



Self-Efficacy and Instructional Practices of Public Kindergarten Teachers in Davao Del Norte Division

Sistiennie Annie Y. Pineda

Rizal Memorial Colleges

1. The Problem and Its Setting

Students learn the most when teachers make use of teaching strategies in accordance to their learning styles. If instructional strategies are employed appropriately, students would be able to learn the lessons achieving the objectives. It has been one of the main responsibilities of teachers to utilize varied instructional strategies that would help students to get connected to the lessons. With the help of varied instructional strategies, teachers would be able to give further assistance to students. More so, teachers also benefit from using instructional strategies as part of their instructional practices because they are able to better monitor and assess student performance through different methods of evaluation. However, teachers have encountered challenges that affect their instructional practices.

In Zimbabwe, teachers do not employ a variety of teaching methods. They do not prepare a variety of media for use in the teaching and learning. Teachers' instructional materials are limited to textbooks and syllabuses and do not go beyond that. Pupils learn in harsh and uncondusive teaching and learning environments and there is low morale among teachers. Parental support in terms of extra materials such as text books and revision books is very low. Only a small proportion of parents guide their children on homework. They do not provide extra lessons for their children. Schools lack adequate textbooks, revision books and resource books to extend children's knowledge (Mupa & Chinooneka, 2015).

Some schools in third world countries tend to have lack of good infrastructure and other facilities than those in advanced places (Pryor & Ampiah, cited by Adu-Gyamfi, 2014). Teachers' major challenge is the non-availability of teaching and learning resources.

Apparently, these situations affect their instructional practices (Okongo et al., 2015). Meanwhile, in the Philippine educational setting, several problems were identified relevant to instructional practices. It was found that the teachers had difficulty presenting the course materials' content and lacked effective teaching methods/skills. According to Magallanes et al. (2022), teachers lacked the professional development opportunities necessary to be ready to teach the content according to the given schedule and to use a more varied set of teaching strategies. Furthermore, Dizon et al. (2019) discovered that teachers had less time to effectively teach the content due to the lack of adequate support and materials. Evidently, there is not enough planning done for teaching development.

In the Division of Davao del Norte, it was ascertained that teachers are also challenged with difficulties leading to poor instructional practices. Teachers have never made an initiative to craft varied instructional activities because of the multiple roles that they need to handle. Furthermore, only few teachers have been exposed to various professional development activities which affect their self-efficacy. Nevertheless, all of these are just observation and have not been properly examined. In reality, no research had been undertaken in Davao del Norte that attempted to study the breadth of teachers' instructional methods considering their self-efficacy.

Given these situations, the researcher explored the extent of teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers specifically in the public secondary schools in Davao del Norte Division. Furthermore, it explored the correlation of the two variables. In this academic endeavor, the researcher shed light regarding teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers. This undertaking also hoped to provide insights to the policy makers in crafting policies, programs, interventions, projects, activities that would motivate all teachers to strengthen their self-efficacy and upgrade their instructional practices.

Review of Significant Literature

The related literature and studies of this study provided inputs about public leadership behavior of school heads and capability building skills of public elementary schools. The independent variable is teachers' self-efficacy. It has six observed variables, namely: efficacy to influence decision making; instructional self-efficacy; disciplinary self-efficacy; efficacy to enlist parental involvement; efficacy to enlist community involvement; and efficacy to create a positive school climate (Bandura, 1977). Meanwhile, the dependent variable is instructional practices. It has three indicators, namely, cognitive, interpersonal and intrapersonal (Hong, Greene & Higgins, 2015).

Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy involves teachers' self-judgments about their ability to affect student outcomes, especially for those students who appear unmotivated or difficult to teach (Ross et al., 2012). Teachers with high self-efficacy feel that they can be effective with students even in the face of challenging contexts. It involves personal skills and competencies and how contextual factors, such as resources, affect effective teaching and student support. For example, when the school context does not support teachers' efforts to effectively manage their students' learning environment, this can result in lower student academic engagement and more problem behaviors (Shahzad & Naureen, 2017).

In education, self-efficacy has traditionally been characterized as teachers' belief in planning and implementing courses of action needed to bring about intended results. It does not reflect what teachers have already accomplished or why they have accomplished it in the past; rather, it reflects what they will be able to do in a specific situation. The notion of teachers' sense of self-efficacy includes both general teaching self-efficacy and a sense of personal teaching self-efficacy (Barni et al., 2019).

General teaching self-efficacy refers to a situation with specific expectations that the teacher can help students learn, given other assumptions of how students can learn what the teacher has to teach. Individuals with strong teaching self-efficacy believe they are capable of positively influencing student performance. They prefer tough tasks and try harder when presented with difficulties such as student abilities or family circumstances. When their work is finished, they take satisfaction in their achievements and are not easily distracted. They tend to assume that all kids can learn if appropriate conditions for learning can be provided (Alvarez-Nunez, 2012).

Numerous positive outcomes have been associated with teachers' high sense of self-efficacy. Among these are student achievement, student motivation, management behavior, responsibility for learning, trust, openness, and job satisfaction. Teachers' self-efficacy is also related to classroom organization, instructional strategies, questioning techniques, levels of persistence at a task, degree of risk-taking and innovation, teacher feedback to students, and management of students' on-task time. High-efficacy teachers favored humanistic management practices which stress student autonomy (Huber et al., 2016).

Teachers' self-efficacy may promote students' sense of efficacy, fostering their involvement in-class activities and their efforts to face difficulties. When teachers are highly efficacious, their students have a high level of academic achievement, autonomy and motivation, and a firm belief in their own efficacy (Barni et al., 2019). Furthermore, teachers' sense of efficacy is considered a significant predictor of effective teaching practices. Teachers' efficacy has been a few variables consistently related to positive teaching behavior and student outcomes (Muijs & Reynolds, 2015).

Additionally, teachers' sense of self-efficacy has positively related to teachers' instructional behavior and student outcomes (Ross et al., 2012). Understanding teachers' attributions and efficacy beliefs provide the foundations for work to support teachers. They suggested that colleagues and school leaders play a significant role in supporting teachers' beliefs in their efficacy in managing children's behavior. Given the increasing challenging behaviors experienced by teachers, teacher efficacy may reduce as a consequence. Therefore, skillful and discrete individual work with that teacher may help her re-experience herself as effective and regain her belief in her efficacy as a successful classroom manager (Gibbs and Miller, 2014).

Compared to teachers with lower self-efficacy beliefs, it is reported that teachers with strong self-efficacy perceptions are highly efficacious in using classroom management skills. Those teachers tend to employ classroom management strategies that are more organized, better planned, student-centered and humanistic, and more receptive to student ideas. In terms of control, it is indicated that the teachers of high self-efficacy scored higher levels in controlling beliefs about classroom management than those teachers who had low self-efficacy levels. More efficacious teachers use positive strategies for classroom management (Bay, 2020).

In the field of teaching, this study has identified the dimensions of teachers' self-efficacy. These dimensions include efficacy to influence decision making, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate (Bandura, 1977).

Efficacy to Enlist Decision-Making. The first domain of teacher self-efficacy is efficacy to influence decision making. Teachers' participation in the decisions that affected their work lives had borne on their sense of efficacy in this domain. Teachers who perceived that they had a more significant influence in school-based decision-making and perceived fewer impediments to teaching had a stronger sense of efficacy (Guhao, 2016).

Teacher self-efficacy refers to their perceived ability to meet the demands and challenges implied by the job and ultimately affect students' learning. Teachers with high self-efficacy set more ambitious standards for themselves and students, put more effort and persist more prolonged, and are more likely to succeed. Participatory decision-making empowers teachers by delegating authority and responsibility to them, thus strengthening their perceptions of personal ability and fostering their belief that they can create the desired results. Moreover, teacher self-efficacy is a motivational trait linked to team performance (Sarafidou & Chatziioannidis, 2013).

It is argued that teachers with high self-efficacy levels are more likely to create the appropriate conditions and prioritize an interpersonal network construct that provides job satisfaction. Participation in school decision-making can create an environment where teachers feel valued and contribute to school goals, thus increasing their efficacy and professional fulfillment. In fact, ambitious teachers are less satisfied with their job if the working environment does not provide them with a challenging workplace. Many authors argued about the positive effect of teacher participation in school decision-making on teachers' satisfaction with their job (Mitchell, 2019).

Furthermore, participation in school decision-making is a complex task that refers to the extent of involvement in different decision-making areas, approached with different levels of desire and power sources. Decision-making refers to various aspects of school life, from curriculum and instructional

coordination to students' attendance and discipline and from staff development and personnel issues to allocating resources and general administration. Participation differs according to the domain of decisions, as principals tend to involve teachers more in the technical domain of students' and instructional issues than in the school administration and management domain (Gemechu, 2014).

Instructional Efficacy. A teacher's sense of efficacy is a significant predictor of effective teaching practices than a teacher with a lower efficacy. Teachers with strong perceptions of efficacy tend to use classroom strategies that are well organized and student-centered. They further added that there is a positive link between teacher efficacy and student achievement. According to the study, teachers promote student achievement by teaching effective learning strategies, but they also promote their belief that they can control their success (Mitchell, 2019).

Teacher instructional efficacy refers to the extent to which the teacher believes they can instruct students, which results in affecting student performance. Teacher instructional efficacy is essential to the success of a student and the class as a whole. A variety of studies suggest that teachers with high efficacy beliefs performed better on achievement tests than their peers with low efficacy beliefs. Low teacher efficacy beliefs have also been linked to low expectations of student achievement (Barni et al., 2019).

More so, high efficacy teachers confront educational challenges and willingly experiment with newly developed teaching strategies while low efficacy teachers view strategies, such as differentiation, as an unmanageable challenge. Overall, teachers of high efficacy spend more time monitoring their students overall and are able to maintain student engagement in artful ways whereas low efficacious teachers tend to seek out reliable students to answer, allow outbursts, or even answer themselves, all to avoid the uncertain or incorrect answers. This behavior further depletes the confidence, engagement, and risk taking efforts of students who may be unsure of themselves (Freeman, 2008).

Similarly, Lazarides and Warner (2020) mentioned that research shows that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy are more open to new teaching methods, set themselves more challenging goals, exhibit a greater level of planning and organization, direct their efforts at solving problems, seek assistance, and adjust their teaching strategies when faced with difficulties. These efforts pay off for self-efficacious teachers themselves, who have been found to be affected by burnout less often and are more satisfied in their jobs but also for their students, who show more motivation, academic adjustment, and achievement. While self-efficacy of the individual teacher explains how the individual teacher's beliefs relate to students' academic development, collective teacher efficacy helps to understand the differential effect of faculty and whole schools on student outcomes. Consequently, systematically exploring effective techniques to increase teacher self-efficacy is highly relevant to the teaching context.

Disciplinary Self-Efficacy. Disciplinary efficacy is the efficacy for controlling disruptive behavior, calming and responding to defiant students, establishing a routine, and keeping learning activities running smoothly (Aloe, Amo & Shanahan, 2014). When teachers lack efficacy in these areas, they struggle to maintain a productive and healthy classroom environment. When the classroom environment is disrupted, all individuals within the classroom are negatively affected (Pace, Boykins, & Davis, 2014).

Teacher self-efficacy in classroom management is an ongoing struggle for novice or beginning teachers, those with zero to five years of experience, and veteran teachers, those with more than five years of experience. The teacher must be competent in maintaining classroom order, organizing a classroom, and gaining and maintaining all the students' attention and participation. This is also known as classroom management self-efficacy (CMSE), including disciplinary efficacy (Carr, 2013).

