders encouraged and supported staff to attend training, workshops and conferences in order to increase their professional knowledge. Leaders promoted opportunities for staff to seek PD in the areas related to their specific roles (e.g., instruction, mental health and/or leadership) and/or in support of higher-level district goals (e.g., SEL, cultural proficiency, and/or project based learning). District leaders also modeled and promoted this practice by encouraging participation for individual WPS staff to attend out-of-district PD opportunities. These actions shaped the district and its schools by leaders prioritizing external opportunities for increased professional knowledge.

We found WPS spent more than half a million dollars (\$535,801) in FY19 on external PD (WPS Report to Town Meeting & Fiscal Year 2020 Budget Summary, p. 30). In relation to the district's PD investments, one district leader referred to providing "buckshot PD opportunities to

WPS staff,” as a means for supporting their learning. A buckshot PD opportunity is one that is widely communicated and often a one-time experience outside of the school district. Another district leader reflected that “part of what I see as my job is scouring the internet and places to find PD opportunities so that teachers can sign up for them.” These specific examples from district leaders showed practices that modeled an awareness to support individualized staff practices through encouragement and communication of PD offerings.

In some cases, staff independently initiated and sought support for PD opportunities, specifically when the expertise the individual needed resided outside of internal district resources. During the semi-structured interviews, staff members across the district often commented that their leaders provided substitute coverage and paid registration fees in order for staff to participate in their choice of adult learning outside of their schools. This practice shaped the work of the schools by staff feeling supported through the time and money provided to attend PD. Furthermore, while some staff referenced these training sessions during interviews, findings showed that staff did not identify PD as pivotal in shaping their practice. Additionally, limited evidence supported purposeful shared learning from these “external” opportunities.

Conversely, another district leader acknowledged that they “made significant investments in bringing in national trainers to come here and certify about 12 or 15 instructors.” One leader highlighted that the district-supported PD promoted SEL opportunities such as Responsive Classroom, Trauma Sensitive Schools, and Social Thinking, through an iterative process designed to support internal implementation. Based on our gathered evidence, it was unclear if the district’s priorities aligned with buckshot PD opportunities or those that provided iterative training. The inconsistent use of district resources to support staff learning and development shaped the work of WPS staff.

Overall, this leadership practice shaped the district and its schools since leaders and staff relied on outside resources to support their professional development. Furthermore, leaders promoted opportunities for staff to find and access external PD offerings. However, intentionally using internal time and resources appeared less in the data as a way to gain professional knowledge, and sharing expertise among colleagues did not happen regularly enough for staff to feel it was a standard practice in which they benefited from during collaborative time.

Scheduled Time

Throughout our data collection processes, we found that leaders allocated time for leaders, teaching and learning directors, coaches, teachers, and mental health staff to meet. Through this practice, leaders modeled the competency of social awareness because they recognized the importance of collaboration for staff, and the resource of time needed in which to engage. As one staff member reported, “Even at the highest level, leaders realize how important collaboration is, so they carve out time for it.” This practice of scheduling time shaped WPS leaders’ responsibilities, as it was expected that they would perform this task.

At the school level, our analysis showed that leaders promoted opportunities for staff to formally meet with their leaders and/or colleagues. During the semi-structured interviews, staff members commented that they participated regularly in formal meetings with leaders and/or colleagues. At both the elementary and middle school levels, school and district leaders built four to five formal meetings (e.g., staff, department, community) into their weekly and monthly schedules. Planned district and school meetings occurred both during the school day and after school (including weekly early release days for all elementary staff on Tuesdays). Additionally, interviews indicated that MHS across all schools observed that school leaders provided scheduled time to collaborate with others. Specifically, leaders modeled relationship skills when they created structures for MHS to participate in job-alike groups or tried to match them up with

different related service providers. These examples showed how leaders shaped the interactions of staff by providing opportunities for them to meet.

In relation to the allocation of scheduled time, we heard inconsistent reflections from school leaders and staff. Some staff perceived that collaborative time was not useful and took away from other work that needed to happen. As seen through the questionnaire data, both leaders and staff positively perceived that staff are committed to collaborative time; however, more than half of both staff and leaders did not positively perceive that time was used effectively. Related to this data, we acknowledge that the positionality of each staff member may influence their perceptions about the usefulness of collaborative time. Moreover, leaders also placed an emphasis on supporting summertime curriculum work when they provided teachers or MHS daily stipends. Although one district leader mentioned that leaders encouraged staff to meet as groups during these summer opportunities, school-based staff did not discuss or reference these opportunities as shaping their growth. These reflections highlighted the lack of coherence from WPS staff about the perceived value of their time.

Additionally, district leaders modeled social awareness for school-based leaders by providing time for elementary principals to collaborate during meetings. Moreover, when asked how they show support for collaboration, several district leaders modeled relationship skills by protecting the structures and schedules that allowed for ongoing, consistent collaboration among leaders. Other leadership meetings included principal meetings; superintendent's administrative team meetings, and opportunities for school leaders to work with mental health staff to design interventions. Furthermore, every district leader referred to ongoing discussions between district- and school-based leaders about the promotion of SEL opportunities across schools and within classrooms. The overarching theme was that district leaders modeled and empowered school-based leaders to engage in collaborative opportunities with their job-alike colleagues.

Leaders Engaged in Relationship-building with Staff and/or Colleagues

Leaders in WPS modeled and/or promoted practices that valued and fostered collaborative relationships with school-based staff and between staff and their colleagues. In response to RQ1, leaders modeled the competency of relationship skills because they communicated clearly when they publicly acknowledged the work of staff and/or showed their appreciation. Leaders also modeled relationship skills when they delivered and shared information during formal and/or informal interactions. Lastly, leaders positively promoted relationship skills when they collaborated with staff and effectively modeled this competency when they offered support. In relation to RQ2, this leadership practice positively shaped WPS when leaders engaged in actions that strengthened relationships through communication, collaboration, and support.

Cooperative Opportunities

Data analysis at the school- and district-level strongly supported the importance of relationships. As an illustration, one district leader commented, “everything that applies to education is all about building relationships so the best way to support the staff is to know them as human beings.” Furthermore, district leaders specifically modeled positive relationship skills by understanding the importance of bonding as a community and caring about departments as a community of people. In general, we learned that school-based and district-level leaders considered the importance of modeling and maintaining positive, healthy, and supportive relationships.

In order to strengthen relationships, district leaders highlighted that meetings are often opportunities for cooperation, collaboration and discussion, including many ice breakers. They also emphasized the importance of social gatherings and outings outside of school. As noted in one interview with an MHS, “my principal always tries to bring people together.” These

relationships, in turn, promoted opportunities with staff to engage in practices that developed positive relationships with their leaders. As a result, district and school leaders positively shaped WPS when they exhibited practices that valued WPS staff and their collaborative opportunities with each other.

Staff expressed coaching as a valued resource, specifically when leaders promoted opportunities for subject area coaches to collaborate with teachers in their schools in order to improve their teacher's instructional practices. By promoting opportunities to collaborate with coaches, leaders provided dialogue between staff and their coaches specific to their content curriculum in an effort to bring improvement and change to what happens in classrooms. In some instances, elementary school teachers scheduled time with coaches to be in their classrooms to observe, discuss and advise on the instruction being delivered. As an example, one staff member emphasized that their collaborative relationship with a coach shaped their practices by having a "really good feeling, and I feel like I still can go ask her for advice just because I have that connection with her." In summary, when leaders supported collaborative opportunities between staff and coaches, their practices promoted opportunities for encouraging relationship skills, specifically positive connections and cooperative mindsets.

Clear Communication

In order to promote clear communications, two different district leaders acknowledged open door policies by naming that "doors are always open here." Furthermore, another district leader commented, "I listen to teachers and if I think if there's something that they think they need, whether it's just time to talk to me or whether it's time to work with their colleagues or whether it's more resources." Another district leader commented on the importance of having conversations with teachers, just listening to them and asking them questions of what they need. These examples modeled how leaders effectively listened and supported both staff's individual

needs and professional skills.

In addition to supporting by listening, data also showed that leaders modeled the relationship skills competency when they communicated with staff through feedback and praise. Noticing strong practices of staff and appreciating them, led to positive attitudes about meeting with administrators, and the trust and support that ensued. Collectively, we learned that leaders often recognized the work of staff privately and publicly. Leaders provided recognition in a variety of ways, including: notes in mailboxes or on a staff member's desk, a quick email, a shout-out in a newsletter or publication, a social media (Twitter or Facebook) acknowledgement, or just a quick verbal thank you or high-five. More specifically, staff interviews confirmed the importance of how recognizing others' successes can support and maintain positive relationships. In general, most staff expressed positive experiences receiving feedback and praise from their leaders as it shaped their perceptions about their own practices.

By providing cooperative opportunities and clear communication, this leadership practice shaped adult relationships by setting the tone for ongoing engagement: therefore, it paved the way towards honest and authentic dialogue between staff and leaders as well as a greater commitment to the school and district work. Furthermore, conversations between leaders and staff were important in building and/or maintaining relationships and staff viewed feedback and praise as constructive and positive. In summary, this leadership practice shaped the district and its schools since staff felt validated when their leaders took the time to listen to and talk with them about their personal and professional wellbeing.

Leaders Created Structures for Shared Responsibility Among Colleagues

Leaders in WPS employed practices that modeled SEL competencies and/or promoted SEL opportunities, such as accessing and sharing expertise, encouraging interaction between colleagues, and providing problem-solving opportunities that included consulting and working

with others. More specifically, in response to RQ1, leaders promoted responsible decision-making by giving staff opportunities to be involved in decisions regarding their work. While not consistently seen across the schools, when leaders gave staff opportunities to analyze situations and to identify possible solutions, they promoted opportunities to be included in responsible decision-making on behalf of the greater organization. In response to RQ2, shared expertise shaped the district and its schools by implementing collaborative structures that allowed access to the sources of collective efficacy, namely vicarious experiences and social persuasion. Additionally, shared decision-making opportunities shaped WPS by providing structures for leaders and staff to process challenging situations through a sense-making lens.

Shared Decision-making

Leaders promoted learning opportunities related to responsible decision-making by forming teams to access expertise, analyze situations, solve problems accurately, and provide input into the school community's policies and procedures. Evidence supported that some school leaders included staff in decisions related to their work. When leaders involved staff in decisions, staff reported that they felt valued and trusted. During the interviews, staff provided numerous examples of times when leaders sought their input during meetings, through surveys, or during individual conversations. Specifically, MHS mentioned that principals included them in the decision-making and communication processes to best support students and keep them safe.

At the district level, one leader highlighted the presence of monthly principal meetings which included shared facilitation roles and open agendas. Specifically, leaders were asked, "What do you need? What would you like some feedback on or what do you need to present to everybody [staff]?" This showed the intentionality of district leaders supporting the individual needs of school leaders as well as encouraging shared responsibility during collaborative opportunities. In addition to scheduled meetings, district and school leaders also referenced

frequent opportunities to problem solve together. School leaders felt empowered to call or email various district leaders with a dilemma. In turn, district leaders felt responsible to partner with school leaders “to problem solve things that could really be very impactful to their school or their department.” Through these examples, WPS leaders modeled relationship-oriented practices while they interacted with each other, as they assessed outcomes, dealt with challenging situations, and made collaborative decisions.

Conversely, some staff stated that leaders should be more inclusive in decision making and that when leaders asked for input, they should actually consider it. Additionally, although evidence supported that some schools had structures in place to facilitate shared responsibility for decisions, some staff expressed there were many committees where their input was not apparent in the results. Although the practice was modeled, not all staff felt that the decision-making processes were inclusive.

Shared Expertise

Leaders promoted learning opportunities related to relationship skills by allowing staff to observe and learn from each other in order to build collaborative teams and support colleagues when needed. Findings demonstrated that collaborating with colleagues was the primary driver for staff changing practice. Moreover, staff expressed that they learn from their colleagues and that informal collegial discussions support their work. By recognizing the value of sharing expertise, leaders modeled the competency of responsible decision-making because they assessed what could happen when colleagues learn from each other. Additionally, this practice promoted opportunities for others to take responsibility for the learning and professional exchange of knowledge with colleagues.

Across all six schools, the leadership practice of staff sharing expertise through collegial visits and observations emerged as a common theme. Leaders referenced various structures for

sharing learning such as creating a “What do you want to see project?” posting staff schedules online to allow for self-identified pedagogical strengths and times when others can observe, publicly posting a board with staff strengths, and utilizing different frameworks for learning walks. These structures provided opportunities for staff to share their practices in their teaching environment in an effort to display their interactive work in classrooms.