Teachers' appropriate discipline strategies also help students to learn better as class discipline protects students from disruption and thus emotional and cognitive threat. Research shows that teacher management styles maximize students' academic performance and keep them on task, engage students in learning, and influence their motivation and achievement. In this cycle, the more that students perceive their teacher cares about them, the more the students will care about the class, and the more likely they will be to pay attention in class and consequently learn more course material (Rahimi & Karkami, 2015).

Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement. Teachers are viewed as the first school contact, and through their support of parental involvement, student achievement is increased. They have opinions, beliefs, and prior experiences, which may influence their willingness to encourage parental involvement as a method of improving student success. Teachers generally have a professional responsibility to promote parental involvement (Walker, 2017).

Parents who are involved with their children's learning may help influence them to do well at school. Research suggests that students who have parents involved in their learning tend to exhibit positive school behaviors such as better attendance, improved grades, and higher graduation rates. Many educators tend to view parent involvement as something parents can do to help them in class or as something not integral to daily instruction (Newchurch, 2017).

Parents who are actively included in their child's education feel more confident in supporting their child at home and rate the teacher more favourably on interpersonal and teaching skills, and support from parents also make teachers more effective and confident in their instructional practice. The quality of teacher-parent collaboration may also affect the teachers' perceptions of the child. When teachers and parents share a positive relationship, teachers rate the students' social skills more favourably and view the students' externalizing difficulties as less problematic (Minke et al., 2014).

Efficacy of Enlisting Community Involvement. Communities that supported their school wholeheartedly had more effective schools. Those communities that did not provide support will have less effective schools than they could be. Every school needed more community support. Research had proven that schools with a more significant support entity thrived than those who did not have such support. School support comes from a variety of places, both internally and externally (Guhao, 2016).

An effective school leader will find ways to get the entire community to support the school (Hou et al., 2019). The school leader, like teachers, must be productive in persuading the community to take part in education since students may benefit a lot from the school where the members of the community were actively involved in various activities of the school.

Teachers' perceived sense of community directly relates to their self-efficacy (Collie, Shapka, & Perry, 2012). Strong sense of community has been shown to produce high self-efficacy, which can improve teacher performance and persistence as well as improve student outcomes (Aloe et al., 2014). Strong teacher self-efficacy has benefits to all school stakeholders. Benefits to teachers include lower incidence of burnout (Aloe et al., 2014; Sariçam & Sakız, 2014), greater perseverance, openness to new ideas, and better planning and organization. Student benefits include increased motivation, greater self-efficacy, and less critical teachers, which will promote better self-esteem in students and inspire them to work to the best of their abilities. Further, school districts as a whole benefit when teachers feel connected and important because they are willing to persevere through difficult circumstances for the benefit of the school and students (Sinkonis, 2018).

Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate. A potentially important element of teachers' environments related to self-efficacy is the climate of the school. Stronger self-efficacy beliefs have been found among teachers who have perceived a positive school atmosphere and a strong press for academic achievement among the staff in their schools (Barni et al., 2019).

Even though educational leaders make the most decisions, teachers have the most contact with students throughout the day. Their attitudes about their profession can positively or negatively affect the student and the school. Teachers who display a positive passion for teaching and positive morale significantly influence students and the school. In contrast, teachers who have a negative disposition have a negative impact on students and the school. Educational leaders face the challenge of curtailing the hurtful mindset of such teachers and reset it to positive morale in which teachers desire to affect student achievement positively (Lacks, 2016).

Some studies had been conducted about teachers' self-efficacy. Guenther (2014) conducted a quantitative study from 46 teacher respondents in one Saskatchewan school division using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). It was revealed that teacher levels of self-efficacy were predominantly in the moderate and high levels. Meanwhile, Barni et al. (2019) mentioned that teachers' high level of self-efficacy shows open-mindedness, having high communication skills, cooperative working desire, willingness to learn, plan and harmony, patient, tolerant, gentle and wise manner of teachers.

The global pandemic has affected teachers' self-efficacy. In fact, a study conducted by Cataudella et al. (2021) revealed that teachers' self-efficacy is lower during the pandemic. Furthermore, self-efficacy also decreases in teachers with greater service seniority at work. Teachers perceived a greater difficulty in students than in their own difficulty. The coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic led education institutions to move all face-to-face (F2F) courses online. Kundu and Bej (2021) revealed in their study that teachers viewed positively to this shift from F2F to online teaching-learning (OTL). They were found to have an overall moderate level of online teaching efficacy and where good efficacy prevails there found minimal concern for infrastructure.

In the study of Baloran and Hernan (2020), they found out that Filipino teachers' positive outlook amid psychological stress or anxiety was seen. Teachers indeed had to face work and life changes during the pandemic situation. Moreover, teachers face challenges with the online-blended learning approach as they embrace the new normal in teaching. Schools are still challenged to fill the gaps in providing Information and Communication Technology (ICT) resources and capacities of both teachers and students as they embrace the paradigm shift in pedagogical delivery. Committed teachers recognize and endeavor to fulfill their responsibilities to their students. Despite the pandemic, high self-efficacy is still observed from them.

Instructional Practices of Teachers

Instructional practices are techniques that teachers use to help students become independent and strategic learners. These strategies become learning strategies when students select the ones and use them to accomplish tasks or meet goals. In this study, instructional practices were used to describe planning strategies, instructional strategies, and the assessment practices of teachers. Instructional practices are about ongoing interaction between teachers and their students through the elements of teaching and learning (Blazar & Kraft, 2017).

It is understood as the concept of all the actions performed by the teacher aim to create and maintain a learning environment that enables successful instruction. This includes a diversity of techniques, like organizing the physical environment, creating rules and procedures, preserving students' attention to lessons, and commitment in activities. Instructional practices are a matter of concern among teachers everywhere. From a fresh perspective, we should consider cognitive development as the basis for groupings of students in all curriculum levels (Francisco & Celon, 2020).

Effective instructional practices are not methods of teaching, but rather a series of characteristics, which can be embedded into a range of teaching. It is a practices involves implementing strategies in planning, managing, delivering, and evaluating instruction. Good teachers clearly define what they want their students to learn through goals, objectives, and student outcomes and establish a positive classroom environment (Peterson, 2011).

Instructional practices and an inviting student-centered classroom that is safe and free from harsh criticism increase student motivation for learning. Teachers who foster self-esteem increase student motivation for learning (Ferkany, 2008). Teachers can enhance student belief systems and confidence by having a strong Student self-esteem is facilitated within the culture of the school and classroom environment, which are interrelated with teacher practices and instruction. It is important for all students to believe they can succeed based on their own efforts (Geary, 2009).

When it comes to implementing instruction, effective teachers use the following strategies: maintain a high rate of engagement, provide students with tasks that ensure a high rate of success, review previous work at the start of the lesson, question students frequently to check understanding, allow for guided and independent practice, provide immediate feedback, use cumulative reviews and lastly use student progress data to make instructional decisions

(Ysseldyke, 2001). With all the instructional strategies available, classroom teachers must determine which strategies to employ with the right students at the right time (Marzano, 2007).

Teacher directed instruction, collaboration, and instructional grouping practices emerged as effective instructional practices for inclusion. Marzano (2007) reminded teachers that research will never be able to identify instructional strategies that work with every student in every class. Inclusion can never be successful with only one method (King-Sears, 1997). The best research can do is inform teachers which strategies have a good chance of working well with students. It is the individual classroom teachers who must determine which strategies to employ with the right students at the right time. Effective teaching is a dynamic mixture of expertise in a vast array of instructional strategies combined with a profound understanding of the individual students in class and their needs at particular points in time (Marzano, 2007).

Educators need to be mindful of instructional strategies that implement curriculum with relevant and meaningful learning activities that provide optimal challenges for all types of learners, highlighting meaningful learning goals and providing moderate structure that result in higher student engagement. Teachers who do not provide enough structure or support hinder students from developing the prerequisite skills necessary for academic achievement (Jang et al., 2010). Instruction that is based on individual student learning profiles, learning preferences, interests, and needs fosters student engagement and increases academic performance (Phan, 2010).

Students' affective responses, past learning experiences, and knowledge they bring to the learning environment guide teacher instructional methods and are positively correlated to student learning outcomes (Kazu, 2009). Academic performance is significantly connected to instructional and classroom practices designed to foster student self-esteem, motivation, and engagement in the LRE for enhanced academic performance (Nie & Lau, 2010). To ensure autonomy and structure, teacher practices should initiate learning activities with clear and detailed expectations, provide helpful guidance, and scaffold lessons to ensure all students are learning (Jang et al., 2010).

Inclusion of practices and its success is dependent on instructional practices and the use of differentiated instruction. Inclusion works for all students based on individual student learning needs as well as the intent to provide students self-determination skills that foster a foundation for learning beyond content-specific curriculum. Inclusion is a concept that has been drawing attention for several years based on the premise that students with and without disabilities can benefit from increased opportunities with each other (Clark, 2005).

Instructional practices that are differentiated considers individual learning styles across settings and classroom factors and also uses data from a variety of informal alternative methods of assessment to design lessons based on student strengths and weaknesses (Corno, 2008). The ethics of teaching with a pedagogical obligation for stakeholders to come together and disclose their scholarly judgment and knowledge to inform instructional practices that provide students with an accurate picture of the content that fosters self-examination and reflection to encourage further learning (Fisher, 2012).

Studies have highlighted the role of differentiation in the instructional practices of the teachers in their classroom contexts. Particularly, Baecher, Rorimer, and Smith (2012) reported 10 principles for effective instructional practices based on the tenets of differentiated instruction that they believe need to direct the teachers in their instructional practices. In addition to emphasizing the principles, the amount of time that is actually devoted to differentiation is also crucial to note (Azano et al., 2011).

There is evidence that teachers who use differentiated instruction based on their learners' needs enable their learners to attain educational gains (Kanevsky, 2011) considers the implementation of research supported instructional practices, such as humanistic approaches to learning. Hence, differentiating instruction by means of using a number of practices would be of value, particularly to the learners. One way of differentiating instruction is through the degree of support a teacher provides learners, namely the zone of proximal development. In this well-known practice, the teacher attempts to help the learners discover the learning objectives and scaffolds their discovery learning through providing feedback or clarification when needed.

Another factor that is presumed to be conducive to the instructional practice of the teachers in the classroom is the expectancy of teachers in the learning skills and capacities of their learners. When a teacher's expectation of learner performance is not very high, then they tend to employ the objectives of the established curriculum in lower than common levels. Teacher's belief about their own specialty and degree of knowledge can also impact the instructional practice (Azano et al., 2011).

Expertise can be evaluated based on the instructional readiness. Instructional readiness is influenced by the teaching experience of the teacher, how much professional development a teacher has gained, teacher certification, and teacher readiness. Quality of teaching is not only impacted by teachers' beliefs in their learners' skills to learn but also in their beliefs about their own capacities to perform the lessons. Teachers' feelings of incompetence and ineffectiveness to carry out their job could impact their learners' eagerness to learn (Khanshan & Yousefi, 2020).

Hong, Greene and Higgins (2006, 2015) have identified three dimensions which are essential for the betterment of instructional practices. These dimensions are cognitive, interpersonal and intrapersonal.