Despite the fact that all leaders identified these different structures for sharing expertise, few school-based staff mentioned these specific practices during interviews. This finding is interesting and may be attributed to challenges with prioritizing substitute coverage and staff’s feelings about time away from their students. Furthermore, all of the meeting observations provided time for teachers to interact with each other in some capacity, yet, only three of the six meetings followed a protocol for sharing expertise. The questionnaire revealed that while half of staff positively perceived that their colleagues shared their expertise during collaborative time, only some leaders positively perceived that this was actually happening. Collectively, this data showed that inconsistencies emerged between the perceptions of leaders and staff about the value of formal collaborative structures.

Staff reported that collaborating with colleagues improved their instruction and supported their professional growth. One staff member said, “To be able to collaborate with our team helps my instruction improve. When we were looking at student work, I was able to check out what other classes are doing, and it helps me to learn and grow.” In support, leaders provided opportunities for staff collaboration, and when staff engaged with people from different content areas it broadened staff’s perspectives. One staff member said, “The best part of collaboration is getting different points of view and working with people with different skill sets.” Data also showed that some principals took the time to access the expertise of MHS specifically, by fostering opportunities for collective problem solving and modeling SEL lessons in classrooms.

Our synthesized findings supported the presence of leadership practices in WPS that modeled and promoted the competencies of social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. These practices shaped the district and its schools when leaders prioritized outside resources for learning as opposed to internal expertise, and leaders provided time in the schedule as opposed to developing greater capacity for shared responsibility of the work. Additionally, staff felt validated when their leaders communicated with them about their personal and professional wellbeing. Lastly, leaders shaped WPS when they created structures designed for shared decision-making and knowledge. We further extended these findings to establish a framework that explores the importance of these practices and why they matter when thinking about socially and emotionally competent leadership.

Discussion and Recommendations

In WPS, our team found three leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies and/or promoted SEL opportunities: 1) leaders allocated time and resources to meet the needs of individuals; 2) leaders engaged in relationship building with staff and/or colleagues; and 3) leaders created structures for shared responsibility among colleagues. Based on our findings, we connected these leadership practices to the literature and broadened them further. The result is three leadership practices that support the development of socially and emotionally competent leadership (SECL) in schools and districts. We encourage district and school leaders to implement these practices as outlined in Figure 4.1. In this visual, we display the SEL competencies, leadership practices, and how these practices shape a district and its schools, more specifically, by developing individual capabilities, strengthening coherence of vision and action, and establishing the structures that promote collective leadership capacity.

It is important to note that the identified leadership practices in the visual represent those found within the scope of our study. Specifically, we focused on the identification of leadership

practices that modeled and/or promoted SEL competencies (i.e. social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making) in the context of adult interactions as opposed to SEL competencies (i.e. self awareness and self-management) that focus more on attributes specific to an individual. Although self awareness and self-management are important competencies to develop in SECL, in our study, we did not look for practices that exhibited these competencies. As a result, our visual below highlights the leadership practices and competencies we encourage leaders to develop and support when considering adult dynamics, and a means to SECL.

Socially and Emotionally Competent Leadership

The visual we created establishes three practices that can guide leaders in both districts and schools. The center of our visual, “Socially and Emotionally Competent Leadership,” reflects an intentional integration of the SEL competencies with what leaders think and do. Around the center, we build on and broaden the three identified leadership practices. Specifically, we discuss how each practice can shape the development of individual capabilities, the strengthening of coherence of vision and action, and the establishment of collective leadership capacity in a district and its schools. Finally, the “outer ring” of our SECL visual reflects the SEL competencies that our study highlights, and that we argue are integral to the work of leaders, districts, and schools. Collectively, the visual below answers our team’s research questions: 1) What leadership practices modeled SEL competencies and/or promote SEL opportunities for staff? and 2) How did these leadership practices shape a district and its schools?

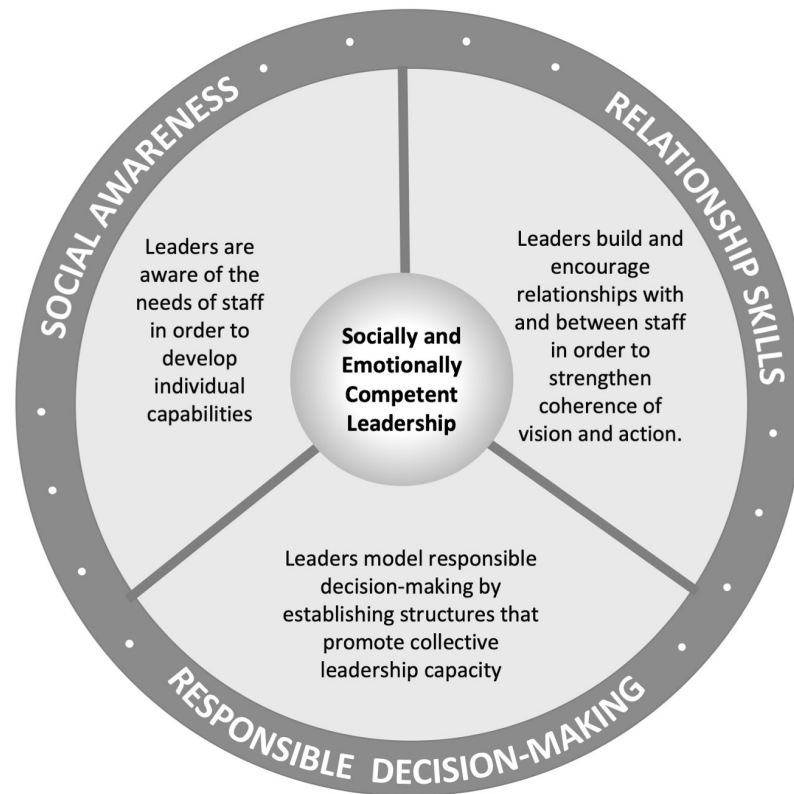


Figure 4.1. Recommended Practices that Support Socially and Emotionally Competent Leadership

The three practices found in WPS enabled our team to collectively develop this visual that constructed meaning and reasoning as to why these leadership practices that modeled competencies and/or promoted SEL opportunities mattered. By implementing these practices, we argue that leaders can increase adult capabilities and their organization’s capacity. As defined by Hargreaves and Fullan (2012), capabilities are more than just having “adequate ability,” but rather the possession of “attributes required for performance or accomplishment” (p. 55). Additionally, Mullen and Jones (2008) refer to capacity in their work as “enabling the growth of teachers as leaders who are responsible for their actions” (p. 329). Based on our findings and the literature, we assert in our recommended practices that both adult capabilities and capacity

improve as a result of SECL, which further extends the research of Cohen and colleagues (2007) who laid the groundwork for differentiating between capabilities and capacity-building.