Cognitive. The first dimension of instructional practices is cognitive. The genesis of cognitive strategies and cognitive strategy instruction lies in the field of psychology. From the ashes of behaviorism and after 50 years of denying the existence of the mind, cognitive psychologists began to focus on the mind exclusively, thinking about how humans process, organize and store incoming information in memory. Many early cognitive researchers represented the mental processing that occurs in the mind as general activities or cognitive strategies for handling incoming information as well as metacognitive strategies for monitoring and evaluating the understanding of that information (Dole & Nokes, 2009). It is these constructs that form the foundation of cognitive strategy instruction.

Instruction which is an integral part of effective teaching has been defined by Hiebert and Grouws (2007) as the interactions between teachers, students, and content directed toward helping students achieve learning goals. Instruction is instrumental in delivering the information and therefore should be focused on for continual improvement through the use of modern technologies available. Research by Metzger and Manivann (2002) showed that active learning allows students to continuously probe their understanding and promote their meta-cognition and awareness of the thinking process.

In classroom instruction, teachers use cognitive strategies. These cognitive strategies are useful tools in assisting students with learning problems. The term "cognitive strategies" in its simplest form is the use of the mind (cognition) to solve a problem or complete a task. Cognitive strategies may also be referred to as procedural facilitators, procedural prompts or scaffolds. A related term is metacognition, the self-reflection or "thinking about thinking" necessary for students to learn effectively (Baker, Gersten, & Scanlon, 2002).

Interpersonal. It is another dimension of instructional practices. Rusman (2017) defined learning as a process of interaction toward all situations that exist around the students. Students' learning process especially in primary school is very influenced by the aspects of the inside and the surrounding environment. Both of these cannot be separated because the learning process occurs in the context of the students' self-interaction with their environment (Rusman, 2017). One of the activities as the implementation of the interaction is interpersonal communication (Suranto, 2011).

Interpersonal communication has many benefits, not only to support the success of the students' interaction in learning but also to establish and maintain good a relationship between individuals, to help convey knowledge or information, to change attitudes and behaviors, to help solve problems of human relationships, to improve self-image, and to make the way to success (Suranto, 2011). While the benefits of interpersonal communication according to Singh and Laironpuii (2014) are the capability to report and work with various people, to handle conflict, to negotiate differences, to make an objective requests effectively and efficiently, to be open to the ideas of others and willing to express their views on important things in the process of solving the problem. In order to improve students' interpersonal skill, teachers need to provide students with varied activities that would motivate them to interact.

Based on the description of the nature of learning, it can be concluded that the purpose of learning will be achieved if there is an interaction between students and their environment. This statement is also accordance with Low, Chong and Ellis's opinion that critical component of teaching is effective communication skills. If there is a mismatch between what was intended to be conveyed and what is conveyed, then ineffective teaching outcomes even the best teaching decisions can be brought out (Boztepe, 2017).

Intrapersonal. Another dimension of instructional practices is intrapersonal. Most students spend about six hours a day, five days a week in a classroom with 25 to 35 other people. For individuals with strongly developed intrapersonal intelligence and an introverted personality, this intensely social atmosphere can be somewhat claustrophobic. Hence, teachers need to build in frequent opportunities during the day for students to experience themselves as autonomous beings with unique life histories and a sense of deep individuality (Armstrong, 2009).

Teaching strategies that develop intrapersonal intelligence as one minute periods of reflection is very important, These periods give students time to assimilate the information presented or to relate it to their own lives, also involve a change of pace that helps them stay tuned for the next activity. Tasks related to personal relationships are suggested (Armstrong, 2006). According Rubio (2002), there are some types of activities that develop intrapersonal intelligence depending on the content: contextual and personal.

Self-Efficacy and Instructional Practices of Teachers

Teachers' self-efficacy in classroom management is a dimension of teachers' self-efficacy, and refers to teachers' beliefs about their capabilities to organize and execute actions that lead to a positive learning environment (Dicke et al., 2014). Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) found relations between teacher efficacy (i.e., confidence in positively managing the classroom) and student achievement.

Generally, teachers with higher self-efficacy are more likely to manage the classroom effectively (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk, & Hoy, 2007), show higher instructional quality (Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, 2013), use more differentiated instruction and constructivism (Suprayogi, Valcke, & Godwin, 2017), develop challenging lessons (Deemer, 2004), use classroom management and instructional methods to encourage student autonomy, and keep students on task (Chao et al., 2017; Miller et al., 2017). Dicke et al. (2014) specifically investigated the role of teachers' self-efficacy in classroom management and argued that lower levels of self-efficacy in classroom management predicts emotional exhaustion via classroom disturbances.

Teachers' self-efficacy is an important motivational construct that shapes teachers' thoughts, behaviors, and emotions (Pendergast et al, 2011). Studies suggest teachers' with high self-efficacy create positive classroom learning environments with high-quality lesson planning, meaningful instruction, and effective classroom management (Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990). Teachers who report greater self-efficacy in the school environment report closer relationships with students (Hamre, Pianta, Downer, & Mashburn, 2008), and interact in ways that enhance students' behavioral functioning (Poulou, 2017).

Although Bandura argued that efficacy beliefs are partly formed by actual skills and knowledge, which independently contribute to performance (Bandura, 1977), there are limited studies linking teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in classroom practices and how teachers actually utilize these practices in their classroom. In fact, most of the studies on teachers' self-efficacy and classroom practices are based on teachers' self-reports of both constructs (Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011). While self-report research is appropriate, there is a need to expand research to examine teachers' self-reported efficacy with other methods, such as classroom observations of teachers' classroom practices (Holzberger et al., 2013). This is especially true for how teachers' self-efficacy of classroom management strategies relate to actual classroom management practices in schools (Gibbs & Powell, 2012).

Compared to teachers' self-reports of classroom management practices, the use of externally conducted observations can serve as an alternative, more objective assessment of the classroom (Pas, Cash, O' Brennan, Denham, & Bradshaw, 2015). Classroom observations are almost universally used to assess classroom teachers' effectiveness worldwide (Cohen & Goldhaber, 2016; Grossman, Cohen, Ronfeldt, & Brown, 2014; Martin & Sass, 2010). Typically, classroom observations describe teachers' instructional practices, provide formative feedback to teachers, and facilitate teachers' adoption of or changes in instructional practices (Halpin & Kieffer, 2015).

Synthesis

The gathered relevant literature and studies firmly validated the relationship of the variables in this study. It also provided varied inputs for each variable. It was presented in this section that teacher self-efficacy is linked to instructional practices of teachers as supported by several studies. The presentations and discussions of related studies offered essential information which would be valuable in the professional discussion of the findings of the study and in the sound formation of the recommendations.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

This study was aligned with self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy theory was originated from Social Cognitive Theory by Albert Bandura. Bandura defined self-efficacy as the belief about one's capabilities to organize and execute a certain task (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy beliefs influence thought patterns and emotions, which in turn enable or inhibit actions. According to Bandura's theory, self-efficacy has two components: efficacy expectation and outcome expectancy. The former is the conviction that one has the ability, knowledge, and skills to successfully execute the behavior or actions required to produce the desired outcome(s). The latter represents a person's estimate of the likely consequences (impact) of performing a task at the self-expected level of performance.

Specifically, in an educational context, teacher self-efficacy is the teacher's personal (i.e., self-perceived) belief in planning instruction and accomplishing instructional objectives. It is, in effect, the conviction the teacher has about their competency to teach pupils efficiently and effectively. Teacher competency is based on self-efficacy (beliefs on own abilities) and lack of self-efficacy causes many psychological problems such as low confidence level and low self-esteem (Shahzad & Naureen, 2017).

Self-efficacy highly influences an individual's action, effort and the way of accomplishing tasks resulting in enhanced abilities and makes one more confident about the desired results. Bandura (2002), states that forethought and outcome expectations can help to master a situation and achieve the desired targets. It has been noticed that teachers with a high level of self-efficacy have a positive attitude towards everything. They always have control on their emotions, as a result they seldom display their anger in front of their students and this attitude assures high achievement. Teachers with high level of self-efficacy are open to new methods and have the ability to adopt new techniques and teaching competencies for professional development (Shahzad & Naureen, 2017).

Self-efficacy is teachers' beliefs in their ability to affect the expected outcome of student performance (Isbell & Szabo, 2015). Rooted in social learning theory, behaviorism, locus-of-control theory, and social-cognitive theory, Bandura (1977) developed a general theory of self-efficacy in 1977. While dependent upon an abundance of variables and influenced by many factors, personal self-efficacy determines what activities individuals will seek out or avoid (Bandura, 1977). Those with strong self-efficacy for certain tasks will seek out those tasks. Conversely, those with low self-efficacy will avoid tasks in which they do not feel able to meet demands or expectations (Bandura, 1977).

Although teacher self-efficacy does not directly correlate to student performance (Bandura, 2012), it is a component in student outcomes. Teachers with high self-efficacy will persevere with difficult students (Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988; Armor et al., 1976; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Moore & Esselman, 1992; Podell & Soodak, 1993; Ross, 1992; Soodak & Podell, 1993). Additionally, self-efficacy affects teacher performance in better classroom management, improved instructional strategies, and increased student engagement (Allinder, 1994).

Bandura (1986) explained the relationship of self-efficacy and social cognitive theory. The ability to anticipate consequences is one cognitive origin of motivation. Individuals will engage in activities in which they predict favorable outcomes but avoid pursuits where they foresee failure. Another cognitive origin of motivation is making self-rewarding choices (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1977) stated that the concept of self-efficacy is assigned a central role, for analyzing changes achieved in fearful and avoidant behavior. An individual's self-efficacy predicts future performance because self-efficacy provides an expectation of success or failure, and those expectations determine how much effort the individual makes. Further, the higher the self-efficacy, the greater effort will be made (Bandura, 1977).

Figure 1 show the conceptual model of the study. It focuses on the level of teachers' self-efficacy. It is considered as the independent variable of the study. This has six indicators, namely: efficacy to influence decision making; instructional self-efficacy; disciplinary self-efficacy; efficacy to enlist parental involvement; efficacy to enlist community involvement; and efficacy to create a positive school climate (Bandura, 1977). In this study, efficacy to influence decision making refers to the efficacy of making intuitive decision-making. Instructional self-efficacy refers to the efficacy of teachers in giving instructions. Disciplinary self-efficacy refers to the efficacy of teachers in giving disciplinary actions. Efficacy to enlist parental involvement refers to the efficacy of teachers in encouraging parents to get involved. Efficacy to enlist community involvement refers to the efficacy of teachers to encourage the community to get involved in the school activities. Efficacy to create a positive school climate refers to the efficacy of teachers to create a learning environment conducive to learners.

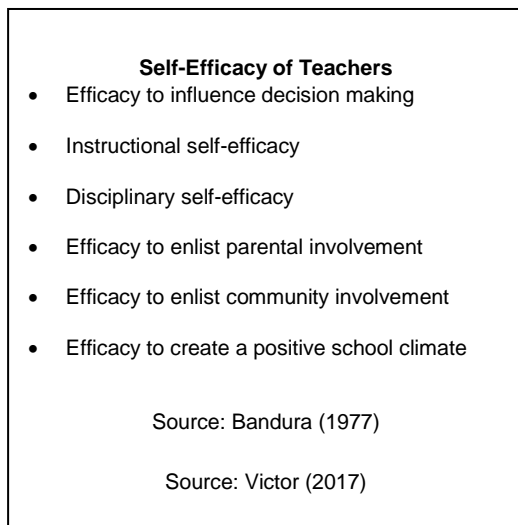
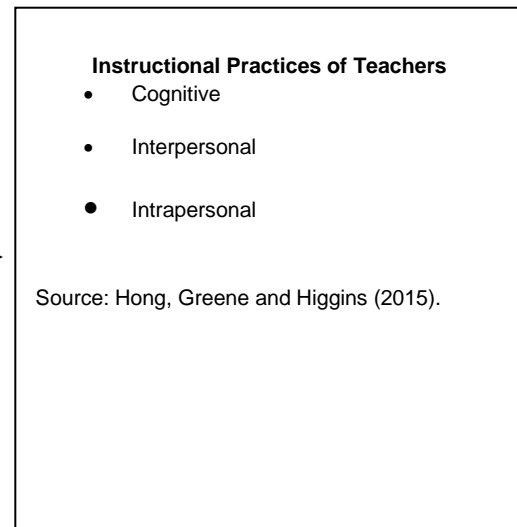
INDEPENDENT VARIABLE**DEPENDENT VARIABLE**

Figure 1. The Conceptual Framework of the Study

Meanwhile, the dependent variable is instructional practices. It has three indicators, namely: cognitive, interpersonal, intrapersonal (Hong, Greene & Higgins, 2015). In this study, cognitive which is related to instructional practices of teachers aiming to develop the cognitive aspect of the students, interpersonal refers to the instructional practices of teachers which aim to promote the social aspect of the students and intrapersonal refers to the instructional practices of teachers that aim to help students on self-discovery.

Statement of the Problem

This study determined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of selected public kindergarten teachers in Davao del Norte Division. More specifically, it sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of:
 - 1.1 efficacy to influence decision making,
 - 1.2 instructional self-efficacy,
 - 1.3 disciplinary self-efficacy,
 - 1.4 efficacy to enlist parental involvement,
 - 1.5 efficacy to enlist community involvement, and
 - 1.6 efficacy to create a positive school climate?
2. What is the extent of instructional practices of public secondary teachers in terms of:
 - 2.1 cognitive;
 - 2.2 interpersonal; and
 - 2.3 intrapersonal?
3. Is there a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers?
4. Which domains of teacher self-efficacy significantly influence the instructional practices of teachers?

Hypothesis

The null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance:

Ho1. There is no significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers.

Ho2. None of the domains of teacher self-efficacy significantly influence the instructional practices of teachers.

This research undertaking may lead a way to gain a reflective understanding and insights regarding improving teachers' instructional practices with the help of being exposed to varied professional learning communities. Apparently, it is really important for any teachers to engage into practices that would lead to teaching effectiveness. In this research pursuit, it is believed that the being exposed to professional learning communities may influence teachers'

instructional practices. With this, it is a must that all school principals must know how to identify the different needs of teachers when it comes to professional developments in order to encourage them to be effective in teaching by strengthening their instructional practices.

This study would be beneficial to relevant institutions, namely: policy makers, school principals, teachers, and researchers. This would aid the beneficiaries to create policies, programs, interventions, and projects that would lead to teaching effectiveness.

DepEd Officials. This undertaking may give ideas to the higher officials on how to help teachers be acquainted of the trends when it comes to instructional practices. Sustainable programs, projects, interventions, activities may be crafted by these policymakers which are relevant to professional learning communities that may aid teachers to be innovative in developing instructional practices.

School Principals. This study would guide the school principals to reflect of their own actions on how they could empower their teachers by allowing them to be engaged to varied professional learning communities. This undertaking would also help school leaders to craft varied developmental plans and other engaging activities helping teachers to be innovative in their instructional practices.

Teachers. This study would serve as an opportunity for teachers to assess themselves of the kind of teaching they employ and their means to achieve teaching effectiveness by crafting or developing varied instructional practices. This study would also serve as an eye-opener for teachers that they have always counterpart in attaining holistic development to students by means of upgrading their ways of teaching.

Future Researchers. This endeavor may serve as a paradigm model for future researchers. Also, future researchers may explore other factors relevant to teaching effectiveness which have not been explored in this current study. Considering other research approach may also provide an in-depth analysis about teaching effectiveness.

Important terms were being defined conceptually and operationally in order to provide a clear view of the content of this study.

Teacher Self-Efficacy. This refers to a teacher's belief in his/her ability to successfully cope with tasks, obligations and challenges related to his/her professional role such as didactical tasks, and managing discipline problems in the class (Barni et al., 2019; [Caprara et al., 2006](#)). In this study, it refers to six dimensions, namely: efficacy to influence decision making; instructional self-efficacy; disciplinary self-efficacy; efficacy to enlist parental involvement; efficacy to enlist community involvement; and efficacy to create a positive school climate.

Instructional Practices. It refers to how information is delivered, received, and experienced by students (IGI Global, 2022). In this study, it refers to cognitive, interpersonal, and intrapersonal (Hong, Greene & Higgins, 2015).

2. Method

This chapter introduces the methodological aspect of the study. This covers the research design, research respondents, research instruments, data gathering procedure and data analysis which were employed on this investigation.

Research Design

This study was a quantitative research approach utilizing the descriptive correlational approach. Quantitative research is a way to learn about a particular group of people, known as a sample population. Using scientific inquiry, quantitative research relies on data that are observed or measured to examine questions about the sample population. It is used by social scientists, including communication researchers, to observe phenomena or occurrences affecting individuals. The purpose of quantitative research is to generate knowledge and create understanding about the social world (Allen, 2017). Moreover, a descriptive correlation study is a study in which the researcher is primarily interested in describing the relationships between variables without attempting to establish a causal relationship (Noah, 2021).

Meanwhile, in descriptive research, the researcher does not manipulate the variables in the study. It simply intends to describe the nature of the involved variables (Fox, 2007; Korrapati, 2016). On the other hand, correlational [research design](#) explores and measures the relationship between the variables of the study with no attempt of manipulating them. Also, correlation investigates the strength and direction of the variables. This can be a positive direction or a negative direction, and a strong and a weak relationship.

This study was considered as quantitative since it depended on the numerical data when analyzing and interpreting the data. It was descriptive since its purpose was to determine the extent of teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers. In addition, this academic pursuit was correlational since its purpose was to measure the connection between teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers of public kindergarten schools in the Davao del Norte Division.

Research Respondents

This study catered the 120 public kindergarten teachers in the Division of Davao del Norte. It was claimed that 120 samples were enough when testing the regression analysis (Hair et al., 2018). Hence, the 120 respondents were enough to address the purpose of this study.

Probability sampling specifically two-staged cluster sampling was used to identify the sample of the study. It is a kind of sampling technique in which the likelihood or probability of each piece being included may be defined. In other words, every member of the population must have an equal and independent probability of being included in the sample (Ragab & Arisha, 2018). Cluster sampling is a popular method in conducting researches wherein the population is being divided into different clusters. A cluster is a group of elements that are made up of individual units that represent mutually

exclusive and exhaustive subsets (Thomas, 2020). It is two-staged cluster sampling since the sample of elements from each selected cluster or division is chosen randomly. In the context of the study, all kindergarten teachers from the public schools in Davao del Norte Division were considered.

In the inclusion and exclusion criteria, kindergarten teachers with 3 years teaching experience were chosen in this endeavor since their 3 years stay in the public kindergarten schools would help them to assess their teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices. Respondents who felt awkward and uncomfortable in answering the survey questionnaire were free to withdraw from their participation. They were not forced to be part of the study. Their decision to withdraw was respected. Apparently, the respondents' welfare was given utmost importance in the conduct of the study.

Research Instruments

As to the form of gathering data, this study utilized an adapted survey questionnaire. The questionnaire that was employed in this undertaking was divided into two sets. The first set was focusing on teacher self-efficacy while the second set was about the instructional practices of kindergarten teachers.

Teachers' Self-efficacy. The teachers' self-efficacy was adapted from Bandura's Instrument Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale. The instrument comprises 30 items. The instrument was subjected to pilot testing. Below were the scales in interpreting the results for teachers' self-efficacy.

Mean Interval	Descriptive Level	Descriptive Interpretation
4.20-5.00	Very Extensive	The self-efficacy of kindergarten teachers is always evident.
3.40-4.19	Extensive	The self-efficacy of kindergarten teachers is oftentimes evident.
2.60-3.39	Moderately Extensive	The self-efficacy of kindergarten teachers is occasionally evident.
1.80-2.59	Less Extensive	The self-efficacy of kindergarten teachers is seldom evident.
1.00-1.79	Not Extensive	The self-efficacy of kindergarten teachers is never evident.

Instructional Practices. The instructional practices questionnaire was adapted from the study of Hong, Greene and Higgins (2015). It was also subjected to pilot testing which revealed a result of .73 suggesting that the items have relatively *high* internal consistency. The tool has a total of 30 items. It has four variables, namely: cognitive (1-10), interpersonal (1-12), and intrapersonal (1-8). Below was the rating scale of instructional practices.

Mean Interval	Descriptive Level	Descriptive Interpretation
4.20-5.00	Very Extensive	The instructional practices are always evident
3.40-4.19	Extensive	The instructional practices are oftentimes evident
2.60-3.39	Moderately Extensive	The instructional practices are occasionally evident
1.80-2.59	Less Extensive	The instructional practices are seldom evident
1.00-1.79	Not Extensive	The instructional practices are never evident

The instrument in this study was contextualized to achieve the purpose of this study. The researcher incorporated all the comments and suggestions of the adviser, panel members and expert validators for the refinement of the tools and to achieve construct validity.

Data Gathering Procedure

In gathering the data, the researcher followed a strict procedure and protocol.

Permission to conduct the study. After seeking approval to the Dean of Graduate Studies, the researcher asked permission and endorsement from the Department of Education Region XI. After the approval, a request letter was submitted to the office of the Schools Division Superintendents. Upon approval, an endorsement letter was submitted to the School Head.

Distribution and Retrieval of the Questionnaire. After which, a schedule was made for the distribution of the survey questionnaire. In observance to health and safety protocols, the survey questionnaire was personally administered by the researcher but still following the safety health protocols. The rationale was explained to the respondents. They were given an hour to answer the survey. Retrieval of the respondents' responses was automatically recorded and generated in the form.

Collation and Statistical Treatment of Data. All the data gathered were tallied, tabulated, analyzed and interpreted confidentially and accordingly.

Data Analysis

For more comprehensive interpretation and analysis of the data, the following statistical tools were utilized.

Mean. This was used to measure the extent of teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers.

Pearson r. This was utilized to determine the relationships between teacher self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers.

Regression Analysis This was utilized to determine the significant influence of teacher self-efficacy on instructional practices of teachers.

3. Results and Discussion

This chapter presents the results of the study. These are the findings of the problems raised in the previous chapter. They are presented both in the textual and tabular forms.

Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Efficacy to Influence Decision Making

Table 1 reflects the teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to influence decision making. It shows that the overall mean is 4.16, in an extensive level. This means that teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to influence decision making is oftentimes evident.

It can be gleaned from the data that all 5 statements reveal an extensive result. Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows: having contribution to the success of our school. (4.19), influencing the decisions that are made in the school (4.18), and having counterpart in any decision making for the school's improvement (4.17). These items prove that the teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to influence decision making is oftentimes evident.

The findings of this study suggest that teachers have a bigger counterpart in the school's success through their decision-making skills. Their voice, insights, and ideas do matter towards the attainment of school development. Teachers' feedback may be considered by school heads in school improvement since

Table 1. Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Efficacy to Influence Decision Making

No	Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	influencing the decisions that are made in the school.	4.18	Extensive
2	expressing views freely on important school matters.	4.15	Extensive
3	making decisions for the betterment of the school.	4.13	Extensive
4	having contribution to the success of our school.	4.19	Extensive
5	having counterpart in any decision making for the school's improvement.	4.17	Extensive
Overall		4.16	Extensive

teachers are considered as the frontliners and implementers of the school's curriculum. In everything that takes place at school, teachers have been considered as one of the biggest contributions.