The first leadership practice that we aimed to broaden, “leaders allocated time and resources to meet the needs of individuals,” was significant because leaders showed an awareness of the needs of staff in order to support the development of an individual's capabilities. This practice aligned with Fullan and Quinn (2016) who discussed how surface learning “occurs when the experience is very individualized” and may “result from one-shot workshops and random accessing of online resources without a linkage to broader goals or applications” (p. 61). Capabilities of staff in an organization are built by offering individualized support to followers (Leithwood, 1994) and leaders are expected to assess followers’ motives, satisfying their needs, and treat them as full human-beings (Northouse, 2016).

The significance of this practice of allocating scheduled time and resources is that the formal leaders at WPS provided time and budget to what staff felt were important to their work or dictated as iterative training that supported the district’s vision and goals. However, we learned that individualized PD was primarily happening through buck-shot opportunities outside of the district, without coherence or alignment to collective goals. We argue that leaders should recognize that providing opportunities for staff to seek expertise outside of the district may not have been as cost-effective or as valuable as creating opportunities for staff to leverage expertise from within the organization itself (Leithwood et al., 2019). Seeking outside PD opportunities did not necessarily yield more efficacious results.

From our findings, we broaden this original practice to one that develops SECL by arguing that leaders should be aware of the needs of staff in order to develop individual capabilities. Specifically, we recommend that WPS implement PD into their scheduled meetings and utilize the expertise found internally to grow staff capabilities. Forman et al. (2015)

supported this recommendation by asserting that “professional development events are replaced by a culture of professional learning that happens in real time throughout the school year” (p. 218). This recommendation reflects an understanding that adult learning should be embedded within scheduled time and often take place in collaborative peer structures such as networks (Leithwood et al., 2010).

The second leadership practice that emerged from our findings, “formal leaders engaged in relationship building with staff and/or colleagues,” was significant because leaders demonstrated that engaging in and modeling healthy relationships with staff and colleagues promoted the implementation of SEL competencies that built individual capabilities. It built these individual capabilities by considering the individual’s needs and what supported them emotionally and stimulated them intellectually (Leithwood, 1994). In order for this practice to happen, leaders implemented practices that encouraged collaborative relationships between leaders and staff.

The SECL practice that we established from this original practice is that leaders built and encouraged relationships with and between staff in order to build coherence of vision and action. We acknowledge that the organization benefits when leaders model, through their practices, important organizational values and their vision (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). Additionally, this practice aligns with the research of Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) who maintained the importance of relationships for strengthening individual and collective commitment to the organization. Specifically, we recommend that WPS strengthen adult relationships by clarifying roles and responsibilities of administrators, coaches, and staff that align to the vision of leaders with the actions of staff. For example, explicitly naming the differences and/or similarities of the roles and responsibilities of coaches, administrators, MHS, and teachers related to the planning, facilitation, and outcomes of weekly team meetings within the schools. The research focused on

role clarity and intentional alignment of collaborative work reflects the research of Donohoo (2018) who asserted that common understanding of responsibilities is essential to group effectiveness.

The third leadership practice that we looked to broaden, “leaders created structures for shared responsibility amongst colleagues,” was significant because leaders, at times, supported a distributed model of shared decision-making that led to capacity building in their organizations. Data inconsistently supported that WPS staff felt empowered to contribute in shared decision-making structures and shared expertise opportunities. In order for this practice to happen more frequently, leaders should work internally and with intentionality to create opportunities for staff leadership to develop (Patti et. al., 2015). Specifically, by identifying where social capital exists and utilizing it to share expertise, schools and districts can most effectively influence practices and beliefs between colleagues (Minckler, 2014; Guskey, 1996). By implementing this approach, the organization can benefit by developing structures that foster participation in school decisions and improvement (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999).

The leadership practice that develops SECL is that leaders model and promote responsible decision-making in order to build collective leadership capacity. Specifically, we recommend that WPS formally identify internal expertise and provide these informal staff leaders with opportunities to model and promote their practices through adult learning structures (see Minckler, 2014; Leana, 2011). Within this final recommendation, we argue that leaders should support adult learning structures that share expertise, in the context of staff making responsible decisions for the good of the organization. We argue that this recommendation leads to collective leadership capacity where formal leaders do not need to facilitate all collaborative interactions and manage individual actions (see Spillane, 2004). We assert that the more that expertise is identified and collectively shared, the greater the capacity of the organization, and

the stronger likelihood that the organization will reflect a consideration of the greater good (see Hargreaves & Shirley, 2009).

Limitations

This study identified leadership practices that modeled SEL competencies, and/or promoted SEL opportunities for district and school-based staff, while investigating how those leadership practices shaped a district and its schools. We acknowledge the following areas with limitations: 1) generalizability of findings; 2) time period of research; and 3) data collection and analysis.

A limitation of our study was the generalizability of the findings due to the small scope of the study. Because our research focused on a single unit of analysis, one school district in Massachusetts, our findings are not generalizable to other school districts in Massachusetts, or in the United States. While generalizability was a limitation within our study, the purpose of our study was not to seek ultimate truths, but to understand the relevance of our findings both as educational leaders and contributors to existing research (Mills & Gay, 2019). Despite a focus on one district, our process of selection ensured that the district we studied provided meaningful insights about a district-wide focus on SEL, and assisted us in identifying themes that we believe are relevant to other districts in the process of implementing this type of reform, because qualitative research builds theory.

The specific time period during which the data was collected and analyzed was driven by the research team's limited timeframe, and thus we only captured a moment in time. As a result, we were not able to analyze how each of our individual research themes and the leadership practices evolved over time. The district hired a Director of SEL two years prior to our study, which likely played a key role in our findings. Entering a district in the initial stages of a district-wide focus on SEL would likely result in different outcomes than entering a district deeply

engaged in SEL. However, our findings are relevant and meaningful as they could assist other districts in developing leadership practices that model or promote SEL competencies.

Importantly, we did not gather data from all members of the case study district, but rather from a purposeful sample of district and school leaders. District, schools, and leaders were purposefully selected (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), however, individual staff participants volunteered to contribute to this study. Self-selection into the study opened up the possibility of participant bias in terms of what they wanted to promote or conceal as strengths or challenges both within the district and as individuals. To mitigate this bias, we asked probing questions to maximize the interactions between the participant and interviewer to increase rapport and reduce the risk of socially desirable answers (Patton, 1990). In addition, we used multiple sources of data to allow for methods triangulation in this study.

We aimed to access a range of perspectives by collecting data from documents, questionnaires, observations, and interviews to triangulate the outcomes of the interview analyses. It was important that we had multiple data sources because, “every type of data has strengths and limitations, using a combination of techniques helps compensate for the weaknesses found in one approach (Salkind, 2010).

We analyzed documents that were readily and publicly available to district and school staff, parents or guardians, and the community. We interviewed district administrators, principals, teachers and mental health staff who volunteered to participate. Their perspectives were not necessarily representative of the perspectives of all certified professional staff in the district and its schools. In addition, schools are dynamic environments in which the teachers and administrators can change from one year to the next.

Finally, this qualitative case study has the potential for validity errors. According to Creswell (2014), validity signals that the researcher checks for accuracy of the findings by

employing certain procedures. To improve validity, we posed “how” research questions that influenced the use of strategies to address external validity (Yin, 2014). We triangulated our data sources, data types, and methods, while reflecting upon the data collection and interpretation process in an effort to minimize methodological threats to interpretation of the data (Yin, 2014).

Conclusion

Our collective findings supported the identification of leadership practices in WPS that modeled and promoted the SEL competencies of social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. These leadership practices shaped the district and its schools when leaders encouraged collaborative relationships and supported the development of individual capabilities, needs, and professional skills. Furthermore, our collective research led to the identification of new leadership practices that supports the development of SECL.

We argue that implementing leadership practices with the intention of developing SECL has the potential to positively shape a district-wide focus on SEL, the sources of collective efficacy, adult collaboration, staff resilience and wellbeing, and the work of MHS. As a result of our research, leaders should focus their efforts on cultivating the capabilities of the adults through structures that promote collaborative and collective expertise. Additionally, we acknowledge that relationships and resources have the potential to positively shape the work of educators and the tasks that we cannot accomplish individually. In conclusion, by developing SECL practices in districts and schools, adults will grow their professional knowledge, vision and actions will align more coherently, and shared responsibility will build organizational capacity. Ultimately, district and school-based leaders and staff will benefit the students they teach and support.

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Appendix A

SCHOOL-BASED LEADER INTERVIEWS **Social and Emotional Leadership Practices that Shape Districts and Schools** ***Interview Protocol***

Researcher (to be read to participants): Hi, my name is (insert) and we are here today as part of our dissertation as doctoral candidates at Boston College. Our overarching research questions are, “*How do leadership practices model SEL competencies for adults, or promote the social and emotional learning of teachers and other staff?*” and “*How do these leadership practices shape a district and its schools?*” We will be asking questions related to general leadership practices, collective efficacy, adult collaboration, teacher resilience and well-being, and the work of mental health staff.

ALL INFORMATION PROVIDED WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL. The information from responses to this semi-structured interview will be compiled by the dissertation team for their analyses. Any data, including race/ethnicity and gender, that is not currently available to the public will only be used in aggregated form that cannot be used to discern the identity of any participant in any report or presentation or in the public use file that will be made available to the public at the conclusion of this study.

Before starting we would like to ***get your consent*** to participate in this study and permission to record this session. (*Get signature on consent form.*) Thank you. (*Once recording starts.*) The recording has started. Thank you for allowing us to record this session. Before we start, do you have any questions?

[Interviewer: Prior to starting the script, ensure that all questions re: consent form & study have been thoroughly addressed]

Thank you for sharing your time so we can learn more about your experiences in the Westlake Public Schools. As a quick reminder, we’ve allocated 45 minutes for this conversation and a questionnaire that we will ask you to complete at the end of the interview. Please let us know if you have any questions during our conversation. We just want to remind you that there are no right or wrong answers, we only wish to understand your unique insight. All of your information and responses will be confidential and used for research purposes. No individual information or identifying information will be shared. At any point in our interview, you can end our conversation or take a break for any reason. If for any reason, the interview questions do not apply to you, or you wish to skip any question, you may do so.

Your input is important to us and we want you to feel comfortable during this interview so please ask any clarifying questions you may have or let us know if you don’t understand a question.

QUESTIONS (Look for leadership practices – what leaders *think and do*)

1. What is the role of leadership in your school? In other words, what do leaders *do*?
2. a) In your district/school, who supports your work and *what type of things do they do* to show support?
b) Whom do you support? What do *you do* to show support?
3. a) How are collective and/or individual goals established in your district/school?
b) What do you *do* to support this process?
4. How do you *show* support for collaboration in your district/school?
5. What do you *do* to *actively encourage* your staff's professional growth and development?
6. Describe what you *do* in meetings.
(*Exposes what the interviewee thinks a leader does in the context of collaboration.*)
7. What do you see as the benefits of collaboration in your district/school?
(*Exposes the interviewee's perceptions of collaborative time*)
8. What do you do that contributes to your staff's feelings of success?
9. What opportunities do you provide for your staff to learn from their colleagues?
10. What and/or who drives you to change your practice?
(*Probe: Can ask specifically about adults.*)
11. Are there things that you do that promote social and emotional learning opportunities for staff? If so, what are they?
12. What types of things seem to cause the most stress for teachers and what do you do, if anything, to support teachers when they are feeling stressed?
13. Do you engage teachers in decision making that is related to the work that they do in this school? If so, how?
14. How is feedback delivered and how open are teachers to receiving feedback?
15. What are the primary responsibilities of mental health staff? How is this determined? By whom? When? How would you change this?
16. How do you manage the mental health staff's work and/or interactions with students and how does the work impact students?

Appendix B

SCHOOL-BASED STAFF INTERVIEWS

Social and Emotional Leadership Practices that Shape Districts and Schools *Interview Protocol*

Researcher (to be read to participants): Hi, my name is (insert) and we are here today as part of our dissertation as doctoral candidates at Boston College. Our overarching research questions are, “*How do leadership practices model SEL competencies for adults, or promote the social and emotional learning of teachers and other staff?*” and “*How do these leadership practices shape a district and its schools?*” We will be asking questions related to general leadership practices, collective efficacy, adult collaboration, teacher resilience and well-being, and the work of mental health staff.

ALL INFORMATION PROVIDED WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL. The information from responses to this semi-structured interview will be compiled by the dissertation team for their analyses. Any data, including race/ethnicity and gender, that is not currently available to the public will only be used in aggregated form that cannot be used to discern the identity of any participant in any report or presentation or in the public use file that will be made available to the public at the conclusion of this study.