The results conformed to the notion of Guhao (2016) stating that teachers' participation in the decisions that affected their work lives had borne on their sense of efficacy in this domain. Teachers who perceived that they had a more significant influence in school-based decision-making and perceived fewer impediments to teaching had a stronger sense of efficacy. Sarafidou and Chatziioannidis (2013) believed that participatory decision-making empowers teachers by delegating authority and responsibility to them, thus strengthening their perceptions of personal ability and fostering their belief that they can create the desired results.

This also confirmed the beliefs of Mitchell (2019) highlighting that participation in school decision-making can create an environment where teachers feel valued and contribute to school goals, thus increasing their efficacy and professional fulfillment. In fact, ambitious teachers are less satisfied with their job if the working environment does not provide them with a challenging workplace. Many authors argued about the positive effect of teacher participation in school decision-making on teachers' satisfaction with their job.

Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Instructional Self-Efficacy

Table 2 reflects the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of instructional self-efficacy. It shows that the overall mean is 4.24, in a very extensive level. This means that the teachers' self-efficacy in terms of instructional self-efficacy is always evident.

As can be gleaned from the data, all 5 statements reveal a very extensive result. Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows: getting students to learn when there is a lack of support from the home (4.28), motivating students who show low interest in schoolwork at home (4.26), and getting through to the most difficult and unresponsive students in our modality (4.25). These items prove that teachers' self-efficacy in terms of instructional self-efficacy is always evident.

The findings of the study simply imply that teachers are truly confident in delivering quality instructions. They help students to learn most especially those who receive less support at home. Part of their teaching also is to motivate students who feel uninspired in doing school activities at home. More so, teachers are confident that they could transform their students from being an unresponsive student to an active one. Apparently, teachers are truly professional in carrying out their tasks most especially to those students who need the help of their teachers whom they look up to as their second parents.

Table 2. Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Instructional Self-Efficacy

No	Instructional Self-Efficacy	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	getting through to the most difficult and unresponsive students in our modality.	4.25	Very Extensive
2	getting students to learn when there is a lack of support from the home	4.28	Very Extensive
3	keeping students to answer difficult activities in the module.	4.20	Very Extensive
4	helping increase students' memory of what they have been taught in previous lessons	4.22	Very Extensive
5	motivating students who show low interest in schoolwork at home.	4.26	Very Extensive
Overall		4.24	Very Extensive

The findings validated the contention of Mitchell (2019) asserting that a teacher's sense of efficacy is a significant predictor of effective teaching practices than a teacher with a lower efficacy. Teachers with strong perceptions of efficacy tend to use classroom strategies that are well organized and student-centered. They further added that there is a positive link between teacher efficacy and student achievement. Teachers promote student achievement by teaching effective learning strategies, but they also promote their belief that they can control their success.

Furthermore, Barni et al. (2019) emphasized that teacher instructional efficacy is essential to the success of a student and the class as a whole. A variety of studies suggest that teachers with high efficacy beliefs performed better on achievement tests than their peers with low efficacy beliefs. Low teacher efficacy beliefs have also been linked to low expectations of student achievement. More so, high efficacy teachers confront educational challenges and willingly experiment with newly developed teaching strategies while low efficacy teachers view strategies, such as differentiation, as an unmanageable challenge.

Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Disciplinary Self-Efficacy

Table 3 exhibits the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of disciplinary self-efficacy. It shows that the overall mean is 4.27, in a very extensive level. This means that the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of disciplinary self-efficacy is always evident.

It is reflected in the data that all 5 statements reveal a very extensive result. Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows: having composed despite students' disruptive behavior (4.29), controlling inappropriate behavior during online class (4.28), and preventing problem behavior in online class (4.27). These items prove that the teachers' self-efficacy in terms of disciplinary self-efficacy is always evident.

The result of the study signifies that teachers are pro in using positive discipline approach to their students. When students are behaving inappropriately, teachers are making an effort to keep their composure intact. Even in online classes, teachers know how to get the attention of their students. They have control over their students' problematic behavior even in online classes. Apparently, regardless of the platform, be it face-to-face or online classes, teachers are expert in managing their classes.

The results of the study conformed to the viewpoint of Carr (2013) establishing that teacher must be competent in maintaining classroom order,

Table 3. Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Disciplinary Self-Efficacy

No	Disciplinary Self-Efficacy	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	having children to follow rules when answering activities.	4.25	Very Extensive
2	controlling inappropriate behavior during online class.	4.28	Very Extensive
3	preventing problem behavior in online class.	4.27	Very Extensive
4	having composed despite students' disruptive behavior.	4.29	Very Extensive
5	imposing discipline in the online class when needed.	4.26	Very Extensive
Overall		4.27	Very Extensive

organizing a classroom, and gaining and maintaining all the students' attention and participation. This is also known as classroom management self-efficacy (CMSE), including disciplinary efficacy. When teachers lack efficacy in these areas, they struggle to maintain a productive and healthy classroom environment. When the classroom environment is disrupted, all individuals within the classroom are negatively affected (Pace, Boykins, & Davis, 2014)

More so, Rahimi and Karkami (2015) emphasized that teachers' appropriate discipline strategies also help students to learn better as class discipline protects students from disruption and thus emotional and cognitive threat. Research shows that teacher management styles maximize students' academic performance and keep them on task, engage students in learning, and influence their motivation and achievement. In this cycle, the more that students perceive their teacher cares about them, the more the students will care about the class, and the more likely they will be to pay attention in class.

Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement

Table 4 reflects the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to

Table 4. Self-Efficacy in terms of Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement

No	Efficacy to Enlist Parental involvement	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	having parents to become involved in school activities.	4.15	Extensive
2	assisting parents in helping their children do well in school.	4.10	Extensive
3	making parents feel comfortable coming to school.	4.11	Extensive
4	encouraging parents to attend school meetings.	4.19	Extensive
5	meeting the parents to discuss about their children's improvement.	4.18	Extensive
Overall		4.15	Extensive

enlist parental involvement. It shows that the overall mean is 4.15, in an extensive level. This means that the teachers' self-efficacy and efficacy to enlist parental involvement is oftentimes evident.

As can be gleaned from the data, all 5 statements reveal an extensive result. Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows: encouraging parents to attend school meetings (4.19), meeting the parents to discuss about their children's improvement (4.18), and having parents to become involved in school activities (4.15). These items prove that teachers' self-efficacy and efficacy to enlist parental involvement is oftentimes evident.

The findings of the study suggest that teachers need to further strengthen their means of fostering connection towards their parents. Oftentimes, teachers are encouraging their parents to attend school meetings and other activities despite the parents' busy schedule at work and at school. More so, teachers are making an effort to contact and communicate with the parents of their students in order to make a discussion with their students' progress. They also encourage their parents to become involved in school activities.

The findings of the study mirrored the beliefs of Newchurch (2017) stating that many educators tend to view parent involvement as something parents can do to help them in class or as something not integral to daily instruction. Parents who are involved with their children's learning may help influence them to do well at school. Research suggests that students who have parents involved in their learning tend to exhibit positive school behaviors such as better attendance, improved grades, and higher graduation rates.

In addition, Walker (2017) underscored that teachers are viewed as the first school contact, and through their support of parental involvement, student achievement is increased. They have opinions, beliefs, and prior experiences, which may influence their willingness to encourage parental involvement as a method of improving student success. Teachers generally have a professional responsibility to promote parental involvement.

Minke et al. (2014) reinforced that when teachers and parents share a positive relationship, teachers rate the students' social skills more favorably and view the students' externalizing difficulties as less problematic.

Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement

Table 5 exhibits the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to enlist community involvement. It shows that the overall mean is 4.26, in a very extensive level. This means that the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to enlist community involvement is always evident.

It is reflected in the data that all 5 statements reveal a very evident result.

Table 5. Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement

No	Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	having community groups involved in working with the school.	4.25	Very Extensive
2	having businesses involved in working with the school.	4.28	Very Extensive
3	having other schools involved in working with the school.	4.22	Very Extensive
4	inviting alumni to be part of school activities	4.26	Very Extensive
5	having local government units to be part of school activities	4.29	Very Extensive
Overall		4.26	Very Extensive

Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows: having local government units to be part of school activities (4.29), having businesses involved in working with the school (4.28), and inviting alumni to be part of school activities (4.48). These items prove that the teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to enlist community involvement is always evident.

The result of the study signifies that teachers are few of the main reasons for gaining a strong partnership with the other stakeholders including local government units and private institutions. As one of the frontliners of the school operations and having direct contacts with all the stakeholders, teachers have the confidence and capacity to invite more local government units to be part of the school activities. They have also access to the private institutions which have become their solid partners in school development. Other than that, teachers are still having contacts with their old students who become alumni and have contribution in the school activities. In fact, these alumni are considered to be major sponsors and donors to whatever transformations that the school has planned.

The results of the study affirm the standpoint of Guhao (2016) emphasizing that communities that supported their school wholeheartedly had more effective schools. Those communities that did not provide support will have less effective schools than they could be. Every school needed more community support. Research had proven that schools with a more significant support entity thrived than those who did not have such support. School support comes from a variety of places, both internally and externally.

As highlighted by Collie et al. (2012), teachers' perceived sense of community directly relates to their self-efficacy. Aloe et al. (2014) emphasized that strong sense of community has been shown to produce high self-efficacy, which can improve teacher performance and persistence as well as improve student outcomes. Strong teacher self-efficacy has benefits to all school stakeholders. Benefits to teachers include lower incidence of burnout (Aloe et al., 2014; Sarıçam & Sakız, 2014), greater perseverance, openness to new ideas, and better planning and organization.

Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Efficacy to Create School Climate

Table 6 exhibits the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to create school climate. It shows that the overall mean is 4.17, in an extensive level. This means that the extent of teachers' self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to create school climate is oftentimes evident.

It is reflected in the data that all 5 statements reveal a very evident result. Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows:

Table 6. Extent of Self-Efficacy in terms of Efficacy to Create School Climate

No	Efficacy to Create School Climate	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	making the school a safe place	4.15	Extensive
2	making the parents enjoy coming to school	4.18	Extensive
3	having the parents to trust teachers	4.17	Extensive
4	helping other teachers with their teaching skills	4.19	Extensive
5	increasing collaboration between teachers and the administration to make the school run effectively	4.16	Extensive
Overall		4.17	Extensive

helping other teachers with their teaching skills (4.19), making the parents enjoy coming to school (4.18), and having the parents to trust teachers (4.17). These items prove that the teachers' self-efficacy in terms efficacy to create school climate is oftentimes evident.

The result of the study signifies that teachers have great contribution in creating a positive school climate. Oftentimes, teachers extend their hand in helping other teachers to improve their teaching skills. They also create a healthy environment with their colleagues and superiors. They also establish a welcoming environment to their parents so that they enjoy coming to school. In addition, teachers make an effort to cultivate a trusting relationship with their parents. Hence, parents feel welcome to attend in any school-related activities.

The results of the study affirmed the claim of Barni et al. (2019) mentioning that teachers' high level of self-efficacy shows open-mindedness, having high communication skills, cooperative working desire, willingness to learn, plan and harmony, patient, tolerant, gentle and wise manner of teachers. A potentially important element of teachers' environments related to self-efficacy is the climate of the school. Stronger self-efficacy beliefs have been found among teachers who have perceived a positive school atmosphere and a strong press for academic achievement among the staff in their schools.

As underscored by Lacks (2016), teachers have the most contact with students throughout the day. Their attitudes about their profession can positively or negatively affect the student and the school. Teachers who display a positive passion for teaching and positive morale significantly influence students and the school. In contrast, teachers who have a negative disposition have a negative impact on students and the school. Educational leaders face the challenge of curtailing the hurtful mindset of such teachers and reset it to positive morale in which teachers desire to affect student achievement positively.

Summary on the Extent of Self-Efficacy

Table 7 provides the summary on the extent of teachers' self-efficacy. It is exhibited that the overall mean of teachers' self-efficacy is 4.21, which is in a very extensive level. This means that teachers' self-efficacy is always evident.

Data show that all indicators have varying results ranging from extensive to very extensive level. As arranged chronologically, disciplinary self-efficacy has the highest mean score (4.27). This is followed by efficacy to enlist community involvement (4.26), instructional self-efficacy (4.24), efficacy to create a positive school climate (4.17), and efficacy to enlist parental involvement (4.15).

With the very extensive self-efficacy of teachers, this reaffirmed the widely held belief of Shahzad and Naureen (2017) highlighting that teachers with high self-efficacy feel that they can be effective with students even in the face of challenging contexts. It involves personal skills and competencies and how

Table 7. Summary on the Extent of Self-Efficacy

No	Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	4.16	Extensive
2	Instructional Self-Efficacy	4.24	Very Extensive
3	Disciplinary Self-Efficacy	4.27	Very Extensive
4	Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement	4.15	Extensive
5	Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement	4.26	Very Extensive
6	Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	4.17	Extensive
Overall		4.21	Very Extensive

contextual factors, such as resources, affect effective teaching and student support. For example, when the school context does not support teachers' efforts to effectively manage their students' learning environment, this can result in lower student academic engagement and more problem behaviors.

In the same vein, Huber et al. (2016) claimed that numerous positive outcomes have been associated with teachers' high sense of self-efficacy. Among these are student achievement, student motivation, management behavior, responsibility for learning, trust, openness, and job satisfaction. Teachers' self-efficacy is also related to classroom organization, instructional strategies, questioning techniques, levels of persistence at a task, degree of risk-taking and innovation, teacher feedback to students, and management of students' on-task time. High-efficacy teachers favored humanistic management practices which stress student autonomy.

Extent of Instructional Practices in terms of Cognitive

Table 8 exhibits the extent of instructional practices in terms of cognitive. It shows that the overall mean is 4.15, in an extensive level. This means that the instructional practices in terms of cognitive are oftentimes evident.

Table 8. Extent of Instructional Practices in terms of Cognitive

No	Cognitive	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	assigning advanced level reading, use advanced text, or provide advanced novels on themes discussed in class.	4.13	Extensive
2	asking students open-ended questions, provide advanced tasks at learning centers, or provide activities to encourage students to generate idea.	4.15	Extensive
3	teaching units on thinking skills, use advanced computer programs, or use puzzles or word searches.	4.14	Extensive
4	providing visual material to be interpreted, engage students in visualization exercises, or assign activities in which students demonstrate visual thinking such as creative artwork or writing.	4.19	Extensive
5	assigning teacher-selected creative writing projects, coach students on writing skills, or assign homework so students can practice learned writing skills on self-selected topics.	4.10	Extensive
6	encouraging students to participate in class discussions, assign creative or expository writing projects, or encourage students to share ideas, information, and interests.	4.18	Extensive
7	incorporating problem-solving activities in the grade level curriculum, provide competitive problem-solving programs, or provide questions that encourage reasoning and logical thinking.	4.16	Extensive
8	encouraging research-based reports, assign book reports, or encourage students to compare and contrast ideas from advanced materials.	4.17	Extensive

9	providing opportunities for students to use prior knowledge when solving problems, encourage students to relate facts to real life, or teach students how information in one situation can be used in another situation.	4.15	Extensive
10	coaching students on ways to distinguish fact from opinion, provide exercise materials for students so they identify information as fact or opinion, or have students gather facts and opinions as part of homework.	4.16	Extensive
11	requiring evidence or proof, encourage students to check for accuracy, or encourage students to evaluate whether information is relevance.	4.14	Extensive
12	encouraging students to ask high-level questions, help students set criteria for high quality, or encourage students to tackle problems that are considered difficult for their grade level.	4.19	Extensive
13	preventing class disruptions during school days.	4.12	Extensive
14	handling student discipline	4.13	Extensive
15	protecting instructional time.	4.10	Extensive
16	supporting teachers	4.15	Extensive
17	dealing with disgruntled parents	4.16	Extensive
18	providing suggestions following classroom observation.	4.17	Extensive
Overall		4.15	Extensive

As revealed from the data that all 18 statements reveal an extensive result. Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows: providing visual material to be interpreted, engage students in visualization exercises, or assign activities in which students demonstrate visual thinking such as creative artwork or writing (4.19), encouraging students to ask high-level questions, help students set criteria for high quality, or encourage students to tackle problems that are considered difficult for their grade level. (4.19), and encouraging students to participate in class discussions, assign creative or expository writing projects, or encourage students to share ideas, information, and interests (4.18). These items prove that the instructional practices in terms of cognitive are oftentimes evident.

The findings of the study denote that one of the main responsibilities of teachers is to tap the cognitive skills of the students. To achieve this, teachers are giving students some mind-boggling activities such as providing visual material to be interpreted, engaging students in visualization exercises, or assigning activities in which students demonstrate visual thinking such as creative artwork or writing. They also encourage students to entertain hypothetical questions and make a critical analysis on every situation that they are into. More so, they invite their students to participate in class discussions that would help them come up with novel ideas.

More so, the results of this undertaking reflected the idea of Baker et al. (2002) citing that in classroom instruction, teachers use cognitive strategies. These cognitive strategies are useful tools in assisting students with learning problems. The term "cognitive strategies" in its simplest form is the use of the mind (cognition) to solve a problem or complete a task. Cognitive strategies may also be referred to as procedural facilitators, procedural prompts or scaffolds. A related term is metacognition, the self-reflection or "thinking about thinking" necessary for students to learn effectively.

Furthermore, Hiebert and Grouws (2007) emphasized that instruction which is an integral part of effective teaching has been defined by as the interactions between teachers, students, and content directed toward helping students achieve learning goals. Instruction is instrumental in delivering the information and therefore should be focused on for continual improvement through the use of modern technologies available. Research by Metzger and Manivann (2002) showed that active learning allows students to continuously probe their understanding and promote their meta-cognition and awareness of the thinking process.

Extent of Instructional Practices in terms of Interpersonal

Table 9 exhibits the extent of instructional practices in terms of interpersonal. It shows that the overall mean is 4.27, in a very extensive level. This means that instructional practices in terms of interpersonal are always evident.

It can be gleaned from the data that all 10 statements reveal a very extensive result. Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows: assigning students to various leadership positions, describe

Table 9. Extent of Instructional Practices in terms of Interpersonal

No	Interpersonal	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	grouping students by their ability level, provide opportunities for students to work with other advanced students, or encourage students to demonstrate the ability to work cooperatively as a group member.	4.25	Very Extensive
2	using cooperative group activities, encourage students to organize interest-based groups, or encouraging students to appreciate different learning styles exhibited by other members of the group.	4.27	Very Extensive
3	assigning students to various leadership positions, describe students various leadership styles, or provide group activities where various leadership styles can be practiced.	4.30	Very Extensive
4	demonstrating active listening using activities such as role-play, encourage students to provide constructive feedback on their peers' oral presentations, or use group activities where listening skills are encouraged to be used.	4.24	Very Extensive
5	having students establish activity groups on their own, provide group discussion that requires group decision, or encourage students to demonstrate the ability to compromise for the good of the group.	4.26	Very Extensive
6	encouraging students listen to others' suggestions when they participate as a member of a group, use a reward system in which the success of the group is determined by group's efforts, or encourage students to do their best to contribute to their group.	4.29	Very Extensive
7	encouraging advanced questions, provide competitive problem-solving activities, or assign activities and games that require high level thinking skills.	4.24	Very Extensive
8	designing units of study in which students have to consider another person's point of view, encourage students to consider the opinion of others, or set a stage for students to recognize other students' social and emotional needs.	4.27	Very Extensive
9	demonstrating oral presentation skills using activities such as role-play, coach individual students to improve communication skills whenever an opportunity arise, or provide group activities for the purpose of improving communication skill.	4.28	Very Extensive
10	providing opportunities for students to demonstrate self-discipline during small-group activities, encourage group members to keep the group on task, or encourage group members to consider individual differences in the way other students approach group activities.	4.30	Very Extensive
Overall		4.27	Very Extensive

students various leadership styles, or provide group activities where various leadership styles can be practiced (4.30), providing opportunities for students to demonstrate self-discipline during small-group activities, encourage group members to keep the group on task, or encourage group members to consider individual differences in the way other students approach group activities (4.30), and encouraging students listen to others' suggestions when they participate as a member of a group, use a reward system in which the success of the group is determined by group's efforts, or encourage students to do their best to contribute to their group (4.29). These items prove that the instructional practices of teachers in terms of interpersonal are always evident.

The findings of the study implies that teachers are providing students with the opportunities to showcase their talents and skills. They teach their students to be outgoing and socialized individuals, and active leaders in their own way. This has been possible by allowing students to be group activities where various leadership styles can be practiced. Teachers also offer students with the opportunities to practice self-discipline by giving them small-group activities. Apart from that, teachers give a reward system in order to encourage students to do their best to contribute to their group. Evidently, teachers are exposing their students to activities that would lead them to self-discovery of their hidden potentials.

This substantiated the assertion of Suranto (2011) citing that interpersonal communication has many benefits, not only to support the success of the students' interaction in learning but also to establish and maintain good a relationship between individuals, to help convey knowledge or information, to change attitudes and behaviors, to help solve problems of human relationships, to improve self-image, and to make the way to success.

Singh and Lairopuii (2014) reported that the benefits of interpersonal skills are the capability to report and work with various people, to handle conflict, to negotiate differences, to make an objective request effectively and efficiently, to be open to the ideas of others and willing to express their views on important things in the process of solving the problem. In order to improve students' interpersonal skill, teachers need to provide students with varied activities that would motivate them to interact.

Extent of Instructional Practices in terms of Intrapersonal

Table 10 showcases the instructional practices in terms of intrapersonal. It shows that the overall mean is 4.16, in an extensive level. This means that the instructional practices in terms of intrapersonal are oftentimes evident.

As shown from the data that all 8 statements reveal an extensive result. Of which, the three (3) items which have the highest mean score are as follows: encouraging students to select topics for independent study, allow students to choose work areas other than class, or consider individual students' opinion in allocating time for their projects (4.19), using enrichment activities that encourage students' commitment, use self-instructional kits that contain interesting tasks, or encourage students to demonstrate the ability to keep on task (4.18), and encouraging students to establish goals, use learning centers whether students

Table 10. Extent of Instructional Practices in terms of Intrapersonal

No	Intrapersonal	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	allowing in-class time for individual projects, assign writing projects on topics selected by student, or allow students to choose their own topics for research projects.	4.16	Extensive
2	encouraging students to establish goals, use learning centers whether students can choose their own activities, or use programmed instructional materials with which students can initiate and monitor their own learning.	4.17	Extensive
3	encouraging students to select topics for independent study, allow students to choose work areas other than class, or consider individual students' opinion in allocating time for their projects.	4.19	Extensive
4	using contracts for individual projects that allow students to list their goals, encourage students to set proper level goals for projects, or help students develop a long-term goals.	4.15	Extensive
5	using enrichment activities that encourage students' commitment, use self-instructional kits that contain interesting tasks, or encourage students to demonstrate the ability to keep on task.	4.18	Extensive
6	providing students with projects that require their initiative, assign projects that allow students to plan and manage independently, or allow students to work by themselves.	4.16	Extensive
7	helping students realize every action comes with a consequence, hold students responsible when they do not turn in homework assignments, or encourage students to complete a given task even when it is a difficult one.	4.15	Extensive
8	helping students understand that individuals have varied learning styles, provide homework where they can use their preferred learning styles, or tell students think of different ways of studying when their way of studying does not help them learn.	4.14	Extensive
Overall		4.16	Extensive

can choose their own activities, or use programmed instructional materials with which students can initiate and monitor their own learning (4.17). These items serve as proofs that instructional practices in terms of intrapersonal are oftentimes evident.

This implies that teachers are finding means to provide students with individualized instruction and self-pace learning. They allow their students to make a choice of the topic that they want to while having an independent study. Teachers make use of enrichment activities that encourage students' commitment. Also, teachers create activities that have individualized instructions and allow student to demonstrate the ability to keep on task. In addition, teachers allow students to choose their own activities. They also use programmed instructional materials with which students can initiate and monitor their own learning.

The results corroborated the findings of Armstrong (2006) stressing that teaching strategies that develop intrapersonal intelligence as one minute period of reflection is very important, These periods give students time to assimilate the information presented or to relate it to their own lives, also involve a change of pace that helps them stay tuned for the next activity. Tasks related to personal relationships are suggested. According Rubio (2002), there are some types of activities that develop intrapersonal intelligence depending on the content: contextual and personal.

In addition, Armstrong (2009) observed that most students spend about six hours a day, five days a week in a classroom with 25 to 35 other people. For individuals with strongly developed intrapersonal intelligence and an introverted personality, this intensely social atmosphere can be somewhat

claustrophobic. Hence, teachers need to build in frequent opportunities during the day for students to experience themselves as autonomous beings with unique life histories and a sense of deep individuality.

Summary on the Extent of Instructional Practices

Table 11 provides the summary on the extent of instructional practices. It is exhibited that the overall mean of instructional practices is 4.19, which is in an extensive level. This means that instructional practices are oftentimes evident.

Data show that all indicators have varying results ranging from extensive to very extensive level. As arranged chronologically, interpersonal (4.27) has the highest mean. This is followed by intrapersonal (4.16) and cognitive (4.15).

The favorable findings of this study supported the findings of Blazar and Kraft (2017) claiming that instructional practices are techniques that teachers use to help students become independent and strategic learners. These strategies become learning strategies when students select the ones and use them to accomplish tasks or meet goals. In this study, instructional practices were used to describe planning strategies, instructional strategies, and the assessment practices of teachers. Instructional practices are about ongoing interaction between teachers and their students through the elements of teaching and learning.

Ysseldyke (2001) stressed that when it comes to implementing instruction, effective teachers use the following strategies: maintain a high rate of engagement, provide students with tasks that ensure a high rate of success, review previous work at the start of the lesson, question students frequently to check understanding, allow for guided and independent practice, provide immediate feedback, use cumulative reviews and lastly use student progress data to make instructional decisions. With all the instructional strategies available, classroom teachers must determine which strategies to employ with the right students at the right time (Marzano, 2007).

Table 11. Summary on the Extent of Instructional Practices

No	Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1	Cognitive	4.15	Extensive
2	Interpersonal	4.27	Very Extensive
3	Intrapersonal	4.16	Extensive
Overall		4.19	Extensive

Significance of the Relationship Between Self-Efficacy and Instructional Practices

Presented in Table 12 are the data on the significance of the relationship between self-efficacy and instructional practices. Reflected in the hypothesis, the relationship was tested at 0.05 level of significance. The overall r-value of .531 with a p-value of <0.05 signified the rejection of the null hypothesis. It means that there is a significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional practices. This shows that teachers' self-efficacy is correlated with instructional practices of teachers.

Doing a pairwise correlation among the measures of both variables, it can be gleaned that efficacy to influence decision making, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate revealed computed r-values of 0.522, 0.533, 0.545, 0.518, 0.542, and 0.528 respectively with p-values which are less than 0.05 in the level of significance. This implies that as efficacy to influence decision making, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate increase, the instructional practices also increase.

Table 12. Significance of the Relationship Between Self-Efficacy and Instructional Practices

Self-Efficacy Indicators	Dependent Variable	r-value	p-value	Decision on Ho
Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	Instructional Practices	0.522	0.000	Ho is Rejected
Instructional Self-efficacy		0.533	0.000	Ho is Rejected
Disciplinary Self-Efficacy		0.545	0.000	Ho is Rejected
Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement		0.518	0.000	Ho is Rejected
Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement		0.542	0.000	Ho is Rejected

Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	0.528	0.000	Ho is Rejected
Overall	0.531*	0.000	Ho is Rejected

*Significant at 0.05 significance level.

The result is in consonance to the study conducted by [Tschannen-Moran et al. \(2007\)](#) emphasizing that teachers with higher self-efficacy are more likely to manage the classroom effectively, show higher instructional quality ([Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, 2013](#)), use more differentiated instruction and constructivism ([Suprayogi, Valcke, & Godwin, 2017](#)), develop challenging lessons ([Deemer, 2004](#)), use classroom management and instructional methods to encourage student autonomy, and keep students on task ([Chao et al., 2017](#); [Miller et al., 2017](#)). [Dicke et al. \(2014\)](#) specifically investigated the role of teachers' self-efficacy in classroom management and argued that lower levels of self-efficacy in classroom management predicts emotional exhaustion via classroom disturbances.

Similarly, Pendergast et al (2011) pointed out that teachers' self-efficacy is an important motivational construct that shapes teachers' thoughts, behaviors, and emotions. Studies suggest teachers' with high self-efficacy create positive classroom learning environments with high-quality lesson planning, meaningful instruction, and effective classroom management (Woolfolk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990). Teachers who report greater self-efficacy in the school environment report closer relationships with students (Hamre, Pianta, Downer, & Mashburn, 2008), and interact in ways that enhance students' behavioral functioning (Poulou, 2017).

Regression Analysis on the Influence of Self-Efficacy on Instructional Practices

Shown in table 13 is the regression analysis on the influence of teachers' self-efficacy on the instructional practices. The overall p-value ($p < 0.05$) denotes that teachers' self-efficacy is a predictor of instructional practices. The B values of the independent variable, self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to influence decision making, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate is 0.448, 0.464, 0.472, 0.442, 0.469, and 0.458 respectively.

Table 13. Regression Analysis on the Influence of Self-Efficacy on Instructional Practices

Instructional Practices				
Self-Efficacy	B (Standardized Coefficients)	B (Unstandardized Coefficients)	T	Sig.
Constant	0.822	0.125	6.212	0.000
Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	0.448	0.424	12.380	0.000
Instructional Self-efficacy	0.464	0.432	12.398	0.000
Disciplinary Self-Efficacy	0.472	0.436	12.424	0.000
Efficacy to Enlist Parental Involvement	0.442	0.421	12.375	0.000
Efficacy to Enlist Community Involvement	0.469	0.433	12.412	0.000
Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	0.458	0.429	12.385	0.000
R	0.552			
R²	0.526			
F	412.512			
p	0.000			

One unit change in efficacy to influence decision making will lead to .448 unit change in instructional practices if the other predictor is at "0". In the same way, one unit change in instructional self-efficacy will lead to .464 unit change in instructional practices if the other predictor is at "0". Also, one unit change in , disciplinary self-efficacy will lead to .472 unit change in instructional practices if the other predictor is at "0". In addition, one unit change efficacy to enlist parental involvement will lead to .442 unit change in instructional practices if the other predictor is at "0". Furthermore, one unit change in efficacy to enlist community involvement will lead to .469 unit change in instructional practices if the other predictor is at "0". Lastly, one unit change in efficacy to create a positive school climate will lead to .458 unit change in instructional practices if the other predictor is at "0".

Among the six, disciplinary self-efficacy indicates a higher influence on instructional practices compared to other indicators. Lastly, the coefficient of determination of r-squared value is also shown in the table which was 0.526 or 52.6% of the instructional practices is explained by the domains of self-efficacy which are self-efficacy in terms of efficacy to influence decision making, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist

parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate. Hence, the hypothesis that there is no domain in self-efficacy that significantly influences instructional practices is rejected.

The result of the study conformed to the Self-efficacy theory which was originated from Social Cognitive Theory by Bandura (1977). Specifically, in an educational context, teacher self-efficacy is the teacher's personal (i.e., self-perceived) belief in planning instruction and accomplishing instructional objectives. It is, in effect, the conviction the teacher has about their competency to teach pupils efficiently and effectively. Teacher competency is based on self-efficacy (beliefs on own abilities) and lack of self-efficacy causes many psychological problems such as low confidence level and low self-esteem (Shahzad & Naureen, 2017).

According to Shahzad and Naureen (2017), teachers with high level of self-efficacy are open to new methods and have the ability to adopt new techniques and teaching competencies for professional development. Anderson et al. (1988) made mention that teachers with high self-efficacy will persevere with difficult students. Additionally, self-efficacy affects teacher performance in better classroom management, improved instructional strategies, and increased student engagement (Allinder, 1994).

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

Presented in this chapter are the findings based on the results of data gathered, the conclusions drawn from the findings and the recommendations for consideration.

Findings

The main focus of the study was to determine the significance of the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional practices of public kindergarten teachers. The study was conducted in the selected public elementary schools in Davao del Norte Division. There were one hundred twenty (120) kindergarten teachers who participated in this study. Descriptive correlational method of research was used in this study utilizing adapted research instruments. The said instruments were validated by the panel of experts and subjected to pilot testing before it was made ready for administration. Mean, Pearson Product Correlation of Coefficient and Regression Analysis were the statistical tools used in analyzing the data. The hypotheses raised in this study were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

The major findings of the study were the following: the teachers' self-efficacy is very extensive. Meanwhile, the extent of instructional practices among the respondents is extensive. It was found out that there is a significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional practices of public kindergarten teachers. Moreover, it was revealed that all domains of teachers' self-efficacy significantly influence instructional practices. The hypotheses of no significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and instructional practices; and none of the domains of teachers' self-efficacy significantly influence instructional practices were rejected.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were offered:

The extent teachers' self-efficacy implies that it is always evident in the school. In fact, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, and efficacy to enlist community involvement are always evident while efficacy to influence decision making, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate are oftentimes evident. Meanwhile, the extent of instructional practices of public elementary teachers is oftentimes evident in the schools. In particular, interpersonal is always evident while cognitive and intrapersonal are oftentimes evident.

Based on the findings, teachers' self-efficacy and instructional practices are correlated. Also, teachers' self-efficacy significantly influences instructional practices of public kindergarten teachers. In fact, all domains of teachers' self-efficacy namely, efficacy to influence decision making, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate significantly influence instructional practices by registering a p-value of .000 which is less than .05 in the level of significance. This leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis. Further, the result indicates that for every unit increase in the six domains of teachers' self-efficacy, the instructional practices will increase.

Recommendations

The following suggestions were offered based on the conclusions of the study:

The higher officials in the Department of Education may craft effective policies, programs, projects, interventions and activities which may sustain teachers' self-efficacy and further intensify the instructional practices of teachers.

Moreover, school principals may find means in exposing teachers to varied professional development which would help strengthen teachers' instructional practices. Furthermore, school heads may make a regular observation to teachers and may give feedback relevant to the improvement of teachers' instructional practices.

Furthermore, teachers may take an effort keep on upgrading themselves. They may attend various seminars, webinars, or any undertaking that would help them reinforce their instructional practices.

Lastly, future researchers may explore relevant information about teachers' self-efficacy and instructional practices of teachers. Also, other means of research approach may be utilized to further explore the involved variables in this study.

References

- Adams, C. (2013). Collective trust: A social indicator of instructional capacity. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 51(3), 363-382. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09578231311311519>
- Akdeniz, C. (2019). *Instructional strategies*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/310624529_Instructional_Strategies?enrichId=rgreq-592aa28a4eb998497cb11a666eceaabb-XXX&enrichSource=Y292ZXJQYWdIOzMxMDYyNDUyOTtBUzo4MjA1MDMzNzU3OTAwODBAMTU3MjYzNDY1NzE0Nw%3D%3D&el=1_x_2&_esc=publicationCoverPdf
- Ang, M. C. (2017). *Chinese education in Malaysia*. Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education. <http://education.oxfordre.com/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.001.0001/acrefore-9780190264093-e-220>
- Assen, J. H., Meijers, F., Zwaal, W. & Poell, R. F. (2019). *Collective learning, teacher beliefs and teaching behaviour in management and social-educational university programmes*. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/13636820.2019.1578817?journalCode=rjve20>
- Ayua, G. (2017). *Effective teaching strategies*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/337946302_EFFECTIVE_TEACHING_STRATEGIES?enrichId=rgreq-c6cbf0566f871f8b96d82d921114c2e2-XXX&enrichSource=Y292ZXJQYWdIOzMzNzI0NDYyNDY1NzE0Nw%3D%3D&el=1_x_2&_esc=publicationCoverPdf
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Baloran, E. & Hernan, J. (2020). *Crisis self-efficacy and work commitment of education workers among public schools during COVID-19 pandemic*. <https://www.preprints.org/manuscript/202007.0599/v1/download>
- Burley, W. W., Hall, B. W., Villeme, M. G., & Brockmeier, L. L. (1991). *A path analysis of the mediating role of efficacy in first-year teachers' experiences, reactions and plans*. Paper presented at The Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association. Chicago: I.L.
- Chua, W. C., Thien, L. M., Lim, S. Y., Tan, C. S., & Guan, T. E. (2020). Unveiling the practices and challenges of professional learning community in a Malaysian Chinese secondary school. *SAGE Open*, 10(2), 215824402092551. doi:10.1177/2158244020925516
- Coban, O., & Atasoy, R. (2019). An examination of relationship between teachers' self-efficacy perception on ICT and their attitude towards ICT usage in the classroom. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, 14(1), 136-145. <https://doi.org/10.18844/cjes.v14i1.3636>
- Coladaraci, T. (1992). Teachers' sense of efficacy and commitment to teaching. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 60, 323-337.
- Evans, E. D., & Tribble, M. (1986). Perceived teaching problems, self-efficacy and commitment to teaching among preservice teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, 80(2), 81-85.
- Gibson, S., & Dembo, M. H. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 503-511.
- Guskey, T. R. (1988). Teacher efficacy, self-concept, and attitudes toward the implementation of instructional innovation. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 4, 63-69.
- Himabindu, G. (2012). Teacher Efficacy In Relation To Teaching Competency. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Educational Research*, 1(4), pp. 60 -70.
- Hongboontri, C., & Keawkhong, N. (2014). School culture: Teachers' beliefs, behaviors, and instructional practices. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(5), n5. Retrieved from <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol39/iss5/5>
- Kırkıç, K. & Çetinkaya, F. (2020). The relationship between preschool teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their teaching attitudes. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education (IJERE) Vol. 9, No. 4*, December 2020, pp. 807-815
- Lartec, Jane K. (2014). Strategies and problems encountered by teachers in implementing mother tongue - based instruction in a multilingual classroom. *The IAFOR Journal of Language Learning*, 1(1) 1-16
- Leane, B. (2014). How I learned the value of a true PLC. *Kappan*, 95(6), 44-46. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003172171409500610>
- Lenz, B., Alley, G. R., & Schumaker, J. B. (1987). Activating the inactive learner: Advance organizers in the secondary content classroom. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 10, 53-67. doi:10.2307/1510755
- Lyons, J. B. (2002). The learning environment: Do school facilities really affect a child's education? *Learning By Design*, 11, 10-13.

- Marsh, J.A., Bertand, M., & Hugueta, A. (2015). Using data to alter instructional practice: the mediating role of coaches and professional learning communities. *Teachers College Record*, 117, 4, 2015.
- Marsh, J. A., & Farrell, C. C. (2015). How leaders can support teachers with data-driven decision 122 making: A framework for understanding capacity building. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 43(2), 269-289.
- Masbaño, N. (2015). Appropriate interventions on the problems encountered on effective teaching practices in a State University External Campus in the Philippines. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, Vol. 3, No. 5
- Mathews, J. (2011). New teacher decries lesson plan gap [blog post]. Retrieved from *Class Struggle at The Washington Post* at www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/class-struggle/post/new-teacher-decries-lesson-plan-gap/2011/12/17/gIQAt0C50O_blog.html
- Meador, D. (2019). *Using effective instructional strategies*. <https://www.thoughtco.com/building-an-arsenal-of-effective-instructional-strategies-3194257>
- Nemenzo, N. (2018). Problems encountered by teachers in the teaching-learning process: A basis of an action plan. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324606765_Problems_Encountered_by_Teachers_in_the_Teaching-Learning_Process_A_Basis_of_an_Action_Plan
- Nie, Y. & Lau, S. (2010). Differential relations of constructivist and didactic instruction to students' cognition, motivation, and achievement. *Learning and Instruction*, 20(5), 411-423.
- Ofodu, G. O. (2012). Instructional strategies and resource utility in language teaching among basic educators in 21st century Nigeria. *English Language Teaching*, 5(5), 79-84.
- Okongo, R. B., Ngao, G., Rop, N. & Nyongesa, W. (2015). Effect of availability of teaching and learning resources on the implementation of inclusive education in pre-school centers in Nyamira North Sub-County, Nyamira County, Kenya. *Journal of Education and Practice* [www.iiste.org/ISSN/2222-1735 \(Paper\) ISSN/2222-288X \(Online\) Vol.6, No.35, 2015](http://www.iiste.org/ISSN/2222-1735/Paper/ISSN/2222-288X/Online/Vol.6, No.35, 2015). <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1086389.pdf>
- O'Neill, D. (2000). *The impact of school facilities on student achievement, behavior, attendance, and teacher turnover rate at selected Texas middle schools in Region XIII ESC*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX.
- Ostovar-Nameghi, S. & Sheikahmadi, M. (2016). *From teacher isolation to teacher collaboration: Theoretical perspectives and empirical findings*. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1099601.pdf>
- Pachina, E. (2019). *The teacher's role in the classroom management*. https://www.facebook.com/permalink.php?story_fbid=10226856769634745&id=1516905301¬if_id=1642847718611347¬if_t=feedback_reaction_generic&ref=notif
- Patzer, R. (2020). *Sharing good practice: Strategies to encourage teacher collaboration*. <https://blog.irisconnect.com/uk/sharing-and-collaboration-in-schools>
- Pedler, M., Yeigh, T. & Hudson, S. (2020). *The teachers' role in student engagement: A review*. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1256902.pdf>
- Pendergast, D., Garvis, S., & Keogh, J. (2011). Pre-service student-teacher self-efficacy beliefs: An insight into the making of teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(12), 46-57. doi:10.14221/ajte.2011v36n12.6
- Phan, H. P. (2010, May). Student's academic performance and various cognitive processes of learning: An integrative framework and empirical analysis. *Research*, 88, 262-268.
- Poulou, M. (2017). An examination of the relationship among teachers' perceptions of social-emotional learning, teaching efficacy, teacher-students interactions and students' behavioral difficulties. *International Journal of School and Educational Psychology*, 5(2), 126-136. doi:10.1080/21683603.2016.1203851
- Rahayu, R. & Wirza, Y. (2020). Teachers' perception of online learning during Pandemic Covid-19. *Jurnal Penelitian Pendidikan*, Volume 20, Nomor 3, 392 - 406
- Rizwan, S., & Khan, R. M. (2015). Raising the quality of teaching in public schools of Pakistan: A three dimensional analysis for capacity development of in-service teachers in Instructional Planning and Strategies. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(19), 190-202.
- Rosenshine, B. (1995). Advances in research on inclusion. *Journal of Educational motivational, and cognitive effects of aircraft noise on children*. *American Psychologist*, 35, 231-243.
- Rosenshine, B. (1997). Advances in research on instruction. In J. Lloyd, E. Kame'enui, & D., Chard (Eds.), *Issues in educating students with disabilities*, 197-220. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Salvia, J., & Ysseldyke, J. E. (1995). *Assessment* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton
- Shahzad, K. & Naureen, S. (2017). *Impact of teacher self-efficacy on secondary school students' academic achievement*. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1161518.pdf>

- Sherhoff, D.J., Kelly, S., Tonks, S.M., Anderson, B., Cavanagh, R.F., Sinha, S., & Abdi, B. (2016). Student engagement as a function of environmental complexity in high school classrooms. *Learning and Instruction*, 43, 52-60. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2015.12.003>
- Sims, R. L., & Penny, G. R. (2015). Examination of a failed professional learning community. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 3(1), 39-45
- Taylor, P. (2021). *The impact of PLCS on teacher self-efficacy*. <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=7135&context=etd>
- Teaching Tolerance (2016). *Reframing classroom management: A toolkit for educators*. https://www.learningforjustice.org/sites/default/files/general/TT_Reframing_Classroom_Management_Handouts.pdf
- Tiberghien, A. (1993). *Modelling as a basis for analyzing teaching-learning situations*, Communication to SRPC, New Orleans. University, Blacksburg, VA. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk-Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783–805.
- Vangrieken, K., Dochy, F., Raes, E., & Kyndt, E. (2015). Teacher collaboration: A systematic review. *Educational Research Review*, 15, 17–40.
- Vegas, E. & Winthrop, R. (2020). *Beyond reopening schools: How education can emerge stronger than before COVID-19*. Brookings Institution. <https://www.brookings.edu/research/beyond-reopening-schools-how-education-can-emerge-stronger-than-before-covid-19/>
- Wang, M. (1987). Toward achieving educational excellence for all students: Program design and student outcomes. *Remedial and Special Education*, 8 (3), 25-34. doi: 10.1177/074193258700800306
- Withy, H. (2021). *Strategies for developing and maintaining self-efficacy in teachers*. <https://theeducationhub.org.nz/strategies-for-developing-and-maintaining-self-efficacy-in-teachers/>
- Woolfolk, A. E., Rosoff, B., & Hoy, W. (1990). Teachers' sense of efficacy and their beliefs about managing student. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 6(3), 137–148.
- Ysseldyke, J. E. (2001). Reflections on a research career: Generalizations from 25 years of research on assessment and instructional decision-making. *Exceptional Children*, 67 (3), 295-309.