Before starting we would like to **get your consent** to participate in this study and permission to record this session. (*Get signature on consent form.*) Thank you. (*Once recording starts.*) The recording has started. Thank you for allowing us to record this session. Before we start, do you have any questions?

[Interviewer: Prior to starting the script, ensure that all questions re: consent form & study have been thoroughly addressed]

Thank you for sharing your time so we can learn more about your experiences in the Westlake Public Schools. As a quick reminder, we’ve allocated 45 minutes for this conversation and a questionnaire that we will ask you to complete at the end of the interview. Please let us know if you have any questions during our conversation. We just want to remind you that there are no right or wrong answers, we only wish to understand your unique insight. All of your information and responses will be confidential and used for research purposes. No individual information or identifying information will be shared. At any point in our interview, you can end our conversation or take a break for any reason. If for any reason, the interview questions do not apply to you, or you wish to skip any question, you may do so.

Your input is important to us and we want you to feel comfortable during this interview so please ask any clarifying questions you may have or let us know if you don’t understand a question.

QUESTIONS (Look for leadership practices – what leaders *think and do*)

1. What is the role of leadership in your school? In other words, what do leaders *do*?
2. a) In your district/school, who supports your work and *what type of things do they do* to show support?
b) Whom do you support? What do *you do* to show support?
3. a) How are collective and/or individual goals established in your district/school?
b) What do leaders *do* to support this process?
4. How do leaders *show* support for collaboration in your district/school?
5. What do leaders *do* to *actively encourage* your professional growth and development?
6. Describe what leaders (i.e., teachers or administrators) *do* in meetings.
(*Exposes what the interviewee thinks a leader does in the context of collaboration*)
7. What do you see as the benefits of your collaboration?
(*Exposes the interviewee's perceptions of his/her collaborative time.*)
8. What do leaders do that contribute to your feelings of success?
9. What opportunities do leaders provide to learn from colleagues?
10. What and/or who drives you to change your practice?
(*Probe: can ask specifically about adults.*)
11. Are there things that your leader does that promote social and emotional learning opportunities for staff? If so, what are they?
12. What causes you the most stress, and what if anything, does your leader do to support you in managing this stress?
13. Does your leader engage you in decision making that is related to the work that you do in this school? If so, how?
14. How do you receive feedback from your school leader and how do you usually feel after receiving feedback?
15. What are the primary responsibilities of mental health staff? How is this determined? By whom? When? How would you change this?
16. How does the principal manage the mental health staff's work and/or interactions with students and how does the work impact students.

Appendix C

BC DIP SEL Coding Manual

Codes that focus on leadership practices and support, interview questions, social and emotional learning competencies and skills, adult collaboration, collective efficacy, and resilience and well-being

While entering into the initial coding process, we began our coding manual to define the SEL skills related to each SEL competency and came to an “aha realization” that CASEL may have purposefully selected different verbs when outlining each of the skills. No verb is repeated. We expect to use these verbs to support our findings and discussions when thinking about our research questions related to LEADERSHIP PRACTICES - what leaders think and do! Out of the 29 SEL skills identified, **23 skills are action oriented** and **6 skills are descriptive**.

General Codes

Parent code	Child code	Definition
Leadership Practices	THINK	To have as an intention or opinion
	DO	To perform or execute
Leaders Support (reoccurring themes)	LISTENING	To hear something with thoughtful intention
	TIME	A measurable period when an activity or thought exists; *Schedules
	TRUST	Assured reliance on someone to be honest, truthful, good
NON-SEL		A leadership practice that does not model one of the CASEL competencies

Interview Question Codes

Parent code	Child code	Interview question number
Interview Questions	School-based leaders	SBL #1 SBL #2 SBL #3 SBL #4 SBL #5 SBL #6 SBL #7 SBL #8
	School-based staff	SBS #1 SBS #2 SBS #3 SBS #4 SBS #5 SBS #6 SBS #7 SBS #8

*Note: The coding of transcripts needs to identify leadership practices that **model** (i.e., display and/or demonstrate) or **promote** (i.e., actively encourage) SEL competencies.*

CASEL Competencies (5) and Skills (29)

Parent code	Child code
Self-awareness	Accurate self-perception
	Sense of self-confidence
	Self-efficacy
	Recognizes strengths
	Identifies own emotions and impact on others

Parent code	Child code
Self-management	Controls impulses
	Manages stress
	Self-motivated
	Self-discipline
	Sets goals
	Exhibits organizational skills

Parent code	Child code	Definition
SOCIAL AWARENESS	RESPECTS OTHERS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shows respect to others and consideration for them *praise or affirmation
	SHOWS EMPATHY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Demonstrates perspective taking an/or affective understanding
	APPRECIATES DIVERSITY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recognizes the importance of and understands inclusivity as it relates to race and other marginalized groups
	ABLE TO CONSIDER OTHERS' PERSPECTIVES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Works to understand what others are experiencing and thinking
	UNDERSTANDS SOCIAL AND ETHICAL NORMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceives the importance of and has an awareness of how to act and interact with and around others for the common good
	RECOGNIZES FAMILY, SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY RESOURCES AND SUPPORTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifies and acknowledges available resources
RELATIONSHIP SKILLS	WORKS COOPERATIVELY WITH OTHERS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interacts collegially with colleagues
	RESOLVES CONFLICTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Works with others to improve challenging situations
	COMMUNICATES CLEARLY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Deliver, share or exchange information, news, or ideas in understandable ways
	ENGAGES SOCIALLY WITH DIVERSE INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interacts w/ individuals of different races and/or other marginalized groups
	COLLABORATES WITH TEAM MEMBERS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meets and works jointly with colleagues and supervisors
	LISTENS WELL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gives one's attention to someone
	SEEKS AND OFFERS HELP WHEN NEEDED	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Receives and gives support when needed
RESPONSIBLE DECISION-MAKING	MAKES ETHICAL CHOICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acts with and makes decisions with moral principles
	IDENTIFIES AND SOLVES PROBLEMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Finds and deals with challenging situations and figures out ways to improve them. *technical problems, for example
	REFLECTIVE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Makes thoughtful decisions
	ANALYZES SITUATIONS ACCURATELY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examines methodically and in detail within a specific context for the purpose of interpretation; *adaptive problems, for example
	EVALUATES CONSEQUENCES IN CONSIDERATION OF THE WELL-BEING OF OTHERS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assesses what could happen and how it could impact others for positive outcomes; *people-oriented, relationship-oriented

DIP Focus Areas

Parent code	Parent code	Parent code
Sensemaking	Teacher resilience and well being	Mental health staff

Parent code	Child code	Definition
COLLECTIVE EFFICACY	MASTERY EXPERIENCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When you feel that something you did works
	VICARIOUS EXPERIENCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeing/hearing someone else have a successful experience • Sharing a successful idea
	SOCIAL PERSUASION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Receiving feedback from someone else that causes you to reflect or change practice
	AFFECTIVE STATES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actions that make you feel a certain way
ADULT COLLABORATION	POSITIVE ATTITUDES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supportive, trusting • Committed, motivated • Understanding of collaborative roles • Accountability to team • Shared philosophy/goals
	TEAM PROCESS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communications b/w colleagues • Clear, formal processes • Collective effort over individual wants
	PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarity of focus (standards, expectations, values) • Teacher voices in planning • Connections b/w activities and classrooms • Teachers and administrators share expertise • Ongoing activities, flexibly scheduled • Community building climate
	LEADERSHIP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shared leadership • Supportive climate • Volunteer for leadership roles • Effort is recognized • Participants hold themselves to high expectations
	RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Targets needs • Ongoing assessment • Participant initiated
	BENEFITS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evident • Lived and prominent • Public recognition
RESILIENCE AND WELL-BEING	COLLABORATION	<p>Two or more staff members and/or leaders and staff members coming together to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • support each other or seek support from each other • problem solve

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • produce or create something (i.e. policies, curriculum) • share work, ideas, successes and frustrations
	RECOGNITION AND FEEDBACK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acknowledge the contributions and efforts of staff • Share staff contributions with others • Celebrated successes • Notice things that made a difference for colleagues and/or students • Provide positive feedback during evaluation process • Offer constructive feedback to support growth in a thoughtful way
	INCLUSIVE DECISION MAKING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seek staff input • Listen to suggestions and ideas • Include all stakeholders in conversations related to decisions • Engage in constructive discourse to make better decisions • Use provided suggestions • Make decision making process transparent
	WORK/LIFE BALANCE AND SELF-CARE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allow staff to attend important family events • Encourage care of children and family members • Recognize family needs during crisis or trauma • Model work/life balance • Provide opportunities to engage in self-care at work • Offer workshops and training related to stress reduction and well-being • Promote growth mindset



**Boston College PSAP
Social and Emotional Leadership Practices
that Shape Districts and Schools**

- Michele Conners
- Geoff Rose
- Mark Ito
- Donna Tobin
- Adam Renda
- October 6, 2019

Defining Social and Emotional Learning

Dusenbury, Calin, Domitrovich, and Weissberg (2015) define Social and Emotional Learning as:

The process through which children and adults acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to understand and manage emotions, set and achieve positive goals, feel and show empathy for others, establish and maintain positive relationships, and make responsible decisions. Social and emotional skills are critical to being a good student and citizen (p. 2).

SEL competencies	Definition of competency	Examples of skills with the competency
Self-awareness	Recognizing one's emotions, thoughts and values and how they influence behaviors, and identifying and cultivating one's strengths and limitations, and positive qualities	Accurate self-perception, sense of self-confidence, self-efficacy, recognizes strengths, identifies own emotions and impact on others
Self-management	Monitoring and regulating one's emotions, thoughts and behaviors in different situations and establishing and working toward achieving positive goals	Controls impulses, manages stress, self-motivated, self-discipline, sets goals, exhibits organizational skills
Social awareness	Understanding the thoughts and feelings of others and appreciating the value of human differences, understanding social and ethical norms for behavior and recognizing family, school, and community resources and supports.	Respects others, shows empathy, appreciates diversity, considers others' perspectives, understands social and ethical norms, recognizes family, school and community resources and supports
Relationship skills	Establishing and maintaining healthy, rewarding relationships with diverse individual and groups based on cooperation, listening, support, effective (clear) communication, conflict resolution, and an ability to resist inappropriate social pressure	Works cooperatively with others, resolves conflicts, communicates (clearly) effectively, engages socially with diverse individuals and groups, collaborates with team members, listens well, seeks and offers help when needed
Responsible decision-making	Making constructive choices about personal behavior and social interactions based on ethical standards, safety concerns, and social norms. Evaluating consequences of various actions in consideration of the well-being of oneself and others.	Makes ethical choices, identifies and solves problems, reflective, analyzes situations accurately, evaluates consequences in consideration of the well-being of others

Table 1. Social and emotional learning: competencies, definitions and associated skills. Adapted from "What does evidence based instruction in social and emotional learning actually look like in practice?: A brief on findings from CASEL's program reviews" by Dusenbury, L., Calin, S., Domitrovich, C., & Weissberg, R. P., 2015, *A Publication of the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning*, Chicago: CASEL, and the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, 2017, retrieved from <https://casel.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Competencies.pdf>

Appendix D

Social and Emotional Leadership Practices that Shape Districts and Schools *Observation Protocol and Field Notes Form*

Researcher (to be read to participants): Hi, we're here from Boston College as doctoral students conducting research on Leadership Practices that model and/or promote Social and Emotional Learning competencies, as they relate to adult collaboration and collective efficacy. All activity that we observe and/or record will be confidential and any action that makes an individual identifiable will not be used publicly without consent. We ask that you act as naturally as possible, and that our presence not be a distraction to your work. Thank you for allowing us this opportunity to observe you in practice.

Date: _____	School level:	HS	MS	ES
Time: _____	School name: _____			

Meeting name: _____		
Participants present:	Administrators (#) _____	Teachers (#) _____
	Support staff (#) _____	
	Other (specify): _____	

Meeting format (leadership practices)

Check all that apply:		Objective(s):
<input type="checkbox"/> Discussion (agenda/protocols)		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Discussion (no agenda/free form)		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Presentation (PPT)		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Interactive/feedback driven		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Information dissemination		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Clearly stated goals/objectives		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (describe): _____		_____

Meeting attitudes (collaboration)

Check all that apply:		Other (describe):
<input type="checkbox"/> Shows commitment and motivation		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Clear roles, understanding; acceptance of them		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Accountability for teacher and student performance		_____
<input type="checkbox"/> Demonstrates knowledge of philosophy, goals and expertise		_____

Room and Seating Dynamic (identification of leadership)

- Sketch of participants and how they are seated (include initials and/or first names).
- Place a “tick mark” next to the participant when he/she speaks.
- Note: Air time (who is talking/listening).

Position codes
T = teacher
DH = department head
P = principal
AP = assistant principal
MHS = mental health staff
O = other (specify)

Appendix E

SCHOOL-BASED LEADER QUESTIONNAIRE PROTOCOL

Adapted from Damore and Wiggins (2006) Elements of Collaboration Rubric and Goddard, Hoy, Woolfolk-Hoy (2002) Collective Efficacy Scale, Huntington (2016) Resiliency Quiz, Sinclair and Wallston (2004) The Brief Resilient Coping Scale, and Smith et al (2008) Brief Resilience Scale

Audience: School-based leaders who are also interviewed for the study. Each interviewee will be given an identification number for triangulation purposes.

Form: Qualtrics electronic surveys via supplied technology device

Purpose: The questionnaire will be used to triangulate data collected from two or more of the following forms of data collection: semi-structured interviews, observations or documents, and will serve to highlight the following feedback:

Leaders

- Leaders' perception of how they support teachers' resilience and well-being
- Leaders' and leaders positive or negative attitudes about adult collaboration
- Leaders' perceptions of their and their colleagues' ability to support students
- Leaders' perceptions of collective efficacy (i.e., the ability and capacity of teachers to support the achievement of all students)

The questionnaire will be conducted by a Boston College dissertations team. The questionnaire will be conducted using Qualtrics and all information that could be used to identify a respondent or link responses to individual respondents for any question will be maintained in storage that is secure. ALL INFORMATION YOU PROVIDE WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL. The information from your responses to this questionnaire will be compiled by the dissertation team for their analyses. Any data, including race/ethnicity and gender, that is not currently available to the public will only be used in aggregated form that cannot be used to discern the identity of any survey participant in any report or presentation concerning the survey or in the public use file that will be made available to the public at the conclusion of this study.

Please choose the number that describes your experience best.

Collaboration

1. I feel that teachers collaborative time is used effectively.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

2. I feel that teachers are committed to collaborative time.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

3. I feel that teachers are motivated to use collaborative time productively.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

4. I feel that teacher roles are clearly understood during collaborative time

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

5. I feel that teachers are accountable for their collaborative time together.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

6. I feel that teachers have time collaboratively to discuss teaching and/or instructional standards.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

7. I feel that teachers share their philosophies, goals and/or expertise during collaborative time.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

8. I feel that teachers reflect on their work during collaborative time.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Collective Efficacy

9. Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

10. If a child doesn't learn something the first time, teachers will try another way.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

11. Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

12. If a child doesn't want to learn teachers here give up.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

13. Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with challenging students.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

14. Teachers in this school think there are some students that cannot be successful.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

15. Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

16. Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teacher-student relationships.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Resilience and well-being

17. Teachers tend to bounce back quickly after difficult situations.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

18. I help teachers through stressful events.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

19. It does not take teachers long to recover from a stressful event.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

20. It is hard for teachers to recover when something bad happens at school.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

21. Teachers often feel overwhelmed.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

22. I help teachers find creative ways to deal with difficult situations.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

23. Regardless of what happens in teachers' classrooms, I can control my reaction to it.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

24. I believe teachers can grow in positive ways by dealing with difficult situations.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

25. I help teachers develop healthy coping mechanisms for handling stress.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Appendix F

SCHOOL-BASED STAFF QUESTIONNAIRE PROTOCOL

Adapted from Damore and Wiggins (2006) Elements of Collaboration Rubric and Goddard, Hoy, Woolfolk-Hoy (2002) Collective Efficacy Scale, Huntington (2016) Resiliency Quiz, Sinclair and Wallston (2004) The Brief Resilient Coping Scale, and Smith et al (2008) Brief Resilience Scale

Audience: School-based staff who are also interviewed for the study. Each interviewee will be given an identification number for triangulation purposes.

Form: Qualtrics electronic surveys via supplied technology device

Purpose: The questionnaire will be used to triangulate data collected from two or more of the following forms of data collection: semi-structured interviews, observations or documents, and will serve to highlight the following feedback:

Teachers

- Teachers' feelings and perceptions about their own resilience and well-being
- Teachers' perception of how leaders support their resilience and well-being
- Mental health staff's perceptions of their and their colleagues' ability to support students
- Teachers' positive or negative attitudes about adult collaboration
- Teachers' perceptions of collective efficacy (i.e., the ability and capacity of their colleagues to support the achievement of all students)

The questionnaire will be conducted by a Boston College dissertations team. The questionnaire will be conducted using Qualtrics and all information that could be used to identify a respondent or link responses to individual respondents for any question will be maintained in storage that is secure. ALL INFORMATION YOU PROVIDE WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL. The information from your responses to this questionnaire will be compiled by dissertation team for their analyses. Any data, including race/ethnicity and gender, that is not currently available to the public will only be used in aggregated form that cannot be used to discern the identity of any survey participant in any report or presentation concerning the survey or in the public use file that will be made available to the public at the conclusion of this study. This questionnaire will be given to interview participants at the end of the interview.

Please choose the number that describes your experience best.

Collaboration

1. Teachers feel that collaborative time is used effectively.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

2. Teachers are committed to collaborative time.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

3. Teachers are motivated to use collaborative time productively.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
4. Teacher roles are clearly understood during collaborative time.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
5. Teachers are accountable for their collaborative time together.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
6. Teachers have time collaboratively to discuss teaching and/or instructional standards.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
7. Teachers share their philosophies, goals and/or expertise during collaborative time.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
8. Teachers reflect on their work during collaborative time.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Collective Efficacy

9. Teachers in this school are able to get through to difficult students.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
10. If a child doesn't learn something the first time, teachers will try another way.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
11. Teachers here are confident they will be able to motivate their students.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
12. If a child doesn't want to learn teachers here give up.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
13. Teachers here need more training to know how to deal with challenging students.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
14. Teachers in this school think there are some students that cannot be successful.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
15. Teachers here don't have the skills needed to produce meaningful student learning.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
16. Teachers here fail to reach some students because of poor teacher-student relationships.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Resilience and well-being

17. I tend to bounce back quickly after difficult situations.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

18. Leaders here help me through stressful events.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

19. It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

20. It is hard for me to recover when something bad happens at school.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

21. I often feel overwhelmed.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

22. Leaders help me find creative ways to deal with difficult situations.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

23. Regardless of what happens in my classroom, I believe I can control my reaction to it.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

24. I believe I can grow in positive ways by dealing with difficult situations.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

25. Leaders help teachers develop healthy coping mechanisms for handling stress.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree