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LEADERSHIP PREPARATION OF
PRESERVICE TEACHERS

by

Kelly A. Lenarz

Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of

Olivet Nazarene University

School of Graduate and Continuing Studies

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

the Degree of

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SIGNATURE PAGE

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ABSTRACT

Educator preparation providers are passionate about developing the best teachers. It is important for teacher preparation programs to explore how teacher leadership can help attract and retain a diverse and quality educator workforce, however research on teacher leadership at the preservice level is limited. This quantitative study examined the preparation of preservice teachers for leadership. One hundred student teachers completed an online survey using Survey Monkey® to determine the relationship between teacher licensure area (elementary, secondary, K-12, and special education) and leadership behaviors, opportunities, and aspirations. Data analysis was completed using measures of central tendency and variance. No statistically significant correlation was found between licensure area and leadership behaviors, opportunities, or aspirations. A descriptive analysis was also conducted based on general teacher leadership qualities and the following typologies of teacher leadership: (a) instructional innovator, (b) professional learning leader, and (c) administrative teacher leader. An examination of the relationship between licensure area and typology was determined to be statistically significant and revealed preservice teachers in all licensure areas most identified with general leadership qualities such as finding work meaningful, respecting others, contributing to the success of the students and school, and being recognized and valued. The results of this study add to the existing research that a professional culture built around teachers as leaders is important to the education profession and should be considered throughout all stages of a teacher's career, starting at the preservice level.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The increased importance of teacher leadership in schools today is changing the role of a teacher. Therefore, educator preparation providers and the programs that prepare preservice teachers must change as well. Teacher preparation programs must include leadership skills, knowledge, and dispositions common to teacher leaders (Holland, Eckert, & Allen, 2014). According to Forster (1997) leadership “is a fundamental part of fulfilling one’s professional role and responsibilities” (p. 83). Preservice teachers need training in and experiences for leadership if they are to be effective in their role as teachers and think of themselves as leaders once they enter the teaching profession. “Beginning teachers are in fact not too young to lead; they have a wealth of energy, insight, and enthusiasm to offer and perhaps, in their inexperience, are open to possibilities that others may not be” (Pucella, 2014, p. 20).

The need for teacher leadership, especially at the preservice level, can be hindered by the fact that there is a lack of a common definition for teacher leadership. York-Barr and Duke (2004) claimed that teacher leadership occurs when teachers, individually or as a group, influence their colleagues, administrators, and wider school community. According to Hunzicker (2013) the purpose of teacher leadership is to impact student learning and achievement in a way that improves teaching and learning practices and the school culture.

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) added a distinction to the definition of teacher leadership that addressed the fact that “teacher leaders lead within and beyond the classroom” (p. 6). Formal teacher leaders, such as reading specialists, math coaches, professional development providers, and curriculum coordinators, work full-time outside of the classroom. Formal teacher leaders occupy roles in between teaching and administration (Hunzicker, 2013). Informal teacher leaders serve as full-time classroom teachers who, in addition to their assigned teaching duties, take on extra responsibilities and leadership roles. Though informal teacher leaders hold no official title or position their work does extend beyond the students and the classroom (Hunzicker). Teacher leaders “identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders; influence others toward improved educational practice; and accept responsibility for achieving the outcomes of their leadership” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, p. 6).

The continuum of a teacher’s career can be divided into three major phases: preservice teacher preparation, inservice teacher induction, and ongoing professional development (Sherrill, 1999). Bond (2011) pointed out that first year novice teachers “are expected to function at the same level as veterans in terms of instruction in the classroom and engagement in the activities in the larger school community. Leadership from beginning teachers is implied” (p. 281). Ado (2016) encouraged that the starting point for the career-long process of teacher leadership should be preservice teacher coursework and experiences. Teacher leadership preparation at the preservice level would allow novice teachers to begin their careers with confidence in their capacity to lead and with aspirations to positively impact student learning and school culture.

Statement of the Problem

Customarily institutions of higher education have viewed teacher preparation and leadership training at the undergraduate level as separate programs of study. Programs that do combine teaching and leadership are most often targeted toward inservice teachers and occur at the graduate level or are offered through professional development (Ado, 2016). Leadership for teachers, including preservice teachers, is important to the education profession. Colleges and universities should play an essential role in preparing teachers for leadership. Unfortunately the leadership preparation and potential of preservice teachers at the undergraduate level has received little attention (Rogers & Scales, 2013). “There is a great deal of consensus around what can be done to support teacher leaders once they are in schools. However, there is less certainty about what or how preparing preservice teachers for teacher leadership should occur” (Ado, p. 5).

According to Bond and Sterrett (2014) “learning to lead while learning to teach can occur optimally during teacher preparation” (p. 26). Teacher preparation programs are proficient at addressing pedagogy. Teacher preparation program coursework includes best practices in the areas of curriculum, instruction, assessment, and classroom management (Bond, 2011). However, Bond claimed that preservice teachers need to also look at pedagogy and best practices “through the lens of leadership” (p. 288).

There is a great need for teacher preparation programs to include leadership training as a means to foster preservice and novice teachers’ leadership aspirations. Preservice teachers have the potential to be teacher leaders. However, preservice teachers begin their careers as novice teachers and do not have confidence in their ability to lead from within the classroom because they are not always provided with the opportunities to

demonstrate their leadership. Instead novice teachers perceive leadership as the next step beyond the classroom and not as an option for staying in the classroom (Rogers & Scales, 2013). “The extent to which the teaching profession can develop as a hybrid practice that incorporates both classroom and leadership opportunities may be crucial for the retention of this new generation [of teachers]” (Reeves & Lowenhaupt, 2016, p. 184).

Preservice and novice teachers need to develop the perception that leadership is an action, not just occupying a designated role or position. Leadership should not be done out of obligation but out of purpose. Sato, Hyler, and Monte-Sano (2014) defined *practical leadership* as leadership that should not be done out of obligation but out of purpose. “The practical leadership frame views teacher leadership as the actions that the teacher takes within a context or situation and values the purposes that drive those actions” (p. 5). The expectation of teacher leadership, and the responsibility that comes with it, can be cultivated by educator preparation providers in their undergraduate teacher preparation programs (Sherrill, 1999). If preservice teachers can develop leadership knowledge, skills, behaviors, and dispositions, they will not only be effective teachers, they will aspire to be effective leaders as well. The ability to teach and lead simultaneously will not only personally and professionally benefit the preservice teachers, it will provide better learning experiences for their students, build capacity with their fellow teachers, and positively impact the school culture.

The purpose of this current study was to explore the extent to which preservice teachers felt prepared for leadership during their teacher preparation program in order to determine their potential to take on opportunities to lead within and beyond the classroom once they enter the teaching profession.

Background

Providing a context for preservice teacher leadership must begin with two caveats that actually validate the need for this current study. The first caveat is the lack of an exact definition and construct of teacher leadership. Many researchers affirm the importance of teacher leadership, however, there still is not a clear consensus on an exact definition for it. In addition, there is not a call for formal education specific to teacher leadership, and most states do not have a licensure requirement for it. As a result a variety of roles and responsibilities are attached to teacher leadership, but an explicit definition for it is still lacking. Second, research on the roles and responsibilities of teacher leadership has almost entirely been focused on the practice of inservice teacher leadership for teachers already in K-12 schools and not preservice teachers.

Teacher leadership dates back to the turn of the 20th century when one-room schoolhouses relied on teachers serving as leaders. However, even though the idea of teacher leadership has been around for a long time, as Forster (1997) described, “teacher leadership has been in its own revolving door of debate for decades” (p. 82). The most notable momentum in teacher leadership stemmed from the education reform initiatives of the 1980s (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). York-Barr and Duke published a seminal report that examined two decades of research on teacher leadership from 1980 to 2000. The purpose for York-Barr and Duke’s study was to not only summarize the findings of their comprehensive review of teacher leadership literature but to address the fact that teacher leadership needed to be better defined and organized if it was to truly make an impact on current teaching practices and the future development of teacher leadership programs.

York-Barr and Duke (2004) organized their findings around the following seven questions: (a) why focus on teacher leadership, (b) how is teacher leadership defined, (c) what do teacher leaders do, (d) who are teacher leaders, (e) what conditions influence teacher leadership, (f) how are teacher leaders prepared to lead, and (g) what are the effects of teacher leadership? One notable result of York-Barr and Duke's pursuit to find the answers to these seven questions was the creation of a definition of teacher leadership most often cited and applied in research today. "Teacher leadership is the process by which teachers, individually or collectively influence their colleagues, principals, and other members of the school communities to improve teaching and learning practices with the aim of increased student learning and achievement" (pp. 287-288). York-Barr and Duke's definition of teacher leadership was the definition used in this current study.

The research of York-Barr and Duke (2004) also provided a summary of the way thinking about teacher leadership has progressed over time. Silva, Gimbert, and Nolan (2000) described the progression of teacher leadership in three waves. The first wave was managerial, where teachers held formal leadership roles such as department chairs and union representatives. The purpose of leaders in the first wave was to serve as an extension of the administration and to provide support for school operations so things can run efficiently. The purpose of the second wave was focused on curriculum and instruction. "Teacher leadership was intended to capitalize more fully on the instructional expertise of teachers by appointing teachers to roles such as curriculum leaders, staff developers, and mentors of new teachers" (York-Barr & Duke, p. 260). The third wave of teacher leadership included the opportunity for teachers to lead from within and beyond their classroom (Ash & Persall, 2000). It was based on the understanding that there needs

to be a culture of collaboration and continued education on the part of teachers if increased improvement of instruction and student learning was to occur. “Teacher leadership is the primary way to reculture schools to improve instruction for enhanced student learning” (Rogers & Scales, 2013, p. 19).

Several constructs of teacher leadership have made important contributions through the years and have helped clarify the understanding of what teacher leaders do and how they do it (Hunzicker, 2013). Researchers such as Darling-Hammond, Lieberman, Silva, and Smylie have offered theoretical frameworks for teacher leadership at the school level and classroom level (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) defined teacher leadership from within and beyond the classroom according to four main leadership functions: (a) leadership in governing, (b) leadership of student activities, (c) leadership in operational tasks, and (d) leadership in instruction. Many teacher leaders accept multiple tasks from different functions, and their role as a teacher leader may be for a short time or require a long-term commitment. Likewise Muijs, Chapman, and Armstrong (2013) viewed teachers as leading across boundaries. The four main boundaries were: (a) classroom boundaries, (b) subject/curriculum boundaries, (c) team boundaries, and (d) organizational boundaries. According to Cheng and Szeto (2016) the concepts of teacher leadership are “continuously evolving in a broader scope. Not only the formal leading role in the traditional hierarchical school structure, but also the concepts of shared/distributed, collaborative and parallel leadership roles shape the understandings of teacher leadership” (p. 142).

Progress was made in the area of teacher leadership during the standards-based movement. In 1992 the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium

(InTASC) released the *InTASC Model Core Teaching Standards* that not only established expectations for teaching but also included expectations for a teacher's role as a leader (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2013). According to Standard 10 titled *Leadership and Collaboration* "the teacher seeks appropriate leadership roles and opportunities to take responsibility for student learning, to collaborate with learners, families, colleagues, other school professionals, and community members to ensure learner growth, and to advance the profession" (p. 9).

The Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium (2011) published the *Teacher Leader Model Standards* to describe the competencies required for teacher leadership. The standards consisted of the following seven domains: (a) fostering a collaborative culture to support educator development and student learning, (b) accessing and using research to improve practice and student learning, (c) promoting professional learning for continuous improvement, (d) facilitating improvements in instruction and student learning, (e) promoting the use of assessment and data for school and district improvements, (f) improving outreach and collaboration with families and community, and (g) advocating for student learning and the profession.

In addition to the standards another widely used tool in the education profession that addressed teacher leadership is Danielson (2014) *Framework for Teaching Evaluation*. The fourth domain of the framework, titled *professional responsibilities*, had three components of teaching practice that included elements of teacher leadership: participating in the professional community, growing and developing professionally, and showing professionalism (Danielson).

Standards and frameworks focused on teacher leadership can help develop aspiring teacher leaders, improve student learning, and advance school reform (Hunzicker, 2013). “The concept of teacher leadership has been advocated for more than two decades in the field of education. This however does not necessarily mean that schools in the USA have successfully implemented teacher leadership” (Xie & Shen, 2013, p. 328). In addition, because most of the focus of teacher leadership has been targeted towards inservice teachers, educator preparation providers have not accomplished much in the area of preparing preservice teachers for teacher leadership. Numerous research articles can be found that have been published in the last 30 years that address teacher leadership for inservice teachers (Wenner & Campbell, 2017; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Bond (2011) found only three articles during that same time frame the focused specifically on teacher leadership for preservice teachers. “The lack of information for preservice teachers creates a problem; however, the published literature for inservice teachers can serve as a guide for addressing the problem and developing a model or framework for introducing teacher leadership to preservice teachers” (p. 281).

Early evidence for the need of preservice teachers to experience components of leadership training can be dated back to the early 1900s. Dewey, a foundational educational reformer argued (as cited in Rogers & Scales, 2013), “because teachers interact directly with students, they should have a responsibility to guide policies that have an impact on the school” (p. 19). Andrew and Association of Teacher Educators (1974) stated, “The entrenched role and status of teacher in the educational bureaucracy coupled with the traditional training programs for teacher preparation represent an overwhelming barrier to turn teachers into autonomous professionals with significant

leadership status” (p. 5). Andrew and Association of Teacher Educators called for a transformation of the teacher training process in order for educator preparation providers to better prepare teachers for leadership responsibilities. “Major emphasis of teacher preparation has been to prepare a skilled practitioner capable of implementing new practices and better content. But teacher education...[has] not had much effect on educational change” (pp. 2-3).

Teacher leadership is a component of teaching that exists from the beginning of a teacher’s career and continues to develop over the course of his/her career. In the past eight years there has been a push for the starting point of teacher leadership development to be within teacher preparation programs. Bond (2011) proposed the idea that teacher leadership should be introduced to preservice teachers while they are learning about pedagogy. Educator preparation providers, with the help of their knowledgeable faculty, are ideal places to introduce and develop a preservice teacher’s leadership frame of reference (Bond). Bond cited the following rationale for the concurrent preparation of preservice teachers in the areas of pedagogy and leadership. “First, the preparation time is a critical period in a teacher’s professional life” (p. 281). Educator preparation providers are formative to the teacher preparation process. Second, the education profession expects a lot out of the performance of novice teachers, and so preservice teachers must be well prepared. Third, all teachers are expected to serve in some leadership capacity or another. “All teachers can lead! Most teachers want to lead. And schools badly need their ideas, invention, energy and leadership” (Barth, 2001, p. 449).

Ado (2016) conducted a study that affirmed the starting point for the career-long process of teacher leadership development could be preservice teacher preparation

coursework. Smylie and Eckert (2017) advocated that teacher leadership must be a required component of teacher preparation if teacher leadership is going to improve our schools. In addition, if teacher leadership becomes a part of preservice teacher preparation programs, “the teacher development literature suggests that it takes time for concepts from university course work to appear in teachers’ practices” (Rogers & Scales, 2013, p. 31).

Research Questions

The following research questions directed this current study:

1. What differences exist between the leadership behaviors of preservice teachers and their licensure area upon completion of their teacher preparation programs?
2. How do preservice teachers perceive professional responsibilities as possible opportunities for leadership according to licensure area?
3. What difference does licensure area make in preservice teachers’ aspirations for leadership roles within and beyond the classroom?
4. What typology of teacher leadership do preservice teachers represent according to licensure area?

Description of Terms

The following is a list of terms that were used in this current study:

Administrative Teacher Leader. An administrative teacher leader is a teacher who acts as a change agent and influences school programs, district policies, and reform initiatives by serving in a role outside of the classroom (Bae, Hayes, O’Connor, Seitz, & DiStefano, 2016).

Curriculum. Curriculum refers to the content that is taught in an instructional program (Ho, 2010).

Dispositions. Dispositions are the qualities and actions that are exhibited based on a teacher's attitudes, values, and interests. Dispositions vary depending on the context and can be changed. (Hunzicker, 2013).

Educator preparation provider. Educator preparation providers are institutions of higher education that are responsible for the preparation of educators (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation, 2018).

Framework for Teaching. The Framework for Teaching, developed by Charlotte Danielson, is a research-based evaluation tool widely used in K-12 education for teacher performance assessment (Danielson, 2014).

Hybrid teacher. A hybrid teacher refers to a teacher who assumes the responsibilities associated with teaching in a K-12 classroom, while also taking on leadership responsibilities outside of the classroom (Wenner & Campbell, 2017).

Induction. Induction refers to a teacher's first few years of teaching when he/she is transitioning from preservice preparation into inservice teaching (Delp, 2014).

Inservice teacher. Inservice teacher applies to any individual who is already a practicing licensed teacher (Scales & Rogers, 2017).

Instructional Innovator. An instructional innovator is an experienced teacher who is considered an expert in his/her content area. He/She often opens up his/her classroom for observation and participates in mentoring other teachers (Bae et al., 2016).

Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium. InTASC is a performance-based assessment comprised of *Model Core Teacher Standards* used to

measure beginning teachers' performance. The *Model Core Teacher Standards* can serve as benchmarks for assessing preservice teachers (Holdman & Shaeffer, 2006).

K-12. K-12 is a shortened expression referring to kindergarten through twelfth grade. K-12 are the first and final grades of free education in the United States (Bond, 2011).

Licensure area. Licensure area refers to the academic courses and experiences leading to an education degree, licensure, or some other credential for professional education services in schools. There are a number of licensure options such as early childhood, elementary, middle grades, secondary, K-12, and special education (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation, 2018).

Novice. Novice refers to a beginning teacher (Delp, 2014). Novice also refers to the time period when a beginning teacher's professional attitudes and viewpoints are initially formed (Bond, 2011).

Pedagogy. Pedagogy refers to the method and practice of teaching (Rust & Bergey, 2014).

Preservice teacher. A preservice teacher is any student enrolled in a teacher preparation program who is studying to become a licensed teacher (Scales & Rogers, 2017).

Professional learning community. A professional learning community is a group of educators that meets regularly to share expertise and work collaboratively. The goal of a professional learning community is to improve teaching skills and increase the academic performance of students (McLaughlin, 2011).

Professional Learning Leader. A professional learning leader is a teacher who is skilled in communication and facilitates professional development activities (Bae et al., 2016).

School culture. School culture refers to the context, construct and community of a school (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Student teaching. Student teaching is a term used for the extensive clinical practice preservice teachers complete in a K-12 classroom at the end of their teacher preparation program (Heafner, McIntyre, & Spooner, 2014).

Teacher candidate. Teacher candidate refers to an individual who has successfully completed all the requirements of a teacher preparation program and is ready to teach (Hagans & Powers, 2015).

Teacher leadership. Teacher leadership is the manner in which teachers influence other teachers, administrators, and the school community to improve teaching and learning practices, with the goal of increasing student achievement and improving teacher performance (York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

Teacher Leader Model Standards. The Teacher Leader Model Standards are a framework that outlines possible leadership roles and responsibilities teachers could assume in a school setting (Ado, 2016). The Teacher Leader Model Standards are also intended to be guidelines for educator preparation providers for preparing future teacher leaders (Cosenza, 2015).

Teacher preparation program. Teacher preparation program refers to the academic courses, experiences, and licensure requirements necessary to prepare

individuals to become teachers and to enable them to earn an education degree (Heafner et al., 2014).

Teacherpreneur. Teacherpreneurs are classroom teachers who also find innovative ways to engage in leadership beyond the classroom in an entrepreneurial and creative manner (Berry, 2015).

Significance of the Study

The goal of educator preparation providers is to effectively prepare teachers for the profession. This current study showed how preservice teachers perceived their preparation in the following areas of teacher leadership: leadership behaviors, responsibilities as opportunities for involvement in leadership, and aspirations for leadership roles within and beyond the classroom. The research and data from this current study were important information for educator preparation providers to consider in order to know how to best prepare preservice teachers. Education preparation providers have to keep up with the demands placed on their teacher preparation programs and the changes that are placed on the curriculum. In addition, teacher preparation programs have to continually hold themselves accountable to national and state standards and licensure requirements. “The role of the colleges and universities in preparing teacher leaders is significant in the continuum of teacher development” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 20). If preservice teachers are equipped to teach and lead upon entering the teaching profession, the benefits will affect students, parents, administrators, schools, and the teachers themselves.

Effective leadership preparation can be implemented into teacher preparation programs with purposeful planning. “If we carefully examine the knowledge, skills, and

dispositions identified as central to emerging teacher leaders, it becomes obvious that many of these are in fact at the core of much of what is already happening in our programs” (Pucella, 2014, p. 19). Leadership knowledge, skills, and dispositions need to be directly connected to teaching for preservice teachers. Reeves and Lowenhaupt (2016) suggested that educator preparation providers develop hybrid instruction and practices that incorporate both classroom and leadership opportunities into their teacher preparation programs. “For teacher educators, it might be prudent to identify preservice teachers’ motivations and anticipated career paths, offering differentiated training opportunities to support their leadership development” (Reeves & Lowenhaupt, p. 185).

Incorporating and supporting leadership development in teacher preparation programs would enable preservice teachers to believe that early in their career, because they have had some leadership training, they are equipped and able to lead.

If we demonstrate to our preservice educators how the very knowledge, skills, and dispositions that we are emphasizing as critical to being good teachers will also empower them to lead, we can begin to build the confidence that is necessary to encourage an induction-stage teacher to flex his or her leadership muscles.

(Pucella, 2014, p. 19)

As a result, novice teachers will positively impact their students, their schools, and their colleagues.

In addition administrators in K-12 schools were also encouraged to make note of the findings from this current study. When hiring teachers, if a principal knows that a teacher candidate has had experiences with teacher leadership in their teacher preparation program, he/she can be confident in that individual’s ability to “observe and analyze the

school culture in which they're working, so that when the time comes, they can use the knowledge they've accrued to bring about positive change" (Norton, 2010, pp. 1-2).

Administrators know that their schools are only going to be as good as the teachers who are teaching in them. Novice teachers have a lot to offer and contribute. In fact "teacher candidates may have something that many inservice teachers do not—a belief early in their career that they have had some training in the art and science of leading" (Pucella, 2014, p. 19).

Being a school principal is a demanding job, and it is very difficult for principals today to have the time, and perhaps even the expertise, to completely and fully lead a school. According to Xie and Shen (2013) "In the era of accountability, school principals can no longer be the only decision-makers in dealing with the pressure for improving schools and student achievement" (p. 327). Principals cannot provide all the leadership needs within a school, and so having capable teacher leaders, even those early on in their careers, is an effective way to support the high demands placed on the school administration.

Preservice teacher leadership preparation is essential to the work of both teachers and administrators and also contributes to teacher retention in the early stages of a novice teacher's career. "The leadership deficit in our schools is in multiple ways closely related to issues of retention" (Pucella, 2014, p. 16). If preservice teachers are equipped for leadership early on in their careers principals can be assured that these individuals possess "a sense of commitment that may very well keep them in the field" (Pucella, p. 16). Principals want to keep effective teachers in the classroom and in their schools. "It stands to reason that if teachers take on leadership roles, even early in their career, and

have a part in the decisions that shape their classrooms and impact their students, then they are more likely to be retained” (Pucella, p. 16).

Finally, the results of this current study benefited preservice teachers. Reeves and Lowenhaupt (2016) cited a need for teacher preparation programs to address preservice teachers’ aspirations for leadership in light of their motivations for entering the teaching profession. The results of this current study had a direct connection to the need for retaining the new generation of teachers. The teaching profession is often considered a *flat* career. (Ado, 2016). “The responsibilities of a new teacher on the first day in the classroom can very well be the same responsibilities a veteran teacher has” (Ado, p. 4). If preservice teachers know that their educator preparation provider has prepared them for teacher leadership they will hopefully aspire to become a leader within and beyond the classroom immediately upon entering it. The opportunity and ability to lead without leaving the classroom creates a way for teachers to not only make an impact on student learning but to also take on more responsibility to impact school wide change. Flexibility may be one way to decrease career stagnation and teacher attrition (Ado). “These future teachers are interested in maintaining their commitment to the classroom at the same time that they seek diverse, hybrid roles within education (Reeves & Lowenhaupt, p. 184).

Process to Accomplish

The current study explored the preparation of preservice teachers enrolled in either an elementary, secondary, K-12, or special education teacher preparation program. The preservice teachers who participated in this current study were midway through the last semester of their teacher preparation program at a private educator preparation provider located in or around a large Midwestern city. All participants were in a student

teaching placement. A convenience sample of 100 preservice teachers from the participating educator preparation providers was used.

Data were collected using an adapted version of *The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* (Appendix A). Permission to use and modify *The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) for the context of this current study was granted directly from the authors and through the publishing company Corwin (Appendix B). The survey items found on *The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* were developed by Katzenmeyer and Moller and based on teacher leadership research and literature. Katzenmeyer and Moller established content validity by employing a panel of experts to examine the survey items using factor analysis. The panel of experts also aided in determining the internal-consistency reliability of the survey using a pilot study. The survey tool consisted of 25 Likert scale items that examined how the participants related to teacher leadership skills, behaviors, opportunities, and values. The survey tool measured a range of specific characteristics related to teacher leadership work, not factors such as outcomes of teacher leadership. Each survey item was presented as a statement and was measured using a response scale with 1 indicating *strongly disagree*, 2 indicating *disagree*, 3 indicating *neutral*, 4 indicating *agree*, and 5 indicating *strongly agree*.

Measures of central tendency and variance were calculated using common descriptive statistics, and participants' responses were categorized according to licensure area. Inferential statistics was applied to determine if differences existed between the preservice teachers' programs of study (elementary, secondary, K-12, or special education) and the preservice teachers' self-identified behaviors, opportunities, and aspirations for leadership, as well as typology of teacher leadership.

A demographic questionnaire was also administered to collect information on the participants' educator preparation provider, licensure area, program format, gender, age, student teaching placement, and previous leadership experiences. In addition, a few open-ended questions were asked based off of Danielson (2014) *Framework for Teaching*, Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) *Model Core Teaching Standards* (2013), and the *Teacher Leader Model Standards* (2011).

Two educator preparation providers granted permission to have their student teachers participate in this current study (Appendix C). The *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey*, open ended questions, and the demographic questionnaire were combined into an electronic survey using Survey Monkey® and during the 2018-2019 academic year student teachers at each educator preparation provider were given the opportunity to complete the survey. There were two disseminations of the survey, one in the fall of 2018 and one in the spring of 2019.

The current study included four research questions that were answered using the combined *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey*, open ended questions, and demographic questionnaire.

1. What differences exist between the leadership behaviors of preservice teachers and their licensure area upon completion of their teacher preparation programs?

Research question one was answered by sorting responses to the survey items that focused on leadership behaviors as a way to examine differences between licensure area and leadership behaviors. Measures of central tendency and variance for leadership behaviors were calculated to determine the mean and standard deviation, and responses

were then categorized according to licensure area. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the differences.

The participants were also asked to answer the following open-ended question: *What leadership behaviors and skills did you develop during your time in your teacher preparation program and how did you do this?* Open coding was used to examine the answers to the open-ended question and to determine themes related to the participants' self-reported development of leadership behaviors and licensure area.

2. How do preservice teachers perceive professional responsibilities as possible opportunities for leadership according to licensure area?

The answer to research question two was determined by aligning survey items found on the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* that addressed opportunities for leadership and then determining the mean and standard deviation. An ANOVA was used to determine the effect of the participant's licensure area on the professional responsibilities the participant perceived as possible opportunities for involvement in leadership.

The following two open-ended questions were also asked and analyzed: *What are the different ways that teachers can enact leadership inside the classroom? What opportunities do teachers have to participate in leadership outside of the classroom?* The specific roles and opportunities the participants most identified were compiled into a list.

3. What difference does licensure area make in preservice teachers' aspirations for leadership roles within and beyond the classroom?

Research question three targeted survey items found on the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* that addressed willingness to serve in a leadership capacity as a teacher.

The mean and standard deviation for these items were calculated and then sorted by licensure area. An ANOVA was used to determine if differences existed between the licensure area and aspirations for leadership.

Two open-ended questions were asked: How do you plan to grow and development professionally once you start teaching? Where do you see yourself professionally in 5 years? The open-ended questions helped identify additional information related to the participant's aspirations for leadership. The answers were examined using open coding for insights on teacher satisfaction and retention.

4. What typology of teacher leadership do preservice teachers represent?

All 25 survey items found on the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* were compiled for research question four and a descriptive analysis was conducted based on the different roles of teacher leadership as determined by typologies created by Bae et al. (2106). Participants were categorized into teacher leadership roles and a chi-square test of independence was then performed to examine the relationship between licensure area and typology.

Summary

“There is a compelling need to address leadership development among America's teachers even as early as the preservice stage because beginning teachers are not too young to lead” (Pucella, 2014, p. 15). If educator preparation providers prepare preservice teachers to enter the teaching profession with leadership behaviors and aspirations, these individuals will enter the classroom as novice teachers with the confidence needed early on in their careers to take advantage of opportunities to participate in leadership. As a result novice teachers will fulfill leadership roles

effectively, lead from within and beyond the classroom, positively impact student achievement, grow in their own teaching practices, feel fulfilled in the profession, contribute to the culture of school improvement, and make a difference in the school culture. “Increasing the extent of teacher leadership in a school can bring positive change to schools, transforming the school into a place of adult, as well as student learning (Angelle & DeHart, 2011, p. 142).

Research on the roles and responsibilities of teacher leaders, though greatly focused on inservice teachers already practicing in K-12 schools, can serve as a guide for developing a framework and model for introducing teacher leadership to preservice teachers. A subsequent review of published research on the topic of teacher leadership, for both practicing and preservice teachers, is provided in Chapter II. Key ideas that have been discovered in a review of literature relevant to teacher leadership as it pertains to inservice and preservice teacher leadership will be shared.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Leadership is an important part of teaching today. Forster (1997) claimed that teacher leadership “is a fundamental part of fulfilling one’s professional role and responsibilities. All teachers must be educational leaders in order to optimize the teaching and learning experiences for themselves and their students” (pp. 82-83). Chapter II investigates the depth and breadth of teacher leadership focused on both inservice and preservice teaching as a means to uncover what teacher leadership is, who teacher leaders are, and how and why teachers, including preservice teachers, should be prepared for leadership roles. According to Holland et al. (2014), the need for teacher leadership is changing the role of the teacher, and as a result educator preparation providers must also change. Holland et al. even proposed that as teaching evolves further “the term *teacher leader* will be obsolete as the words *teacher* and *leader* will be redundant” (p. 434). Teacher leadership is a concept that has existed for decades, been readily described in research, and deemed important by many educational scholars and practitioners; however the preparation of preservice teachers for leadership is timely, relevant, and necessary.

Definition of Teacher Leadership

Providing a definition of teacher leadership is complicated. Research on teacher leadership quickly reveals that, even though teacher leadership is not new and is

frequently used in academic conversations, there is a lack of agreement over what teacher leadership actually looks like. There is not a standard definition available for teacher leadership and as a result, many people assume a definition for it, despite the fact that they might not know exactly what it encompasses or means. The lack of a well-defined description of teacher leadership creates an interesting predicament where teacher leadership is discussed at great lengths without a clear and consistent definition attached to it (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). In addition, definitions of teacher leadership “have changed continually revealing its complexities and its conundrums” (Lieberman, 2013, p. 169). York-Barr and Duke (2004) claimed the lack of a definition for teacher leadership is due in part to “the expansive territory encompassed under the umbrella term ‘teacher leadership’” (p. 260). It is also difficult to define because it has been used in a broad range of contexts and varied criteria are used for establishing the boundaries of what it means (Eargle, 2013). Finally, teacher leadership has its roots in several well-established leadership theories and as a result has not been viewed as its own unique domain of leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

Concepts related to teacher leadership are often found in transformational leadership theories. The perception is that school leaders, such as principals, model for followers, in this case teachers, and assist them in critically reflecting on their professional performance, values, and beliefs in safe way. According to Brezicha, Bergmark, and Mitra (2015) principal support is key to transformational leadership and aids in developing teachers as leaders. “By initiating and identifying a vision, school leaders contribute to school improvement, increasing followers’ motivation and creating cohesion” (p. 100). Individualized support creates a fair and cooperative environment that

increases a teacher's sense of trust, builds school community, and "reflects a blurred distinction of the power relationship between school leaders and teachers in a school hierarchy" (Szeto & Cheng, 2017, p 47).

The foundations of teacher leadership are also influenced by the distributive leadership structures that can be found in schools. According to Diamond and Spillane (2016) distributive leadership has become a part of school leadership discussions and has emerged as an important framework in education. Distributive leadership focuses on leaders and followers mutually interacting with each other and practicing leadership together. Distributive leadership occurs "anytime a person, irrespective of formal title, within the school influences another person on a matter of education significance" (Brezicha et al., 2015, p. 100). The focus of distributive leadership is the representational power that comes from teams, rather than individuals. Distributive leadership recognizes how the interactions of multiple people, those in formal and informal leadership roles, interact (Salazar, 2010). According to Poekert (2012) literature on distributive leadership informs teacher leadership. "Teacher leadership is centered on a vision of leadership built on influence and interaction, rather than power and authority. For this reason, distributed leadership models of school leadership align well with the concept of teacher leadership" (p. 171).

Distributive leadership also gives teachers the opportunity to better understand policy by allowing for collaborative and reflective processes regarding school and student performance. Participation in leadership decisions emphasizes the importance of teachers as leaders. Neumerski (2012) stated that "accounting for multiple leaders creates a fuller, more comprehensive understanding of leadership" (p. 315). Multiple individuals

contribute to the leadership of a school community in both informal and formal ways. The principal cannot be the sole leader. “Leadership in a school does not have to be instilled in a single person but rather can be dispersed and shared with all school staff” (DeHart, 2011, p. 23).

Crowther, Ferguson, and Hann (2009) developed the concept of parallel leadership and defined it as “a process whereby teacher leaders and their principals engage in collective action to build school capacity” (p. 53). Parallel leadership requires a change in the traditional roles held by principal and teacher that are typical in a school setting. Parallel leadership is a collaborative working environment that contains the distributive leadership structures of collective intelligence and organizational capacity. Parallel leadership is built on mutual trust, shared purpose, and individual expression.

Although informed by transformational, distributive leadership, and parallel leadership theories, teacher leadership is its own unique form of leadership in theory and process and therefore needs its own definition. “Teacher leadership is not about power, not simply another leadership practice, and not just for a few teachers. It is a way of thinking about leadership that requires collaboration within a facilitative, supportive school culture” (Salazar, 2010, p. 15).

The most widely accepted and cited definition for teacher leadership found in research is from York-Barr and Duke (2004). York-Barr and Duke published a seminal report on over two decades worth of literature that focused on teacher leadership from 1980 to 2000 and synthesized what they found into the following definition. “Teacher leadership is the process by which teachers, individually or collectively influence their colleagues, principals, and other members of the school communities to improve teaching

and learning practices with the aim of increased student learning and achievement” (pp. 287-288). York-Barr and Duke’s definition highlights the fact that teachers are using their expertise and experience in teaching and instruction to impact school culture and improve student learning. The definition of teacher leadership also includes a range of responsibilities assigned to teachers at various levels of influence, which includes working with students, colleagues, and administrators. According to York-Barr and Duke, the focus of teacher leadership is on instructional practices, professional development, and organizational procedures.

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) added to York-Barr and Duke’s (2004) definition of teacher leadership by emphasizing the context of and position from which teacher leadership occurs. “Teacher leaders lead within and beyond the classroom; identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders; influence others toward improved educational practice; and accept responsibility for achieving the outcomes of their leadership” (p. 6). It is important to note Katzenmeyer and Moller’s addition to York-Barr and Duke’s definition of teacher leadership because it emphasizes that teachers can lead the school community in some role and still teach in the classroom. It is typically assumed that if a teacher wants to become a leader he/she must leave the classroom. Katzenmeyer and Moller claimed that “Teachers do not have to divorce themselves from focusing on teaching and learning to be leaders” (p. 6).

The most recent definition of teacher leadership focuses on individuals who are both teachers and leaders. “Teacher expertise has been increasingly recognized as an important part of schools’ collective power that should be more fully capitalized on to bring about educational improvements” (Lai & Cheung, 2015, p. 674). Wenner and

Campbell (2017) completed a seminal review of the literature on teacher leadership that had been published since York-Barr and Duke's (2004) meta-analysis of research on teacher leadership and defined teacher leaders as "teachers who maintain K-12 classroom-based teaching responsibilities, while also taking on leadership responsibilities outside of the classroom" (p. 140). Wenner and Campbell's definition is consistent with what Margolis and Huggins (2012) termed *hybrid* teacher leadership. A *hybrid* teacher leader is an individual whose schedule and responsibilities include both teaching students and leading teachers (Margolis & Huggins). The definition of *hybrid* teacher leadership is helpful in differentiating between informal and formal teacher leaders.

Formal teacher leadership refers to teachers who lead from outside of the classroom and occupy roles in between teaching and administration. Formal teacher leaders hold titles such as reading specialists, math coaches, professional development providers, data analysts, and curriculum coordinators (Hunzicker, 2013). Formal teacher leaders may receive additional compensation for their responsibilities and may be expected to extend their work day and/or yearly schedule because of professional obligations and additional expectations associated with their work (Killion et al., 2016).

Informal teacher leadership refers to individuals who serve as full-time classroom teachers, and in addition to their assigned teaching duties, take on extra responsibilities and leadership roles. "Here teacher leadership is primarily concerned with enhanced leadership roles and decision-making powers for teachers without taking them out of the classroom" (Harris & Muijs, 2003, p. 3). Though informal teacher leaders hold no official title or position and spend the majority of their time in their classroom, their work does extend beyond the students and the classroom (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Informal teacher

leaders often take the initiative upon themselves to mentor other teachers, serve as representatives on committees, become members of professional organizations, assist in curriculum development, and volunteer for school initiatives (Killion et al., 2016).

Informal teacher leaders were the focus for this review of literature.

Historical Context of Teacher Leadership

Teacher leadership dates back to the turn of the 20th century when one-room schoolhouses relied on teachers to serve as leaders. “It is difficult to think about the one-room schoolhouse of the 19th century and not also think about the teacher as an organizational leader” (Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002, p. 164). According to Bond, (2011) during the early and mid-1900’s pioneers in the field of education and sociology, even though they did not use the teacher leadership terminology that is used today, stressed the need for teachers to become more involved in the leadership roles in their schools. The views held during the early era of schooling, such of decentralizing decision making in schools, professionalizing education, and involving teachers in school reform, can be viewed as advocacy for teacher leadership even though leadership was not officially part of education reform during this time (Bond). “The significant point here is not that teachers were unconnected to leadership but that such leadership was rarely acknowledged” (Murphy, 2005, p. 6).

Teacher leadership development efforts dwindled during the 1960s and 1970s but were renewed in the 1980s. By the late 1980s, nearly every state in America had implemented, or was considering adopting, some form of program or policy for teacher leadership as a means to involve teachers in school and district decision making processes (Smylie et al., 2002). Teacher leadership initiatives during the late 1980s and

early 1990s focused on improving schools, increasing student achievement, and empowering individual teachers (Hart, 1995).

Silva et al. (2000) described the evolution of teacher leadership as occurring in three waves. The three waves identified how reform and policy efforts have attempted to engage teachers as leaders over a number of decades (Sato et al., 2014). Each wave offers a distinctive way to think about teacher leadership. The first wave of teacher leadership dates back to the early 1980s when teacher leaders were thought of as managers who could serve in formal roles, assist the school in operating more efficiently, and help supervise other teachers (Eckert, Ulmer, Khachatryan, & Ledesma, 2016). “Leadership for teachers was positioned in formal roles and titles” (Sato et al., p. 2). Examples of the formal roles and titles given to teacher leaders during the first wave were department chair, lead teacher, and union representative. The roles in the first wave provided teachers with opportunities to lead but did not contribute to changes in teacher instruction or student learning. The energy of teacher leaders was directed toward managing tasks rather than towards instructing students (Mangin & Stoelinga, 2010). Wasley (1991) described teachers in leadership roles during the first wave as simply functioning as an extension of the administration. “The managerial role in effect neutered other teachers, thus undermining what might have been accomplished” (Lumpkin, Claxton, & Wilson, 2016, p. 59).

In the mid to late 1980’s a second wave of teacher leadership developed that was based on the instructional expertise of teachers. The standards-based reform movement was occurring at the same time as the second wave of teacher leadership and as a result positions were given to teachers in which they could use their instructional expertise to

impact curriculum and instruction (Silva et al., 2000). “Teachers were expected to develop scope and sequence, pacing guides, and materials to ensure that the standards were being addressed” (Holland et al., 2014, p. 435). During the second wave teachers were recognized as leaders based on their teaching experience, content knowledge, and the respect of their colleagues. Teacher leaders were appointed to positions such as mentors for new teachers, curriculum directors, instructional leaders, and professional development leaders. The positions “were seen as a way to decentralize authority, include teachers in shared decision making, improve moral, enhance teachers’ work, and tap into previously underused resources” (Mangin & Stoelings, 2010, p. 50). The goal for teacher leaders in the second wave was to improve the instructional practices of other teachers through peer interaction and school/district initiatives (Holland et al.). “The ultimate outcome of teacher leadership was anchored by student learning, and leadership was targeted to have influence on individuals, groups, as well as organizational policy and capacity” (Sato et al., 2014, p. 2).

While there were benefits that came out of the second wave of teacher leadership, the roles assigned to teacher leaders in this wave set them apart from their peers and at times made collaboration difficult and forced. Smylie and Eckert (2017) claimed that although teachers were leading in schools during the second wave their leadership was only recognized when the opportunity for leadership was appointed or assigned to them by the primary leader in the school. Therefore, the primary school leader was still seen as the main source of authority. In addition, the overall impact on educational achievement and student learning lessened (Lumpkin et al., 2016). According to Darling-Hammond (1998) one result of the second wave of teacher leadership was the “remote controlling of

teachers” (p. 7). Teachers were given prepackaged materials and units of study that stifled creativity. Darling-Hammond warned against controlling teachers by giving them simplistic routines and formulas for teaching and encouraging them to teach from “cookie-cutter” curriculums (p. 8). As a result, although leadership positions during the second wave allowed teacher leaders to associate more closely with their colleagues and distance themselves from the administration, teachers did not see them as contributing to their philosophy of teaching and daily work in the classroom (Salazar, 2010).

During the second wave another reform effort that was closely tied to teacher leadership also came into play. Career ladders, a system of performance-based compensation for teachers, were implemented. Teacher leadership played a very important part in the merit pay system (Hart, 1995). One of the reasons career ladders were created was to monetarily reward teacher expertise and influence. At that time the career ladder initiative was seen as a way to encourage “more active participation of teachers in the leadership and development of the educational enterprise” (York-Barr & Duke, 2004, p. 256). The flip side was that some teachers focused on heightening their individual job responsibilities rather than improving collectively (Lumpkin et al., 2016).

The third wave of teacher leadership started in the late 1980s and continues into the present. The third wave “emphasizes that teacher leadership is a process rather than a concept of locating leadership within one’s position or role” (Sato et al., 2014, p. 2). The result of teacher leadership in the third wave was the creation of second-order changes as a means to improve the school culture. According to Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) first order changes are focused on existing knowledge and resources that can be implemented easily because all parties involved have similar interests and agree on what

changes need to occur. Second order changes require new knowledge and skills, may conflict with current values and norms, and require a change of thinking and/or new approaches (Waters et al.). When teachers accept both individual and shared responsibility to improve instruction within their classroom and throughout the school, they impact school culture. Teachers strive to improve their own pedagogy and practice, and through collaboration, they simultaneously teach one another (Silva et al., 2000). Teacher leadership in the third wave transforms school culture and allows teachers to lead inside and outside of their classroom (Ash & Persall, 2000). The third wave of teacher leadership was the focus of this current study.

The emphasis of the third wave of teacher leadership is using a teacher's expertise about teaching to impact student learning and improve school culture through improved instruction. Third wave teacher leadership is a necessity in schools today in order to keep up with the high stakes accountability measures that have been placed on schools by state agencies and education policy (Little, 2003). One such example is the creation of professional learning communities. As a result of teachers dealing with the new accountability measures and federal reform efforts collaborative professional learning communities were created (McLaughlin, 2011). "Teachers are leaders when they function in professional learning communities to affect student learning; contribute to school improvement; inspire excellence in practice; and empower stakeholders to participate in educational improvement" (Childs-Bowen, Moller, & Scrivner, 2000, p. 28).

As schools respond to educational policy and reform efforts some researchers are advocating for a fourth wave of teacher leadership. Berry (2015) saw the need for a fourth wave of teacher leadership based on the need for teachers to lead and drive school

policies in the hopes of solving some of the challenges facing schools today. The fourth wave expands the influence of teacher leadership beyond the school and district level to policies that are at the state and federal level (Eckert et al., 2016). “Teacher leaders in the fourth wave would drive the policies that solve the challenges in 21st century schools and build on the communities of practice established in the third wave” (Holland et al., 2014, p. 436). Berry created the term *teacherpreneur*; “classroom experts who teach students regularly but also have time, space, and reward to spread their ideas and practices to colleagues as well as administrators, policy makers, parents, and community leaders” (p. 146). Berry advocated that teacherpreneurs who practice teacher leadership could reduce distributive leadership structures by creating hybrid positions where teachers could lead at the local, state, and federal levels, affect policy-making and policy-keeping measures, and lead reform. Eckert et al. viewed a teacherpreneur type of teacher leadership as a way to create the space needed to allow for dialog between practitioners and policy makers and as a way for teacher leaders to bridge “the practice and policy gap as boundary spanners where teacher leadership is needed the most” (p. 690). Currently the teacherpreneur type of teacher leadership is rarely practiced and therefore very hard to research and rationalize. Eckert et al. suggested that researchers continue to explore teacher leadership focusing particularly on the context of educational policy.

Models of Teacher Leadership

There are various models of teacher leadership that provide evidence of the impact of teacher leadership and how it is constructed and supported in schools. When teacher leadership is established in an efficient manner there are positive effects on the teachers, teacher leaders, principals, and most importantly the students (Angelle &

DeHart. 2016). The first model of teacher leadership is principal-teacher interaction. Smylie (1992), as a result of his study on a K-8 school district in a Midwestern metropolitan area, developed an analytical framework for teacher leadership that is widely accepted as the earliest model for teacher leadership. Smylie's framework was based on an analysis of teachers from the schools included in his study and their willingness to participate in the decision-making process related to personnel, curriculum and instruction, staff development, and general administration. Smylie concluded that the following four factors were linked to a teacher's willingness to take on leadership responsibilities and roles: (a) the principal-teacher working relationship, (b) norms influencing working relationships among teachers, (c) teachers' perceived capacity to contribute to making decisions, and (d) teachers' sense of responsibility and accountability in their work with students (p. 56). Smylie's findings suggested that principal-teacher relationships were the greatest influence on and indicator of teachers' willingness to participate in school decision-making. "Teachers appear substantially more willing to participate in all areas of decision making if they perceive their relationships with their principals as more open, collaborative, facilitative, and supportive (p. 63).

The critical role that principals play in fostering teacher leadership design has been more recently explored by researchers since Smylie's (1992) original work. Cheng and Szeto (2016) found in their study of 20 novice teachers that the interaction between principals and teachers plays a very important role in fostering teacher leadership. "Teacher leadership development can be incubated and developed in the interplay of teachers' awareness, willingness, and self-initiation, as well as principals' delegation, facilitation and identification of the potential leadership talents" (p. 147). Brezicha et al.

(2015), as a result of their study that included two years' worth of principal and teacher interviews, claimed that principals create the environment that either facilitates or hinders teacher leadership depending on the amount of trust, security, cooperation, and support that is established.

Based on an analysis of data from the U.S. National Schools and Staffing Survey 2003-2004, Price (2012) found that teachers perceived themselves as having positive principal-teacher relationships when principals explicitly shared their expectations for teacher leadership in their schools. Mangin (2007) interviewed 15 principals and 12 teacher leaders from five different school districts to determine the role a principal played in regards to the teacher leader. The results of Mangin's study indicated meaningful dialogue on matters of instructional support, curriculum development, and vision sharing positively impacted teacher leaders' work. Lambert's (2003) study of principal-teacher interaction found that principals can build teacher leadership into a school's culture by establishing effective leadership structures, providing regular feedback to teacher leaders, coaching novice teachers in leadership, and consistently modeling leadership roles both inside and outside of the classroom. "The frequency of interactions between principals and teachers is indicative of the teachers' involvement in the decision-making process, and the quality of these interactions contributes to teacher leadership development in terms of trust building and effective communication" (Szeto & Cheng, 2018, p. 366).

Professional development is the second model of teacher leadership. "Teacher leaders are, in essence, school-based professional developers" (Poekert, 2012, p. 172). Wallace, Nesbit, and Miller (1999) conducted a study of 15, multisite, two-year teacher leadership professional development programs in an attempt to measure the role

professional development plays in teacher leadership. A model of teacher leadership based on a continuum of the following two factors emerged from the study: the sphere of influence and level of proactivity. The sphere of influence was correlated to where the leadership activities took place such as the classroom, school, or district level. Proactivity was defined as “the lead teachers initiating the support of other teachers in bringing about school change” (p. 255) and was measured from low to high. Wallace et al. developed six different models that were valued in the context of professional development and teacher leadership: (a) classroom teacher, (b) school facilitator, (c) resource manager, (d) instructional manager, (e) change agent, and (f) leadership choice. Wallace et al. encouraged professional development program designers to “examine all models and analyze which model will best fit individual teacher needs, school context, and needs based on desired outcomes” (p. 265).

York-Barr and Duke (2004) also included professional development as an important component in what they termed *means of leadership influence* for teacher leaders. York-Barr and Duke’s research highlighted examples of professional development schools where learning about teacher leadership was embedded in a teacher’s role. Likewise, Lieberman and Miller (2005) focused their research on the concept of professional learning in the school setting and claimed that it best occurred through collaborative practice between teachers and teacher leaders. “In short, effective teacher leadership is effective professional development” (Poekert, 2012, p. 172).

The final model of teacher leadership that has received the most attention in the literature addresses the fact that teacher leadership is about more than just the individual teacher. Berry and Farris-Berg (2016) stated that “there is a growing movement to

transform the profession with teachers serving as the agents of change-rather than being the targets of it” (p. 12). Teacher leadership is a school-wide model that influences the culture, reform, and collective efficacy of the school (Angelle, 2017). “Teacher leadership may be seen as the core of school improvement and school effectiveness as teachers lead beyond the classroom” (p. 105). Angelle, Taylor, and Olivier (2008) created a survey for measuring the extent of teacher leadership in a school. The 25-item inventory was based off of qualitative studies Angelle had previously performed. Angelle and DeHart (2010) constructed a model of teacher leadership that consisted of the following four factors that were identified by teachers as necessary for teacher leadership: (a) sharing expertise, (b) sharing leadership, (c) supra-practitioner, and (d) principal selection. Sharing expertise refers to teachers’ perceptions of their own pedagogical techniques and classroom management skills, and their willingness to share these with fellow teachers. Sharing leadership involves both the teacher and principal and involves a principal’s willingness to offer leadership opportunities to teachers and the teachers’ willingness to engage in the leadership opportunities that are offered. A teacher’s willingness to go above and beyond the role stipulated for him or her is the third factor, termed supra-practitioner. The fourth factor is principal selection; this factor measures the teachers’ perceptions of how much control the principal has over which teachers participate in leadership activities.

Researchers have also studied the concept of leadership teams, based off of the idea that leadership is not just an individual teacher responsibility. “The logic of teams is that teachers’ commitment, knowledge, and skills will be developed as they assume collective responsibility” (Smylie et al., 2002, p. 177). Self-managed teams comprised of

individuals with complementary skills work interdependently together towards a common purpose. According to Crow and Pounder (2000) teacher leadership skills within the group enhance the effectiveness of the team and knowledge of the school setting contribute to positive outcomes.

Teacher Leadership Roles and Boundaries

A key element in researching teacher leadership is determining what roles teacher leaders can play in schools, which are customarily considered to be established on a hierarchical leadership structure (Muijs & Harris, 2007). Teachers possess a variety of interests and talents that can be used in different ways to meet the needs of their students and school community. A considerable amount of research on teacher leadership has focused on the roles and boundaries of teacher leadership in an attempt to determine how teachers can unleash their leadership potential and have influence over other teachers and their surroundings (Frost, 2008). Frost (2012) suggested the aim for teacher leadership should be for teachers to move along a continuum of leadership:

At one end is the teacher who embraces self-evaluation in their own classroom, at the other end is the teacher who initiates and sustains a more strategic intervention in which they draw their colleagues, their students and stakeholders into more systematic collaborations aimed at embedding new and improved practices into the very fabric of their schools and educational systems. (p. 224)

Harris (2013) suggested four distinct dimensions of teacher leadership roles. The first role is brokering and addresses the way a teacher applies school improvement principles into his/her own classroom and is a fundamental responsibility of teacher leaders. Brokering ensures that teacher development is maximized and purposeful. The

second role is participative leadership where, because they are a part of the change or development, all teachers have a sense of ownership (Harris & Muijs, 2004).

Participative teacher leaders assist other teachers, foster collaboration, and guide teachers toward a shared goal (Harris & Muijs, 2002). Teacher leaders are also a source of experience and expertise. Harris termed the third role of teacher leadership mediating. Mediating empowers teacher leaders to seek external assistance or elicit additional resources and expertise if needed (Harris). The fourth role, and according Harris and Muijs (2004) the most important for teacher leadership, is building relationships with and between teachers so that shared learning can take place.

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) classified teacher leadership into four main categories based on specific leadership functions. The first category is leadership as governing where teachers serve in specific roles that involve them in the decision-making processes and governance of the school. Leadership in the governing role also involves partnering with parents, community members, institutions of higher education, and outside organizations (Harris & Muijs, 2003). The second category is leadership of student activities. Teacher leaders coordinate and supervise academic programs, study groups, and clubs that extend beyond the standard curriculum (Katzenmeyer & Moller). Leadership of operational tasks is the third category and is necessary for keeping the school organized and moving forward. Leadership activities in the third category involve teachers serving formally as team leaders and faculty council members, and informally by serving on task forces, contributing to professional organizations, and participating in action research (Harris & Muijs). The fourth category is leadership of instruction, and the goal of a teacher leader in this category is “to improve teaching and learning practices by

leading work with other teachers” (Cheng & Szeto, 2016, p. 141). As an instructional leader teachers focus on supporting and developing teaching and learning practices in order to improve student achievement (Katzenmeyer & Moller).

Muijs et al. (2013) considered teacher leadership roles across four major boundaries. When teachers lead across boundaries “they can contribute strongly to leadership that is focused on learning” (p. 768). Classroom boundaries are when teachers lead outside of their own classroom and focus on instructional practices. The second boundary is subject and refers to when teachers lead curriculum work with colleagues. Team, the third boundary, is when teachers lead on certain issues across the faculty. The fourth boundary is operational and allows for teachers to lead initiatives and govern beyond the school. Szeto and Cheng (2017) conducted a five-year cross-case study on early-career teachers to determine how teachers explored their roles as leaders across the four boundaries of teacher leadership. Szeto and Cheng determined that teachers functioned across all four boundaries of teacher leadership and that by engaging in activities that crossed the different boundaries these teachers found relevance in enhancing the education processes in their schools.

Crowther et al. (2009) proposed the *Teachers as Leaders Framework* based on a decade of their own research and work as a way to articulate how teacher leaders can influence their schools through certain roles. The framework consists of six elements “that present an idealized image of how teacher leaders exercise influence in their school communities” (p. 11). The following six elements highlight the actions teachers can take when in leadership roles: (a) convey conviction about a better world, (b) facilitate communities of learning, (c) strive for pedagogical excellence, (d) confront barriers in the

culture and structure of the school, (e) translate ideas into systems of action that are sustainable, and (f) nurture a culture of success. When teachers have the capacity to act and lead they have the possibility to revitalize the school and enhance the community (Crowther et al.).

According to Muijs and Harris, (2007) there is not much research available on teacher leadership as a shared action and accomplishment. “A preliminary glance at the vast leadership literature, however, reveals it is largely premised upon individual endeavor rather than on collective action” (p. 111). Lai and Cheung (2015) researched the different levels of engagement in teacher leadership in an attempt to fill the knowledge gap in research that had been created between individual teacher involvement and collective involvement in leadership. Lai and Cheung proposed three roles of teacher leadership that represented how teachers interact with each other as a way to lead and bring about change in schools in an increasingly sophisticated manner. The first role, teacher participation, aligns with what the bulk of research has labeled teacher leadership. Teacher leaders are given opportunities to support teaching practices and curricular initiatives with the hopes of increasing student learning. The second role, teacher learning, represents a higher level of involvement with the leadership process because teachers in this role not only understand and engage in the curriculum, but they also seek and utilize external resources to better support teaching and learning. Teacher leaders extend their influence into communities of practice beyond their schools. The third role is teacher influence. In the role of influence a teacher leader encompasses curricular and pedagogical guidance from other experts and forms extended professional networks. The third role of teacher leadership requires both internal and external participants to work “in

interaction to continually craft or negotiate the fit between external demands and schools' own goals and strategies" (Honig & Hatch, 2004, p. 17) when pursuing increased student achievement and school reform. Lai and Cheung claimed that as opposed to individual teacher leadership practices, "interactive teacher leadership practices are more likely to provide a facilitative organizational context for implementing educational change and achieving school improvement goals" (p. 689).

The Impact and Importance of Teacher Leadership

The literature has identified many desirable and positive effects of teacher leadership on the educational process and on the teachers as leaders themselves. Beneficial effects include the ability to influence the colleagues of teacher leaders, impact student learning, and contribute to school culture (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Barth (2001) stated, "There's a great deal in teacher leadership for everybody" (p. 444). Teachers, students, schools, and communities benefit from teachers taking on leadership roles. The strongest effect of teacher leadership that has been documented is the positive impact teacher leaders produce for themselves. Smylie (1995) claimed that one of the main objectives of teacher leadership is to, "enhance the quality of the teacher workforce by expanding and diversifying the nature of teachers' work, providing a wider array of incentives to attract and retain the most talented teachers in the profession" (p. 3).

There are many ways teachers enhance, energize, and enrich their careers when pursuing and participating in elements of teacher leadership (Barth, 2001). Research indicates that teacher leaders increase their self-confidence and self-esteem, develop greater self-efficacy in respect to student learning, and grow in their desire to remain in the profession (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Teachers grow as they engage in the

leadership process. York-Barr and Duke (2004) claimed that engaging in teacher leadership helps teachers improve their instructional practices because they have been exposed to new information and have interacted with new ideas that contribute to their ability to teach better. Lieberman, Saxl, and Miles (1988) described the relationship created by teachers that were leading and learning as “not only making learning possible for others but, in important ways, are learning a great deal about themselves” (p. 164). Edge and Mylopoulos (2008) claimed that in addition to improving leadership skills, teacher leaders seek out more leadership opportunities as a result of having such skills.

A teacher’s career path is also impacted by teacher leadership opportunities. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) claimed that the shortage of leadership opportunities for teachers impacts teacher attrition. Ingersoll (2001) conducted a study that revealed a large number of teachers were leaving the profession for reasons other than they were retiring. Ingersoll found that younger teachers who were newer to the profession left more frequently than veteran teachers and cited reasons for leaving such as job dissatisfaction, organizational conditions, and a desire to pursue other careers. Ingersoll claimed that the way to decrease teacher turnover is to improve organizational conditions by increasing the administrative support for teachers and enhancing teacher input into school decision making structures and processes. Cosenza (2015) claimed that “teachers have the potential to be leaders without giving up their classrooms which could translate into keeping good teachers longer where we need them most, in the classroom” (p. 97).

According to Curtis (2013) teaching is a flat profession and so teacher leadership needs to be a means for not only recruiting talented teachers but also for retaining the best teachers. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) suggested that “teacher leadership

opportunities can promote teaching as a more desirable career and help to retain outstanding teachers for the complex tasks of school change” (p. 32). Curtis advocated for differentiation among teachers that nurtures leadership and helps them develop expertise. “Differentiation relates, in part, to the extent to which a system creates career pathways. Pathways offer a leadership roadmap which outlines how teachers can develop and advance” (p. 9). Margolis (2008) developed a teacher career cycle that helped analyze job satisfaction and the reasons why teachers leave the profession. As a result of research Margolis concluded that “contemporary teachers at an earlier point than ever are seeking work that is both regenerative (improving their own classroom teaching) and generative (improving the larger teaching profession as well as other’s classroom)” (p. 194). Pucella (2014) claimed that “if teachers take on leadership roles, even early in their career, and have a part in the decisions that shape their classrooms and impact their students then they are more likely to be retained” (p. 16).

Cameron and Lovett (2015) conducted a study that followed over 50 teachers who had been identified early in their careers as having the potential for leadership. The researchers analyzed the data and discovered what prolonged or constrained the enthusiasm of teachers to continue on in the profession. Cameron and Lovett reported that the most satisfied teachers felt a sense of collective responsibility in their school and were teachers who had a voice in the operations of the school. The researchers concluded that opportunity for leadership practices were fundamental to a teacher’s job satisfaction. “Teachers are most likely to thrive in teaching and to advance their role within the profession in strong collaborative cultures that foster teachers’ beliefs in themselves as learners and that prioritize teacher well-being” (p. 161).

The next group that benefits from teacher leadership is other teachers. Teacher leadership affects the relationships teacher leaders have with their colleagues. Relationships are not based on establishing authority over one another but instead on influencing the teaching practices of other teachers (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). According to Wenner and Campbell (2017) teacher leaders do empower themselves when they take on leadership responsibilities, but according to the literature, feelings of empowerment existed for all teachers in schools where teacher leadership was present. Friedman (2011) claimed that teacher leaders help promote the self-esteem of other teachers by “communicating high expectations, delegation of responsibilities, and serving as role models” (p. 295).

Smylie (1995) claimed that teacher leadership improves the quality of teachers and teacher effectiveness because the emphasis teacher leaders place on continuous learning and practicing excellence can be spread to other teachers throughout the school. “The increased expertise and confidence of teachers, coupled with the greater responsibilities vested in them, will make teachers more willing to take risks and introduce innovative teaching methods, which should have a direct positive effect on teacher effectiveness” (Muijs et al., 2013, p. 769). Hickey and Harris (2005) found that teacher leaders provided better quality and more relevant professional development to their colleagues. In addition, Gordin (2010) found that teacher leaders were available to provide help and support with pedagogy and content knowledge to other teachers.

Ryan (1999) conducted interviews with 12 teacher leaders and found that teacher leaders greatly impacted the instructional practices of their colleagues and that schools were places of not only student learning, but also adult learning. “Teacher leaders were

available to their colleagues as a resource in such areas as instructional practice, assistance in dealing with difficult students, helping to plan new programmes and even offering advice on personal matters” (p. 26). “When collaboration is deeply rooted in the campus culture, classroom transparency becomes the norm. Teachers adopt an attitude of ‘all our students’, rather than ‘just my 20 students’” (Lumpkin et al., 2016, p. 64).

Silva et al. (2000) conducted a case study of three teachers and described their leadership experiences. As a result of analyzing the interviews conducted with the teachers the researchers identified five ways teacher leaders make an impact, the following three of which targeted how teacher leaders positively affect other teachers: (a) teacher leaders nurture relationships, (b) teacher leaders encourage professional growth, and (c) teacher leaders help others change (p. 793). Killion et al. (2016) stated that “teacher leaders are facilitators of professional growth and have as much vested in the growth of their colleagues as they do in their own growth” (p. 8). Lumpkin et al. (2016) stressed the importance of emotional intelligence which expands a teacher leader’s capacity to impact their peers. “The success of teacher leaders rests heavily upon emotional intelligence and the necessity of facilitating connections personally and professionally with colleagues” (p. 63).

Though not the most researched, the most ideal effect of teacher leadership is the impact it has on student learning. The greatest resource a school has to impact student achievement is its teachers. The quality of teaching is the key factor for student learning (Danielson, 2006). “It is well recognized, but little acted upon, that the greatest professional resource available in every school is the expertise of its teachers” (p. 55). Ovando (1996) found that when teacher leaders influence other teachers to enhance their

teaching practices and innovate in their classrooms improved student outcomes are innately affected. Leithwood and Duke (1999) found that when leadership activities were shared by teachers there was a positive effect on student outcomes. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) found that increasing teacher efficacy was a noteworthy predictor of student achievement.

Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) conducted a study that compared the effects of principal leadership to teacher leadership. The researchers found that teacher leadership was attributed to student learning and teacher effectiveness more than principal leadership was. Principal leadership did not prove to be a critical factor in student engagement whereas teacher leadership had a significant effect. Harris and Muijs (2003) stated that the results of Leithwood and Jantzi's study suggested that "distributing a larger portion of current leadership activity to teachers would have a positive influence on teacher effectiveness and student engagement" (p. 12). Lumpkin et al. (2016) claimed that the impacts of teacher leadership on student achievement "have not been fully realized because teachers traditionally work behind closed classroom doors with their individual knowledge and instructional strategies observed only by their students" (p. 60).

According to Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) teacher leaders need to focus on student success and suggested that every teacher has some sort of leadership capabilities that can be used to benefit students. Barth (2001) claimed that when teachers pursue leadership opportunities their students learn more, such as in the context of democracy. Barth believed that teacher leadership is a way for schools to operate more democratically, which in turn helps students develop an understanding of the government

and their roles as citizens. Barth stated that one of the purposes of public education is to produce citizens that will participate in our democracy. However, our schools do not demonstrate what democratic participation entails because most school structures do not operate democratically. When teachers take on leadership roles, it changes the leadership culture of the school, creating a democratic community that students notice. “The more the school comes to look, act, and feel like a democracy, the more students come to believe in, practice, and sustain our democratic form of government” (Barth, p. 444).

Barth (2001) agreed with Cooper (1993) that teacher leadership roles should challenge and change the traditional school structure by dispersing responsibility. Silva et al. (2000) acknowledge the need for democratic schools based on shared leadership, and King and Stevenson (2017) recognized the need for genuine teacher leadership to change the traditional institutional hierarchies that exist in schools. King and Stevenson termed the structures as *below* and *above*. The goal is to employ leadership that “seeks to integrate a ‘change from below’ approach with ‘support from above’” (p. 658).

Finally, the benefits of teacher leadership naturally extend to the entire school as well. “Certainly it is reasonable to believe that increased feelings of empowerment and confidence, as well as improved professional development for teachers, would contribute greatly to improving teaching and learning within a school” (Wenner & Campbell, 2017, p. 153). When leadership is shared, the effectiveness of the school is enhanced (DeHart, 2011). Barth (2001) claimed that “teachers who lead help to shape their schools and, thereby, their own destinies as educators” (p. 445). Weiss and Cambone (1994) conducted a longitudinal study of six different schools and found that change was more widely accepted and implemented in schools where teacher leadership was present.

In addition to change and reform movements, teacher leadership also has positive effects on school procedures and policies such as evaluating and assessing student achievement, curriculum development, addressing student behavior concerns, and using technology as an instructional tool (Griffin, 1995). Hopkins (2001) claimed that the relationships between colleagues and their collective practices are the core of constructing capacity in schools. Hopkins encouraged schools to create collaborative and cooperative environments, encourage professional development, and foster mutual support in its teachers. Hopkins viewed schools as places where teachers and students could learn together, creating benefits for all. Barth (2001) alleged that there is a powerful relationship between learning and leading and agreed that the best way for schools to foster student learning is for teachers to model it. “In order to create communities of learners, teachers must model for students the most important enterprise of the schoolhouse – learning” (p. 445).

One of the main benefactors of teacher leadership in the school community are principals. “In the era of accountability, school principals can no longer be the only decision-makers in dealing with the pressure for improving schools and student achievement” (Xie & Shen, 2013, p. 327). Administrators today need help fulfilling their duties and completing the tasks assigned to them, and so there is a need to develop teacher leaders and involve them in the decisions and processes of the school (Xie & Shen). Effective administrators are those who encourage teacher leadership (Barth, 2001). “The most reliable, useful, proximate, and professional help resides under the roof of the school-house with the teaching staff itself” (p. 445). When principals share leadership with the teachers collective efficacy increases and the school community and

the teachers in it are positively impacted (Angelle & Teague, 2014). “The ultimate value of teacher leadership is improved practice and increased student performance. Principals and teachers together can accept collective responsibility for the results” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 34).

Van der Heijden, Geldens, Beijaard, and Popeijus (2015) claimed that teacher leaders are change agents and play a key role to bringing change to classrooms, schools, and education broadly. Van der Heijden et al. claimed that teacher leaders have the ability to “enact professional agency at work as they influence or change education in their daily practice” (p. 694). Teacher leaders, despite age or level of experience, are skilled and successful teachers who are innovative, lifelong learners who are willing to collaborate with colleagues. Teacher leaders “are needed to enhance schools’ ability to change and to foster a collaborative learning environment in order to positively influence education and students’ learning” (p. 697). Caudle, Moran, and Hobbs (2014) claimed that agency is not just acquired but is produced through action. According to Caudle et al. “leadership can and should emerge from teachers” and it “involves teachers participating as activists, promoting change in the lives of others, positively affecting school culture, and challenging intentions of proposed changes” (p. 47). Lai and Cheung (2015) also confirmed that the leadership practices of teachers can initiate reform and effect change. “Teacher leadership practices that are collectively based, aimed at improving the school’s instructional and cultural environments, functioning in communities of practice, and aimed at supporting school development...provide a facilitative organizational context for the implementation of educational change” (p. 690).

Standards and Frameworks for Teacher Leadership

Standards play an important role in establishing education practices and policies, and when teachers interact with them in a meaningful manner, they can be used as a regulatory function for teacher leadership (Torrance & Forde, 2017). Standards also serve as a means to create consistency across different educational settings and provide a manner by which the quality of practice can be assessed (Fenwick, 2010). In addition, standards can be used as developmental tools for self-evaluation (Reeves, Forde, Casteel, & Lynas, 1998). “To move beyond policy rhetoric, teachers need permission, space, and tools to debate the ideas underpinning standards and to appreciate them as contested ideas, exploring ways of generating practices in their own context” (Torrance & Forde, p. 123).

In 2008 a group of educators known as the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium gathered to discuss the potential teacher leadership holds for school improvement and the positive impact it can have on student achievement (Cosenza, 2015). The group grew, expanded its mission, and in 2008 conducted research on the scope of teacher leadership throughout the United States. In 2011, upon analysis of their findings, the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium (2011) published the *Teacher Leader Model Standards* to describe the competencies required for teacher leadership. The Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium developed the standards “to codify, promote, and support teacher leadership as a vehicle to transform schools for the needs of the 21st century” (p. 8).

The *Teacher Leader Model Standards* consist of the following seven domains: (a) fostering a collaborative culture to support educator development and student learning,

(b) accessing and using research to improve practice and student learning, (c) promoting professional learning for continuous improvement, (d) facilitating improvements in instruction and student learning, (e) promoting the use of assessment and data for school and district improvements, (f) improving outreach and collaboration with families and community, and (g) advocating for student learning and the profession. “The teacher leadership model standards were developed to encourage discussions about the competencies required for teacher leadership as a means for school transformation” (Cosenza, 2015, p. 82). The standards oppose the top down hierarchical model of teacher leadership and support the view that teachers are significant participants to the success of schools and student achievement (Cosenza).

The Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium (2011) claimed that the *Teacher Leader Model Standards* not only operate as a guide for helping prepare teachers to assume leadership roles, but that they have the potential to expand teacher leadership opportunities (Harrison & Killion, 2007). In addition, The Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium intended for the standards to guide educator preparation providers in the preparation of future teacher leaders “For programs that are advocating for beginning teacher leadership preparation during undergraduate preservice teacher education, these seven domains provide a broad framework” (Ado, 2016, p. 7).

The Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium(2013) (InTASC) is a consortium made up of the Council of Chief State School Officers and other state and national education agencies and organizations. In 1992 InTASC released *Model Core Teaching Standards*. The standards were focused on a teacher’s knowledge, skills, and disposition (Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Klein, 1995). In 2011 the *Model*

Core Teaching Standards were updated to reflect the development and implementation of learning standards in K-12 schools that were established to ensure every student who graduates from high school is ready to enter college or the workforce. Many educator preparation providers have used the *InTASC Model Core Teacher Standards* as an assessment tool for preservice teachers. According to Holdman and Shaeffer, (2006), “the InTASC principles may be used as a framework for gathering candidates’ self-perceptions of their knowledge, skills and dispositions to shed light on the development of the novice teacher through the student teaching experience” (p. 340). The InTASC standards provide a framework of professional competencies by which preservice and inservice teachers can act on, measure, and reflect on their performance and personal growth in teaching (Holman & Shaeffer).

The *InTASC Model Core Teacher Standards* not only established measurable benchmarks for the performance of beginning teachers, but they also included expectations for a teacher’s role as a leader (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2013). “Integrated across the standards is the teacher’s responsibility for the learning of all students [and] the expectation that they will see themselves as leaders from the beginning of their career” (p. 5). Standard 10 titled *Leadership and Collaboration* highlights a teacher’s obligation to actively investigate and consider new ideas that would improve teaching and learning and advance the profession. “The teacher seeks appropriate leadership roles and opportunities to take responsibility for student learning, to collaborate with learners, families, colleagues, other school professionals, and community members to ensure learner growth, and to advance the profession” (p. 19). Standard 10 is measured by levels of progression and “illustrates one path through which

teachers may use a leadership role with varying degrees of authority over time” (Nordengren, 2016, p. 96). Teachers are expected to work with colleagues in a collaborative culture, share responsibilities with administrators, and act as school leaders in order to improve student learning and teacher working conditions (Council of Chief State School Officers, p. 5).

Danielson (2014) *Framework for Teaching Evaluation*, first published in 1996, and revised in 2007, 2011, and 2013 also addresses teacher leadership. *The Framework for Teaching Evaluation* is researched-based and is a comprehensive description of good teaching that outlines the skills required not only by novice teachers but by experienced teachers as well (Danielson). *The Framework for Teaching Evaluation* is currently used across the United States in K–12 schools as an assessment tool for teacher evaluation (Hunzicker, 2013). *The Framework for Teaching Evaluation* includes four domains across four levels of performance. The fourth domain, titled *Professional Responsibilities*, has three components of teaching practice that include the following elements of teacher leadership and areas of a teacher leader’s influence: (a) participating in the professional community, (b) growing and developing professionally, and (c) showing professionalism (Phelps, 2008). Hunzicker claimed that “all components and elements of Danielson’s framework for teaching reside within the larger context of teaching, emphasizing the informal nature of teacher leadership” (p. 540). The framework is research-based, user-friendly, and describes commonly accepted conceptions of teacher leadership. The focus of teacher leadership is on improving student learning and achievement through professional inquiry, and emphasizes lifelong learning through

action research, feedback from colleagues, and participation in professional organizations (Hunzicker).

Developing Teacher Leaders

Teacher leadership preparation has long been assumed to be a natural progression for teachers. Pearce (2015) claimed that in essence teachers are leaders in their own classrooms and therefore it is reasonable to assume that teachers possess leadership skills. However, Pearce asserted that it is still important to encourage teachers that they can be leaders and to provide them with the necessary support and opportunities to develop as leaders. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) warned that teachers should not just assume leadership positions without any preparation or training just because they appear to be able to teach effectively and collaborate with colleagues. “Too often, we assume that competent, credible, and approachable teachers, who have instructional proficiency with their own students are ready to be leaders” (p. 44). Teacher leaders need quality leadership preparation.

Mangin and Stoelinga (2010) acknowledged that institutions of higher education offer leadership programs and teaching programs in separate departments. The researchers claimed that “interdepartmental collaboration is necessary to develop effective teacher leader programs that attend to developing both subject area knowledge and leadership skills (p. 56). Mangin and Stoelinga stressed the need for programs that target teacher leadership. In addition, Smylie and Eckert (2017) were purposeful in pointing out that there is a difference between the development of a leader, which refers to the person, and the development of leadership, which refers to the manner in which a leader is prepared:

The implication for teacher leadership development is that while developing the capacity of the teacher for leadership is important, it is insufficient. A crucial focus of development should be on the employment of this capacity in the practice of leadership. (p. 559)

Schools must focus on the development of leaders, but it must be in the context of developing the process and practice of teacher leadership. Little (2003) claimed that when teachers are asked to take on challenging leadership roles without being efficiently prepared to do so, leadership burnout occurs and teachers withdraw back into their classroom and avoid involvement in any sort of leadership opportunities. Smylie and Eckert claimed (2017) that the focus of teacher leadership should be on development. Lieberman and Miller (2005) agreed that assigning leadership roles to teachers without specific opportunities for training on how to perform in these roles leads to frustration and failure.

According to the literature formal preparation of teacher leaders occurs in two main ways. The first is professional development through conferences and local training programs that focus on leadership skills and strategies. Professional development is the most common type of teacher leader preparation. (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Poekert (2012) suggested that in order to make an impact and change high, quality professional development must be “collaborative, coherent, based on content matter, focused on instructional practice, and sustained over time” (p. 170). In addition, in order for professional development to be effective, a strong connection needs to be developed between the collaborative nature of teacher leadership and the collaborative nature of professional development (Poekert). Archibald, Cogshall, Croft, Goe, and the National

Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality (2011) defined the necessary features of effective professional development. The researchers claimed that it is important for professional development to include the following five items in order for the enhancement of teacher leadership to occur: (a) school goal alignment, (b) core content modeling and focus, (c) active learning inclusion, (d) collaboration opportunities, and (d) embedded follow-up and continuous feedback.

Margolis and Doring (2013) conducted two separate three-year studies on the influence of professional development on teacher leadership and found that authenticity and connections to real-life situations were key factors in the facilitation of professional development. “Isolated and individual learning activities have little sustained impact, and what is needed to support meaningful teacher change is integrated, continual, hands-on, and classroom-centered professional development experiences” (p. 193). Blackman (2010) provided empirical support for the need of professional development in developing teacher leadership by studying programs focused on developing teacher leaders through coaching. The programs consisted of workshops and one-on-one training and successfully developed not only the capabilities of teacher leaders but also supported teacher efficacy of leadership skills. Ghamrawi (2013) reported on the outcomes of a professional development program whose goal was for teachers to share instructional strategies and methods with other teachers in a well-planned and structured way. The program took place over a three-year period in a K-12 private school and was centered on the purpose of teachers helping other teachers. Data were collected using focus group interviews and the findings indicated gains in not only the professional growth of teachers but in their leadership skills as well. “High-quality; teacher-led professional

development has the potential of fueling up the process of developing leaders at school. Teachers whether trainers or trainees are primary beneficiaries from such a model” (p. 180). Whitney (2013) conducted a case study on a university faculty member who worked with teachers in a professional development setting focused on developing teacher leadership. The goal of the work was to identify and nurture the leadership potential in teachers. Whitney found that a necessity to the development of teacher leadership was “the existence of a professional community in which moving between roles and taking on leadership responsibilities is supported” (p. 88).

The second way to develop teacher leadership is by participating in some sort of master’s degree program that focuses on personal and professional growth in leadership (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Mangin and Stoelinga (2010) stressed that because teacher leadership is challenging and complex, teacher leadership programs need to be based on scholarly research but also on practitioner practice. Using existing knowledge about teacher leadership that includes the experience and expertise of teacher leaders makes teacher leadership development more effective and meaningful. “Evidence of the knowledge, skills, and work conditions needed for successful teacher leadership should guide the content of teacher leader preparation programs” (p. 57).

Taylor, Goeke, Klein, Onore, and Geist (2011) studied a master’s degree program in teaching leadership that comprised of self-assessment, reflection on professional progress, and action research. Taylor et al. emphasized the effectiveness of the personalized learning of the program. “If teacher leaders are told what to learn, how to learn, and why to learn, their learning is controlled by others and their capacity to lead is stunted” (p. 922). Taylor et al. claimed that in order for a teacher to truly learn how to

lead they must “place their own issues and concerns at the center of their learning process, know themselves as learners, reflect on their learning and share it with others (p. 922).

Carver and Meier (2013) also conducted a study on a master’s degree program that was designed with the goal of preparing teachers for leadership roles and responsibilities. The researchers discovered that teachers were able to grow in their knowledge of teacher leadership, however they had difficulty “positioning themselves within these new understandings” (p. 186). As a result, Carver and Meier suggested that an effective program for preparing teacher leaders must include the following three objectives: (a) developing a knowledge base of teaching and leading as a way to build confidence, (b) helping teachers use this confidence to build the necessary skills in order to work with colleagues, and (c) raising awareness of the different forms of leadership and allowing teachers to align with their own professional goals. Carver and Meier concluded that it is necessary for teacher leadership programs to allow teachers that are learning how to lead “to enact a leadership practice of their choice, in a setting that provides a safe and collegial place to imagine, to create, to dream, and to deliberate” (p. 189).

Teacher leadership programs are a critical source for allowing teachers to internalized their development as a leader. Lowery-Moore, Latimer, and Villate (2016) conducted a phenomenological study on students enrolled in an online teacher leadership program. The researchers analyzed the final reflective papers of randomly selected participants and confirmed that confidence must be a key element in teacher leadership programs. “Teacher leader preparation programs need to assist teachers in developing

confidence and professional identity as teacher leaders willing to be problem-solvers, change agents, and mentors who experience a high degree of professional and personal satisfaction” (p. 5). Scales and Rogers (2017), as a result of interviewing graduates of a teacher leadership licensure program, went as far as to state that although teacher leadership training helped teacher leaders develop leadership skills it had little impact on the teachers to see themselves as a leader. The researchers found that teachers were able to recognize leadership in other teachers, but not in themselves. “While they were aware of others’ actions and share their perceptions of those actions, they do not readily state how they are leaders or how their perceptions of their own actions make them leaders” (p. 26).

Devin, Augustine-Shaw, and Hachiya (2016) affirmed the necessity of merging theory and practice when developing teacher leadership. Devin et al. evaluated a master’s degree program in educational leadership that was designed and delivered by a large public Midwestern university on site at partner schools. The goal of extending the bounds of a traditional program model to include authentic partnerships with school districts was to “produce the leadership needed in the district where the teachers are already blooming as potential leaders” (p. 51). According to Devin et al. the partnership program successfully found a way to develop leadership theory and skill in an authentic school context. The curriculum was built on the experiences teachers encountered in real life and the challenges they faced in their schools.

Characteristics and Competencies of Teacher Leaders

When addressing the characteristics and competencies of teacher leaders it is important to note that effective teaching must come before engagement in teacher

leadership. (Murphy, 2005). “One cannot be an effective teacher leader if one is not first an accomplished teacher” (Odell, 1997, p. 122). In addition, “not all effective teachers are teacher leaders” (Pucella, 2014, p. 17). Certain skills, dispositions, behaviors, attitudes, and professional responsibilities, along with knowledge of teaching and leading, are necessary if a teacher is going to be an effective leader. Warren (2016), as a result of her research on how teaching can remain autonomous and separate from formal administration, claimed that “the capacity of a teacher to have both leadership skills and traits results in an all-around competent teacher” (p. 510). “Teachers who have a wide array of skills, broad knowledge, a healthy attitude about service to others, and enthusiasm and willingness to serve have the greatest success as leaders” (Murphy, p. 68). Bond (2011) claimed that teacher leaders need to possess knowledge of themselves as leaders as well as teachers, knowledge of others within the school community such as parents and colleagues, knowledge of the operations and organization of schools, and knowledge of teaching. “Teachers need to exemplify excellent practice in order to share their expertise with others” (King, 2017, p. 10).

Personal, professional, and social factors also contribute to preservice teachers’ leadership aspirations. Personal factors, such as personality, motivation, and beliefs, impact how and if preservice teachers are leaders and willing to take on leadership roles and initiatives. Professional factors are related to the school curriculum and the teachers’ experiences in the field. Interaction with principals, teachers, and parents are the social factors (Ying & Ho, 2015).

In addition, teacher leaders are often defined by their dispositions. Danielson (2006) described teacher leaders as “can do people” (p. 36) and associated the following

nine dispositions with teacher leadership: (a) deep commitment to student learning, (b) optimism and enthusiasm, (c) open-mindedness and humility, (d) courage and willingness to take risks, (e) confidence and decisiveness, (f) tolerance for ambiguity, (g) creativity and flexibility, (h) perseverance, and (i) willingness to work hard. Smylie (1997) added that teacher leaders are willing to take risks. Manthei (1992) claimed that teacher leaders possess a love of learning, and Snell and Swanson (2000) noticed that teacher leaders appreciate opportunities to improve their performance. The qualities of learning and improvement are connected to the concept of growth mindset (Dweck, 2016). Teacher leaders “demonstrate a growth mindset when they work to create an atmosphere of trust and when they treat challenges, obstacles, and setbacks—their own and those of other teachers—as opportunities to grow and learn” (Allen, 2018, p. 247). Growth mindset also requires humility. At times teacher leaders must admit that they do not know everything and that they are still learning (Dweck). “Emerging teacher leadership does not ‘go away’ as teachers develop into leaders. Rather, it develops and evolves gradually, over time as teachers accumulate experience” (Hunzicker, 2013, p. 556). Teacher leaders are known for their strong sense of efficacy, possess a passion to make a difference in the lives of their students, and maintain high standards for their performance (Crowther et al. 2009).

It is also important to note the role emotional intelligence plays in teacher leadership. According to Yildizbas (2017) affective qualities are an important part in determining effective teacher leadership. “Cognitive intelligence and emotional intelligence are not alternatives to one another, but complete each other” (p. 218). Warren (2016) claimed that teacher leaders need to possess the following traits associated with having high emotional intelligence: selflessness, self-assurance, emotional stability,

enthusiasm, and tough-mindedness. According to Bond (2011) teacher leaders should also “display a good sense of humor, respect for others, and a willingness to serve. They must possess a genuine love of children and care about their well-being” (p. 292).

The value of teacher leadership is in the commitment teacher leaders make to the work of their colleagues and their school (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Teacher leaders “appear to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of contributing to their schools” (Weasmer, Woods, & Coburn, 2008, p. 27) and are committed to and confident in their ability to make a difference and improve the performance of their colleagues (Snell & Swanson, 2000). Fairman and Mackenzie (2015) conducted qualitative case studies on teacher leaders in seven different schools located in the Northeastern region of the United States in an attempt to determine what strategies teacher leaders use to influence colleagues. The researchers found that a collegial climate that was based on respect, honesty, openness, support, and trust was necessary. “Collegiality provided a foundation of trust and supportive relationships to foster teacher leadership opportunities and activity, but teacher leadership also helped to establish trust, collegiality and collaboration where it was not strong” (p. 72).

Certain interpersonal skills, such as collaboration, are necessary in order for teachers to lead effectively. Teacher leaders must be cooperative, collegial, and possess strong interpersonal skills (Snell & Swanson, 2000). Yarger and Lee (1994) claimed that the ability to work effectively with colleagues “distinguishes effective teachers of teachers from effective teachers of children” (p. 229). According to Warren (2016) teacher leaders must also be adept at cultivating relationships not only with other teachers, but with parents, administrators, and other professionals in the field, if they are

going to truly impact student learning. Teacher leaders need effective communication skills as well (Bond, 2011). “Knowing how to initiate conversations, share ideas, ask questions, discuss information, synthesize differing viewpoints, and listen actively is critical” (Bond, pp. 291-292). Lipton and Wellman (2007) encouraged teacher leaders to engage with colleagues in purposeful conversations about pedagogy and teaching practices. Learning-based dialogues, when conducted in a safe environment, allow for teacher leaders to both coach and consult their colleagues. Campbell-Evans, Stamopoulos, and Maloney (2014) found that early childhood teachers who were enrolled in a graduate teacher leadership program believed that the most important interpersonal qualities of leaders were empathy, trustworthiness, and approachability.

Metacognitive skills such as inquiry, reflection, research, and problem solving are also essential for teacher leaders. According to Collinson and Sherrill (1996) teacher leaders must engage in inquiry. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) pointed out that effective teacher leaders reflect on their performance. Teacher leaders are life-long learners and change agents and must always be asking themselves how they can improve their own practices and the collective practices of their schools (O’Hair & Reitzug, 1997). “Teacher leaders need to become reflective and inquire in order to produce change in the social context and curriculum in schools” (Odell, 1997, p. 123). In order to affect change teacher leaders also need to identify obstacles and possess strong problem-solving skills (Van der Heijden et al., 2015). “Teacher leaders seek solutions to challenges and solve problems as they arise” (Bond, 2011, p. 292). Teacher leaders also need to become active researchers and engage in scholarship around their own teaching practices (O’Gorman & Drudy, 2010) as a means to “build a community of educational researchers and

leaders...that are educated about their valuable change agency role in the school context” (Mthiyane & Grant, 2013, p. S221).

Administrative and management abilities are also important skills for teacher leaders to possess. Lieberman et al. (1988) claimed that teacher leaders need a “blend of skills, including managing time, setting priorities for work, delegating tasks with authority, taking initiative, monitoring progress, and coordinating the many strands of work taking place in their schools” (p. 158). Bond and Sterrett (2014) conducted a study on preservice teachers that were serving as officers in local chapters of professional educational organizations and found that preservice teachers learned leadership skills targeted at decision-making, goal-setting, facilitation, public speaking, and conflict resolution, by participating in collegiate organizations.

Although managerial tasks are imperative for leadership it is important to note that Fairman and Mackenzie (2015) found that teacher leaders “recognized that organization and management were important, but their hearts were definitely in classrooms with children organizing, managing, and directing their learning” (p. 78). Fairman and Mackenzie found that teacher leaders did not want to be placed in any kind of rank-ordered structure. “Teacher leaders may resist taking on leadership work because they are not comfortable with the fact that leadership titles suggest a hierarchical relationship among peers” (p. 80). Reeves (2009) claimed that a collective commitment to leadership is what schools really need. Berry (2017) agreed that the lines of distinction in schools between individuals who teach and individuals who lead need to be blurred. “Teacher leadership has to be more than a career ladder for a few classroom experts to climb. All educators must embrace the role of leader” (para. 2). Cosenza (2015)

suggested that “teacher leadership is not necessarily about power, but about teachers extending their presence beyond the classroom by seeking additional challenges and growth opportunities” (p. 79).

Typology of Teacher Leaders

After recognizing the characteristics and competencies of teacher leaders it is helpful to identify how those characteristics and competencies relate to certain leadership roles. Bae et al. (2016) conducted a mixed methodology study of teacher leaders in an attempt to organize the distinct types of teacher leadership into a structured typology. The researchers used Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2009) Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey as a means to differentiate teacher leader characteristics and competencies:

A variety of teacher leader traits, characteristics, approaches, and outcomes emerge from the literature; however, each study often focuses on some elements of teacher leadership and not others. Thus, the field is in need of a typology that can provide a unifying framework. (p. 907)

As a result of their study, Bae et al. identified the following three types of teacher leadership: (a) instructional innovator, (b) professional learning leader, and (c) administrative teacher leader.

An instructional innovator was defined as “a teacher who has significant years of experience and is considered an expert in his or her subject area” (Bae et al., 2016, p. 917). Instructional innovators primarily influence their students and colleagues with whom they work closely, but by sharing their expertise and practices they can influence the instructional learning and improvement of the entire school. Professional learning leaders extend their influence beyond the classroom and impact colleagues both within

and outside of their school. “The professional learning leader is a skilled communicator and trainer who leads professional development activities. . . and is adept at understanding the needs of adult learners, facilitating shared understanding, and implementing instructional reform” (Bae et al., p. 921). The third type of teacher leader identified by Bae et al. was the administrative teacher leader. Administrative teacher leaders act as change agents and serve in roles where they can influence school and district policies and reform initiatives. Bae et al.’s typology of teacher leadership was used in this current study and “provides a clearer conceptualization to support future work that moves beyond treating teacher leadership as an umbrella term, and toward empirically investigating how different types of teacher leadership support the desired improvements in teaching and learning” (p. 927).

Developing Preservice Teachers for Teacher Leadership

Traditionally preservice teacher preparation programs have focused on helping teacher candidates develop pedagogy, acquire best practices in the areas of curriculum, instruction, and assessment, form strategies for effective classroom management, and meet licensure requirements. In light of what it requires to be a teacher today Hoaglund, Birkenfeld, Stone, and Rogers (2017) urged educator preparation providers to reconsider teacher preparation to include the development of desirable teacher leader abilities and authentic leadership opportunities through partnerships with K-12 schools. Because leadership is a fundamental part of teaching Bond (2011) proposed that preservice teachers should also learn about teacher leadership while studying pedagogy, growing in content knowledge, and developing teaching skills. “Ying and Ho (2015) claimed that

“leadership development as pedagogy can help preservice teachers not only learn how to become teachers but also to become leaders” (p. 61).

Effective preservice teacher preparation needs to be genuine and honest and therefore Cranston and Kusanovich (2015) argued that the necessity of teacher leadership must be included in teacher preparation programs. “Prospective teachers are not served well by initial teacher preparation programs where the actual constraints on teacher leadership and the related ethical dilemmas of school leadership are not addressed” (p. 66). King (2017) claimed that educator preparation providers should take a more holistic approach to teacher preparation in their programs and include the broader roles teachers play and the skills they need to lead within and beyond the classroom. According to Bond (2011) preservice teachers must be introduced to the idea of teacher leadership, be open to developing as a leader, and given opportunities to cultivate leadership skills. Teacher preparation programs need to “build capacity for change in all teachers where they not only change what is happening in their classrooms but in the wider school community to align with their moral imperative” (King, p. 7).

Rationale for preservice teacher leadership preparation is based on three basic claims. The first is timing. According to Rust and Bergey (2014):

teacher preparation programs occupy a small moment of time in the course of a teacher’s professional life and that, in the best of all possible worlds, teacher preparation can effectively launch new teachers on a long and learning filled career. (p. 80)

Preservice teacher preparation is a critical point in the continuum of a teacher’s career long development and the potential for leadership must be present at the preservice stage

(Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006). During their teacher preparation programs preservice teachers must view themselves as leaders (Forde & Dickson, 2017). Preservice teacher preparation is the time when philosophies of and aspirations for teaching are originally formed in individuals. Preservice teachers need to see teaching “through the lens of teacher leadership” (Bond, p. 288) and be provided with the “mental framework for approaching teacher-related tasks and opportunities to develop as teacher leaders” (Bond, 2011, p. 294). Angelle (2017) claimed that “teacher preparation programmes that instill students with skills on both how to lead, as well as the value of leading beyond the classroom, increase confidence and ability when the preservice teachers begin their work” (p. 102).

Ado (2016) conducted a qualitative study on preservice teachers that were enrolled in an undergraduate teacher preparation course and affirmed that a starting point for teacher leadership development can be in teacher preparation programs. Ado found that the preservice teachers, though they were just at the start of learning how to become a teacher, demonstrated the knowledge and skills needed for teacher leadership. “Findings from this study show that as a result of participating in a course that emphasized teacher leadership, they are embarking on their pathway towards becoming teacher leaders as well” (p. 17). According to Van der Heijden et al. (2015) providing preservice teachers with insights on teacher leadership helps them “complete or adjust their picture of the future profession” (p. 697).

The second reason for the need of preservice teacher leadership development is that novice teachers are expected to perform the same tasks and responsibilities as experienced teachers on their first day of teaching. “Novices are expected to function at

the same level as veterans in terms of instruction in the classroom and engagement in the activities in the larger school community. Leadership from beginning teachers is implied” (Bond, 2011, p. 281). Nordengren (2016) believed that “without early and frequent opportunities to practice leadership, the profession of teaching may watch its leadership skills atrophy as prepared teacher leaders exit the profession” (p. 97). According to Angelle (2017) “teachers who step into the classroom ready to lead children and model best practices for their peers begin their leadership work at an advantage” (p. 103).

Finally, preservice teacher leadership preparation is important because the education profession needs all teachers to lead if their schools are going to improve. Muijs et al. (2013) believed that “tapping into the leadership potential of beginning teachers can contribute to school improvement” (p. 779). Nordengren (2016) claimed that though new teachers lack experience and influence they “draw on a unique energy that can facilitate dramatic positive change” (p. 95) and are “vital to the growth of teacher leadership” (p. 96). Bond (2011) argued that “since the general public and the educational community continue to call for improvements in PreK-12 student learning, all teachers, both novice and veteran, are being asked to do more than teach their students” (p. 294). Ryan (2017) claimed that “teacher preparation programs must make deliberate attempts to require the analysis of knowledge, skills, and dispositions of teacher leaders, and nurture these traits to ensure that change [school improvement] is embraced by new educators” (p. 203). According to Mthiyane and Grant (2013) “novice teachers are often an untapped leadership source as they are not viewed as potential agents of change” (p. S221). Mthiyane and Grant urged that novice teachers must be thought of as teacher leaders and engage in leadership practices.

Conclusion

Research provides evidence for the need of teacher leadership within and beyond the classroom as a way for teachers, both new to the profession and experienced in the profession, to impact student learning, contribute to the culture of the school, and feel content within the profession. Barth (2001) noted that “All teachers can lead! Most teachers want to lead. And schools badly need their ideas, invention, energy, and leadership” (p. 449). Teacher leadership is imperative to the education profession and vital for the success of today’s students.

Summary

There are many roles and frameworks of teacher leadership and all teachers, whether novice or veteran, will engage in leadership in some manner and at some point in their careers. Therefore, it is necessary for preservice teachers to be prepared not only to teach, but also to lead. Teacher leadership “at the teacher preparation, induction, and ongoing professional development phases could prove helpful in setting high expectations, filling leadership positions with qualified individuals, and contributing to the continuous improvement efforts under way in many of today’s schools” (Sherrill, 1999, p. 56).

The focus of Chapter III will be teacher leadership at the preservice level. It will provide data and analysis on if preservice teachers exhibit the knowledge, skills, behaviors, and aspirations necessary to enter the teaching profession as a teacher leader.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

A career in the education profession provides a variety of opportunities for leadership, especially for teachers. Unfortunately, even though leadership is an important part of teaching today, the leadership preparation and potential of preservice teachers at the undergraduate level has received little attention. Teacher leadership at the preservice level can provide a foundation for teacher candidates to build their careers upon. Educator preparation providers can play an essential role in preparing preservice teachers for leadership, which will enable preservice teachers to take advantage of leadership opportunities upon entering the education profession.

This study examined preservice teacher leadership and the extent to which teacher preparation programs focused on leadership in the following four licensure areas: elementary, secondary, K-12, and special education. In the state where this study was conducted an elementary professional educator license covers grade one through grade six. Subject specific secondary licensure spans grades nine through 12 and includes all academic content areas. The academic content areas that were represented in this study were biology, chemistry, math, English, and history. Special K-12 licensure (kindergarten through grade 12) includes specialization areas of Spanish, art, physical education, and music. All four specialization areas were represented in this study. There are two options

to earn a professional educator license in the area of special education. The licensure program that was targeted in this study prepares preservice teachers for a Learning Behavior Specialist I license, which applies to teaching students with disabilities ranging from pre-kindergarten through the age of 21. The goal of conducting this study was to determine if differences existed between the four licensure areas in the preparation of preservice teachers for leadership.

The concepts of and applications for teacher leadership used in this study were connected to professional literature and research-based practices. The four specific topics of teacher leadership that were focused on for this study were as follows: (a) leadership behaviors that are recognized in teachers, (b) opportunities for teachers to lead both within and beyond the classroom, (c) aspirations teachers hold that would allow them to teach and lead, and (d) typologies that determine a teacher's proclivity towards certain leadership positions. The leadership topics included in this study highlight the breadth and depth of a career in teaching, but the focus of the study was on preservice teachers. Chapter III outlines the methodology used to gather data on if preservice teachers are prepared for leadership by educator preparation providers at the undergraduate level.

Research Design

The methods and procedures used to collect data on the leadership preparation of preservice teachers for this study were based on a quantitative design. An adapted version of *The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* (Appendix A) was used to collect data to answer all four research questions. Permission to use, modify, and publish *The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) to fit the context of this study was granted directly from the authors (Appendix B).

The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey consisted of 25 Likert scale items that examined how the participants related to teacher leadership behaviors and beliefs. The survey items were developed by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) and were based on teacher leadership research and literature. The emphasis of the survey was on specific characteristics related to teacher leadership work, not factors such as outcomes of teacher leadership. “Characteristics of teacher leaders include being respected by colleagues and assuming a learning orientation in their work. Types of leadership work refer to the nature of leadership responsibilities; that is, work that is valued by colleagues” (Bae et al., 2016, p. 909). Katzenmeyer and Moller purposely concentrated on the “distinguishable characteristics, roles, pathways of leadership work, and targets of influence” (Bae et al., p. 909). The items contained on the survey were reviewed by a panel of experts in the field of teacher leadership. Each item was worded in statement form, not asked as a question, and was measured using a Likert response scale with 1 indicating *strongly disagree*, 2 indicating *disagree*, 3 indicating *neutral*, 4 indicating *agree*, and 5 indicating *strongly agree*.

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) established content validity by employing a panel of experts to examine the survey items and confirm the intention of the survey, which was to measure leadership characteristics related to the work of teachers. Feedback was gathered independently, issues were addressed and resolved when necessary, and the construction of the survey was completed. The panel of experts also aided in determining the internal-consistency reliability of the survey. The survey was then piloted, and the pilot study showed high internal reliability with Cronbach’s alpha ranging from 0.83 to 0.93 (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Bae et al. (2016) adapted the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* for a study they completed to determine teachers' leadership proclivity. Bae et al. took all 25 survey items found on the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey*, categorized the items into four different teacher leadership roles, and used confirmatory factor analysis to determine validity. The goodness of fit indices showed that the four-factor model was a good fit to the data. All factor loadings ranged from 0.41 and 0.71, meeting the criteria of a minimum factor loading to retain valid items (Matsunaga, 2010), and establishing empirical support for using the chosen survey items to assess readiness for teacher leadership within those four typologies. Bae et al. are the only other researchers that have published a study using the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). It is important to note that there is a more well-known and frequently used teacher leadership readiness survey that goes by the same name that was created by the Teacher Incentive Fund and offered as part of the Teacher and School Leadership Incentive Program (Finster, 2016).

The following four research questions were used to direct this study:

1. What differences exist between the leadership behaviors of preservice teachers and their licensure area upon completion of their teacher preparation programs?
2. How do preservice teachers perceive professional responsibilities as possible opportunities for leadership according to licensure area?
3. What difference does licensure area make in preservice teachers' aspirations for leadership roles within and beyond the classroom?
4. What typology of teacher leadership do preservice teachers represent according to licensure area?

Research questions one, two, and three examined the differences between licensure area, which was the predictor in the study, and the leadership behaviors (question one), opportunities (question two), and aspirations (question three) of preservice teachers, which were the outcomes of the study. Research question four targeted each of the four typologies of teacher leadership.

Qualitative data were collected for this current study by asking open-ended questions. These questions were developed by the researcher and based off of th(2014) *Framework for Teaching, Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) Model Core Teaching Standards (2013)*, and the *Teacher Leader Model Standards (2011)*.

1. How many leadership courses have you taken as part of your teacher preparation program?
2. Even if you did not take a leadership course, what leadership behaviors and skills did you develop during your time in your teacher preparation program. How did you do this?
3. What are the different ways that teachers can enact leadership within the classroom?
4. What opportunities do teachers have to participate in leadership outside of the classroom?
5. How do you plan to grow and develop professionally once you start teaching?
6. Where do you see yourself professionally in five years?

The answers to these open-ended questions were compiled, informally analyzed for themes, and used for information when determining the findings and conclusions of this study.

Finally, a demographic questionnaire was also administered to collect information on the participants' educator preparation provider, licensure area, teacher preparation program format, student teaching placement, gender, and age. The American Educational Research Association (2019) stresses the importance of including and reporting demographic information in a study to ensure that generalizations can be made correctly and that the study can be replicated if desired.

Participants

The current study was conducted using student teachers from two educator preparation providers located in the suburbs of a major Midwestern city. Both educator preparation providers were private liberal arts institutions. Permission to have their student teachers participate in this current study was granted in written form from the Dean of Education of each institution (Appendix C). Institutional Review Board (IRB) protocol was reviewed and approved by each institution as well. The student teachers from both institutions were enrolled in either an elementary, secondary, K-12, or special education teacher preparation licensure program for the 2018-2019 academic year. The student teachers participating in this study were midway through the last semester of their teacher preparation program. The first group of student teachers participated in the fall semester of 2018, and the second group of student teachers participated in the spring semester of 2019. All participants were in a student teaching placement in an elementary

school, middle school, or high school that was located within a 30-mile radius of their institution. Participants took the survey as part of their senior seminar course.

A convenience sample of 100 student teachers was obtained for this study. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2016) “identifying a representative subset of a population” (p.164) to use as a convenience sample, especially when limited time is a factor, has been demonstrated as acceptable and appropriate for studies such as this current study. Eighty females and 20 males completed the survey, and the ages of the participants ranged from 21 to 46. Inclusionary criteria to participate in the study were as follows: (a) must be currently enrolled in the final semester of a teacher preparation program, (b) must be student teaching full time, and (c) must not already hold a teaching license. The breakdown of participants according to licensure area is as follows: 32 participants were seeking licensure in elementary education grades one through six, 22 participants were seeking licensure in secondary education in the content area of English, math, history or science, 22 were seeking K-12 licensure in the area of physical education, art, music, or Spanish, and 24 were seeking licensure in special education. Sixty-eight participants were enrolled in a traditional undergraduate program, and 32 participants were enrolled in an adult undergraduate program. All 100 participants were obtaining an initial teaching license.

Data Collection

An adapted version of the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey*, which consisted of 25 Likert scale items, the six open ended questions, and the demographic questionnaire requesting information on the participants’ educator preparation provider, licensure area, teacher preparation program format, student teaching placement, gender, and age, were

combined into an online survey using Survey Monkey®. A request to complete the survey, consent information, and a disclosure of the privacy practices for Survey Monkey®, as well as links to the Survey Monkey's® privacy policy and security statement were included with the survey (Appendix A). The first page of the survey provided the consent information as approved by IRB and required the participants to agree to the terms of the study. The consent page was set up to require an answer from the participant, so he/she could not move onto the start of the survey until the consent page was completed. If the participant clicked *yes* to consent he/she was acknowledging that he/she was at least 18 years old and had read and understood the information provide in the consent. The participant was then given access to the next page and invited to start taking the survey. If the participant clicked *no* and denied consent, he/she was thanked, and an exit screen for the survey was displayed.

During the 2018-2019 academic year the researcher visited the student teachers at each educator preparation provider during one of their scheduled senior seminar sessions. Permission to conduct the study was granted from the senior seminar instructors ahead of time, but the student teachers did not know the researcher would be visiting until the visit occurred. After an introduction was given from the seminar instructor, the participants received a piece of paper that displayed a QR code, as well as a direct link to Survey Monkey® for this current study. The QR code and link were also projected on a screen at the front of the classroom. This allowed the participants to access and complete the survey using their preferred mode of technology (phone or computer) in a timely manner. There were two disseminations of the survey, one in the fall semester of 2018 and one in

the spring semester of 2019. The same procedure was used to collect data for both disseminations at both institutions of higher education.

Participants' responses to the survey items were recorded directly to the Survey Monkey® account. An encrypted link was used so survey responses remained private. Address tracking was disabled on Survey Monkey® so survey participants remained anonymous. Survey Monkey® allowed each participant to only respond once, so no participants completed the survey twice. The average time spent taking the survey was 10 minutes. There was a 100% completion rate. All participants met the inclusionary criteria for the study. Enrollment in senior seminar is a requirement for student teaching at both institutions and is taken in the last semester of the teacher preparation program. In addition, if an individual already possesses a teaching license in the state where this study was conducted, he/she is not required to student teach if attempting to obtain subsequent licensure.

Analytical Methods

All survey responses were uploaded directly from Survey Monkey® into *SPSS for Windows* and were used to explore the relationship between licensure area and the preparation of preservice teachers for leadership. In order for the results to be interpreted correctly the first step was to assign numerical values to the categorical variables of each licensure area (Yockey, 2017). Demographic data such as gender, educator preparation provider, and teacher preparation program format were also assigned numerical values so data analysis could be performed correctly. Both descriptive and inferential statistical methods were used to analyze the data. Descriptive data obtained provided information about the distribution of scores, in particular means and standard deviations. Inferential

data was used to determine if differences existed between the variables in the sample of the study (Salkind, 2012).

The goal of data analysis for this current study was to determine if the means of the licensure area groups, which were the independent variables, differed from each other in the leadership behaviors, opportunities, aspirations, and typology of preservice teachers, which were the dependent variables. In order to answer each research question the researcher organized the survey items on the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* according to key leadership terms found in the survey statements. The survey items were then grouped according to leadership behaviors for question one, leadership opportunities for question two, and aspirations for leadership for question three. Research question one was answered by including responses to survey items 9, 14, 20, 21, 22, 23, and 24. The answer to research question two was determined by aligning survey items 2, 3, 4, 11, 12, 16, 17, and 18. Research question three targeted survey items 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 13, 15, 19, and 25.

The participants' responses to the corresponding survey items were categorized according to research question. Measures of central tendency and variance were determined for participants according to each research questions. Even though the data obtained from a Likert scale is considered ordinal, because survey items were combined to target each research question, and there were 15 or more possible values when doing so, the values were treated as interval scale data (Salkind, 2012) when calculating the means and standard deviations.

The next step was to sort participants according to the four different licensure areas. According to Yockey (2017) in order to assure accuracy of the data, there are three

assumptions that need to be met when conducting a study to determine the best statistical test to run when comparing two or more groups. The first assumption is that “observations are independent between the participants” (p. 133). The second assumption is that before the groups are compared the dependent variable from each group must be normally distributed. The third assumption is that “the variances of the difference scores are equal for all pairs of levels of the within subjects factor in the population” (p. 133). The participants from the four licensure areas in this study were independent of each other. In addition, when measures of central tendency and variance were calculated from each licensure area they were normally distributed, and the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated. Therefore, it was decided that an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) would be used to determine the relationship between participant’s licensure area (elementary, secondary, K-12, or special education) on the outcomes, which were the leadership behaviors (question one), opportunities (question two) and aspirations (questions three) of preservice teachers. The results of the ANOVA when run in *SPSS for Windows* showed no statistically significant relationships existed so post-hoc testing was not conducted, and the data analysis for the first three research questions was completed.

In order to address research question four, which targeted teacher leadership typology, a complete analysis of all 25 items found on the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* was conducted. The alignment of the four typologies of teacher leadership to the survey items were as follows: (a) *general teacher leadership* [items 1, 7, 13, 16, and 25], (b) *instructional innovator* [items 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 17, 22, and 24], (c) *professional learning leader* [items 2, 6, 9, 12, 14, 15, 20, 21, and 23], and (d) *administrative teacher leader* [items 11, 18, and 19]. According to Bae et al. (2016) “Each of the four teacher

leadership constructs in the survey consists of at least three survey items, meeting the three indicator minimum requirement for representing a latent factor in structural equation modeling” (p. 916). The top typology for each participant was determined by calculating the mean for each typology. Values from the targeted survey items for each particular typology were summed and then divided by the number of survey items that represented that typology (Holcomb & Cox, 2018). The highest mean value was determined to be the top typology. Each typology was then assigned a numerical value in *SPSS for Windows* and frequencies for each typology were calculated.

According to Yockey (2017) a chi-square goodness of fit statistical test can be used to determine the statistical significance of frequency as it relates to a certain variable of interest as long as both variables are nominal. This current study measured whether typology of teacher leadership varied by licensure area. Licensure area, the independent variable, was considered nominal, as was typology of leadership, which was the dependent variable. Therefore a chi-square test of independence was performed using *SPSS for Windows* to examine if the relationship between licensure area and typology was statistically significant. Effect size was also calculated to determine the relationship between the variables.

Limitations

The research design of this study does contain limitations. Even though there were 100 participants in the survey, one such limitation would be that the number of participants in each licensure group might be considered small and therefore more room exists for sampling errors to occur (Salkind, 2012).

In addition, participants in this study attended a private liberal arts institution of higher education. Participants identified a licensure area that was matched to their declared major and program of study, so while there were independent groups there may have been some overlap in the coursework and experiences of the participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Overlap could occur with general academic subjects, experiences related to the religious focus of the institutions, and the liberal arts coursework that the participants completed in their undergraduate programs. For example, students who are seeking secondary licensure concentrate on a specific licensure area like math, science, history, or English and so actually take more classes focused on their content area than they do education program courses. There may also have been overlap within each licensure area. An individual who is earning a license in elementary education may be a special education minor. Therefore, there would be overlap in the coursework and experiences associated with the special education licensure area. Another example of overlap is that the coursework for licensure in special education that focuses on pedagogy and methodology may overlap with elementary or secondary methods courses because the age range of the license is so broad, pre-kindergarten through the age of 21. These examples must be taken into consideration when comparing licensure groups.

Another limitation is related to the validity and reliability of the study. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) established acceptable levels of reliability and validity of the *Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* as a whole. However, the researcher grouped survey items together by key words related to leadership behaviors, opportunities, and aspirations to answer the first three research questions. When Cronbach's alpha was run to measure reliability between the grouped survey items the result for research question

one was $\alpha = .45$, for research question two $\alpha = .47$, and for research question three $\alpha = .76$. According to Holcomb and Cox (2018) $\alpha > .7$ is acceptable, so the internal consistency of research questions one and two would be questionable. In addition, Bae et al. (2016) determined satisfactory validity for the typologies of teacher leadership by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis. However, it must be taken into considerations that although findings showed a primary leadership typology, as could be expected, some participants exhibited characteristics associated with the other three typologies as well.

A third limitation of this study is the age of the survey tool that was used. Though a reliable and valid measure, *The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) was published in 2009. Recent changes in licensure requirements, the current teacher shortage, and the release of Danielson (2014) *Framework for Teaching*, *Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) Model Core Teaching Standards* (2013), and the *Teacher Leader Model Standards* (2011) would not be reflected in *The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* and therefore does not measure the most recent trends in teacher leadership such as hybrid teacher leadership. Wenner and Campbell's (2017) seminal review of the literature on teacher leadership helped better define what teacher leaders do. Wenner and Campbell's findings are consistent with what Margolis and Huggins (2012) termed *hybrid* teacher leadership, which focuses both on teaching students and leading teachers. The concept of *hybrid* teacher leadership is helpful when preparing preservice teachers for leadership.

A fourth limitation of this study is related to the fact that some of the student teachers that participated in the study were from an educator preparation provider that has two undergraduate programs – one for traditional aged students and one for adult

students. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2016) the program format should be considered a confounding variable for two reasons: (a) adult program students just take the teacher education program classes, they do not take the other general education/liberal arts courses, (b) maturity and life experiences may influence their leadership behaviors, opportunities, and aspirations.

Summary

When preservice teacher leadership preparation is done successfully, preservice teachers will not only develop leadership behaviors that will make them effective teachers, but they will aspire to be effective leaders as well. If preservice teachers identify opportunities for leadership within and beyond the classroom they have the potential to enter their teaching careers equipped to positively impact not only their students, but the school and community as well. In addition teacher preparation programs that can attract new teachers to the profession, and retain master teachers in schools, will serve both the institutions of higher education and the education profession in a positive manner.

The American Educational Research Association (2019) claims that “education research embraces the full spectrum of rigorous methods appropriate to the questions being asked and also drives the development of new tools and methods” (para. 1). The data obtained from this current study reveal that the opportunity exists for educator preparation providers to include teacher leadership in their teacher preparation programs, allowing preservice teachers to learn how to lead while learning how to teach in all licensure areas. Specific examples, findings, and conclusions of how preservice teachers can begin to build their understanding of teacher leadership, along with solutions to the limitations of this current study, will be shared in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Teacher leadership provides a variety of professional opportunities for preservice and inservice teachers to use their leadership skills in formal and informal ways at different points in their careers. Each teacher's exposure to and progression through leadership experiences will be unique because of the multi-faceted and dynamic nature of the profession. The key is for teachers to have the capacity to lead upon entering the profession, which means a culture of teacher leadership must be established in the preservice realm.

Teacher leadership sets high expectations for preservice teachers. Within a supportive system of professional educators, these expectations will allow preservice teachers to revitalize schools, impact student achievement, enhance the professional community, and build meaningful careers upon entering the profession. When educator preparation providers include teacher leadership in their teacher preparation programs, preservice teachers learn how to lead while learning how to teach.

As presented in Chapter I, the purpose of the current study was to examine if educator preparation providers focused on preservice teacher leadership in their teacher preparation programs. Chapter II provided a review of the published literature on the topic of teacher leadership and revealed the need for more research in the particular area

of preservice teacher leadership. A detailed explanation of the research methodology that was used in the current study was covered in Chapter III. In this chapter, findings and conclusions, solutions to the limitations that arose, and implications and recommendations for the current study will be offered.

The following four research questions were used to direct the current study:

1. What differences exist between the leadership behaviors of preservice teachers and their licensure area upon completion of their teacher preparation programs?
2. How do preservice teachers perceive professional responsibilities as possible opportunities for leadership according to licensure area?
3. What difference does licensure area make in preservice teachers' aspirations for leadership roles within and beyond the classroom?
4. What typology of teacher leadership do preservice teachers represent according to licensure area?

Findings

Research Question 1: What differences exist between the leadership behaviors of preservice teachers and their licensure area upon completion of their teacher preparation programs? The participants' responses to the corresponding survey items that targeted leadership behaviors, such as seeing and valuing the points of view of colleagues, working with and cooperating with others, and possessing the knowledge, information and skills to help students be successful were used to answer Research Question 1. Measures of central tendency and variance for all leadership behaviors revealed $M = 4.4$, $SD = 0.37$ indicating that participants strongly agreed that they possessed leadership behaviors. The highest leadership behavior outcome ($M = 4.85$) targeted participants

working with others and the feeling that cooperating with colleagues was more important than competing with them. The lowest leadership behavior outcome ($M = 4.40$) targeted the value participants placed on time spent working with colleagues on curriculum and instructional matters. When answering the open-ended question of, “What are the different ways that teachers can enact leadership within the classroom?” participants revealed behaviors that aligned with the qualitative data. The top two responses were modeling leadership behaviors, such as respecting others, and communicating with others, in particular, listening to them. All of the leadership behavior outcomes were normally distributed, and the homogeneity of variance assumption was supported, so an ANOVA was used to determine the differences in licensure areas and leadership behaviors. Table 1 shows the results were $F(3,96) = 1.05$, $p = 0.37$, $R^2 = .03$, revealing that there was not a relationship between licensure area and leadership behaviors of preservice teachers. No statistically significant results were found. Effect sizes, though reported, were not relevant.

Table 1

ANOVA of Leadership Behaviors for Licensure Areas

Source	<i>df</i>	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig
Between Groups	3	.43	.14	1.05	0.37
Within Groups	96	13.02	.14		
Total	99	13.45			

Research Question 2: How do preservice teachers perceive professional responsibilities as possible opportunities for leadership according to licensure area? To

answer Research Question 2 participants' responses to the corresponding survey items that targeted professional responsibilities and leadership opportunities, such as deciding best teaching practices and strategies, facilitating student learning, mentoring other teachers, and working with other faculty, including university faculty, were used. Measures of central tendency and variance for leadership opportunities were $M = 4.3$; $SD = 0.32$. Participants identified the greatest opportunity for leadership ($M = 4.73$) as contributing to the overall success of the school and/or district. The lowest outcome for leadership opportunity ($M = 3.98$) was related to the idea that individual teachers should be able to influence how other teachers think about, plan for, and conduct their work with students. The outcomes for leadership responsibilities and opportunities were normally distributed, and the homogeneity of variance assumption was supported. The differences in licensure areas and the leadership opportunities as determined by an ANOVA were $F(3,96) = 1.36$, $p = 0.26$, $R^2 = .04$. As shown in Table 2 the results of the ANOVA showed no statistically significant relationships existed so post-hoc testing was not conducted.

Table 2

ANOVA of Leadership Opportunities for Licensure Areas

Source	<i>df</i>	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	3	.41	.14	1.36	0.26
Within Groups	96	9.64	.10		
Total	99	10.05			

Research Question 3: What difference does licensure area make in preservice teachers' aspirations for leadership roles within and beyond the classroom? To answer Research Question 3 the participants' responses to the corresponding survey items that targeted aspirations for leadership roles were analyzed for central tendency and variance ($M = 4.3$ $SD = 0.30$). Survey items that targeted aspirations for leadership roles included finding meaning in teaching and leading, contributing to the success of colleagues (which includes hiring new teachers, planning professional development, and making decisions related to school procedures, policies, and curriculum), and having the respect of administrators and other teachers. The greatest aspiration of the participants ($M = 4.9$) was wanting to work in an environment where they were recognized and valued as a professional. Giving time to help plan professional development activities at the school and/or district was the lowest aspiration ($M = 3.91$). However, when participants were asked the open-ended question, "How do you plan to grow and develop professionally once you start teaching?" Sixty-three percent or 63 of the 100 participants answered professional development. The data regarding professional development indicated the participants' desire to be recipients of professional development and not planners for it. As shown in Table 3 the outcomes were normally distributed, and the homogeneity of variance assumption was supported. An ANOVA determined the differences in licensure areas and leadership aspirations to be $F(3, 96) = .48, p = .70, R^2 = .02$. There was not a relationship between licensure area and leadership behaviors.

Table 3

ANOVA of Leadership Aspirations for Licensure Areas

Source	<i>df</i>	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Between Groups	3	.125	.04	.48	0.70
Within Groups	96	8.28	.09		
Total	99	8.41			

Research Question #4: What typology of teacher leadership do preservice teachers represent according to licensure area? For Research Question 4 the top typology for each participant was found by compiling all 25 survey items, conducting a descriptive analysis, and then calculating the mean for each typology. The highest mean value was determined to be the top typology, and frequencies for each typology were calculated. Out of 100 survey participants, 57 participants identified most with general teacher leadership. As shown in Figure 1, 12 participants' top typology was instructional innovator, 12 participants' top typology was professional learning leader, and 19 participants were classified as administrative teacher leaders.

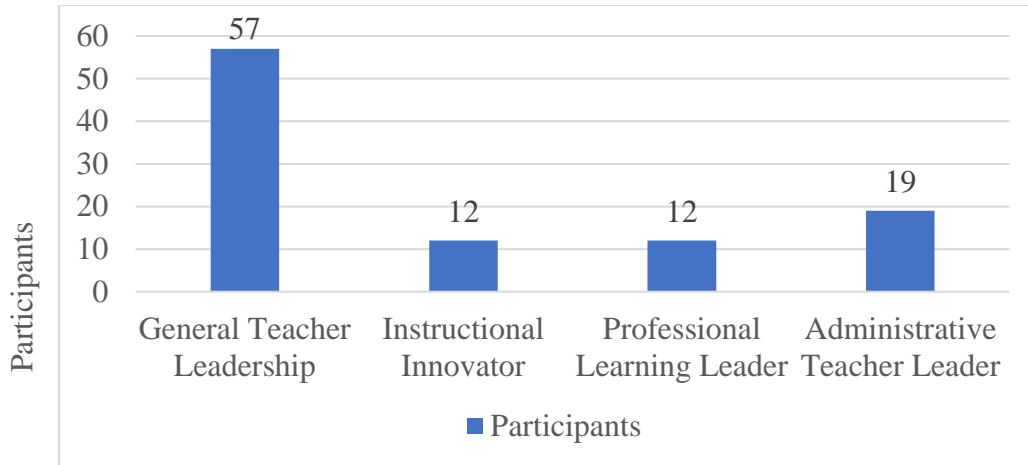


Figure 1. Frequency of teacher leadership typologies.

A chi-square test of independence was then performed to examine if the relationship between licensure area and typology was statistically significant. Effect size was also calculated. Results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Chi-square Test Of Leadership Typology for Licensure Areas

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sides)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.650 ^a	9	.002*
Likelihood Ratio	30.134	9	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.095	1	.758
N of Valid Cases	100		

* $p < .05$

Note. 11 cells (68.8%) have an expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.64.

The relationship between licensure area and typology was statistically significant, $\chi^2(9, N = 100) = 26.65, p = .002$. Typologies of teacher leadership according to licensure area are shown in Figure 2.

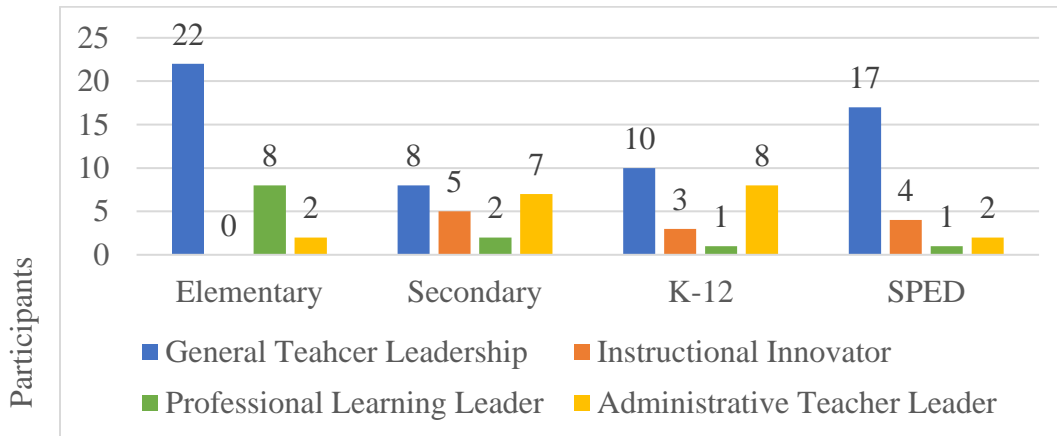


Figure 2. Teacher leadership typology according to licensure area.

Conclusions

An analysis of the data gathered for Research Question 1 found that no differences existed between the leadership behaviors of preservice teachers and their licensure area upon completion of their teacher preparation programs. No significance can be seen as potential and opportunity. The participants agreed that they possessed general leadership behaviors for relating to and communicating with others and that this would allow them to lead by example in their classroom. According to researchers whose studies of teacher leadership have extended to the preservice realm, teacher preparation programs that address the development of leaders must be in the context of developing both the behaviors of teachers and practices of leadership (Smylie & Eckert, 2017). The focus of teacher leadership “should extend beyond identifying or waiting for the emergence of the next teaching superhero to lead. The education field would do well to pay much more attention, and devote much more systematic effort, to development”

(Smylie & Eckert, p. 572). According to Bond (2011) preservice teachers must be introduced to the idea of teacher leadership, be open to developing as a leader, and be given opportunities to cultivate leadership skills.

The development of teacher leader behaviors can be done in all licensure areas. Mangin and Stoelinga (2010) found that institutions of higher education offer leadership programs and teaching programs in separate departments. The researchers claimed that “interdepartmental collaboration is necessary to develop effective teacher leader programs that attend to developing both subject area knowledge and leadership skills (p. 56). “Learning to lead while learning to teach can occur optimally during teacher preparation” (Bond & Sterret, 2014, p. 26).

Teacher preparation programs are proficient at addressing pedagogy. Teacher preparation program coursework includes best practices in the areas of curriculum, instruction, assessment, and classroom management (Bond, 2011). However, Bond claimed that preservice teachers need to also look at pedagogy and best practices “through the lens of leadership” (p. 288) in order to have a frame of reference for what teaching and working with students really entails. “Leadership, along with pedagogical and content knowledge as a professional responsibility, is an emerging requirement for effective teachers (Rogers & Scales, 2013, p. 30). The opportunity exists for teacher preparation programs to include teacher leadership in their curriculum, allowing preservice teachers to develop leadership behaviors, such as open-mindedness and cooperation, alongside teaching skills.

Research Question 2 focused on professional responsibilities as possible opportunities for leadership. After an analysis was completed it was found that no

statistically significant relationships existed between opportunities and licensure areas. No statistical significance creates an opening in the curriculum for teacher preparation programs to address teacher leadership opportunities in all licensure areas. Opportunities for teacher leadership as identified by the participants in the current study included influencing how other teachers approach and carry out their teaching, which includes deciding on and trying out new practices, and which impacts not only students, but the school and district as a whole. The findings of Research Question 2 are related to what Mthiyane and Grant (2013) uncovered in their study of novice teachers. “Novice teachers are often an untapped leadership source as they are not viewed as potential agents of change” (p. S221). Mthiyane and Grant urged that novice teachers must be thought of as teacher leaders and engage in leadership practices. In order for novice teachers to engage in leadership practices early in their careers, they need to be exposed to leadership opportunities. Lieberman and Miller (2005) agreed that assigning leadership roles to teachers without specific opportunities for training on how to perform in these roles leads to frustration and failure.

Opportunities for leadership in the preservice realm are addressed in current research, and previous studies have been conducted on preservice teacher leadership. Ado (2016) believed that the opportunity exists for preservice teachers to develop leadership potential. Ado conducted a qualitative study on preservice teachers that were enrolled in an undergraduate teacher preparation course and found that a starting point for teacher leadership development can be in teacher preparation programs. Ado found that the preservice teachers, though they were just at the start of learning how to become a teacher, demonstrated the knowledge and skills needed for teacher leadership as

determined by the *Teacher Leader Model Standards*. “Findings from this study show that as a result of participating in a course that emphasized teacher leadership, they are embarking on their pathway towards becoming teacher leaders as well” (p. 17).

According to Angelle (2017) “teachers who step into the classroom ready to lead children and model best practices for their peers begin their leadership work at an advantage” (p. 103).

Preservice teacher preparation is the time when aspirations for teaching are originally formed in individuals (Bond, 2011). An analysis of the results of Research Question 3 confirmed what other researchers have found, that licensure area does not make a difference in preservice teachers’ aspirations for leadership roles within and beyond the classroom, but aspirations to impact the students, school, and district do still exist. According to Forde and Dickson (2017) the factor that makes a difference in preservice teachers’ aspirations for leadership is how they and others view them as leaders. Ying and Ho (2015) suggested that personal, professional, and social factors contribute to preservice teachers’ leadership aspirations. Personal factors, such as personality, motivation, and beliefs, impact how and if preservice teachers view themselves as leaders and are willing to take on leadership roles and initiatives. Professional factors that contribute to preservice teachers’ leadership aspirations are related to the school curriculum and experiences in the classroom and education profession. Interactions with principals, teachers, and parents are the social factors that contribute to the leadership aspirations of preservice teachers. Reeves and Lowenhaupt (2016) found that aspirations to lead were part of what motivated preservice teachers to enter the teaching profession in the first place. As a result even before they entered the

profession they aspired to take on leadership roles during their first few years in the classroom. “Beginning teachers are in fact not too young to lead; they have a wealth of energy, insight, and enthusiasm to offer and perhaps, in their inexperience, are open to possibilities that others may not be” (Pucella, 2014, p. 20). Ingersoll (2001) found that a large number of teachers were leaving the profession for reasons other than they were retiring. In particular, younger teachers who were newer to the profession left more frequently than veteran teachers and cited reasons for leaving such as job dissatisfaction, organizational conditions, and a desire to pursue other careers.

Research Question 4 identified what typology of teacher leadership preservice teachers represented according to licensure area. Data analysis by Bae et al. (2016) identified the following three types of teacher leadership: (a) instructional innovator, (b) professional learning leader, and (c) administrative teacher leader.

An instructional innovator can be thought of as a subject area expert. Instructional innovators influence both the students they teach and the colleagues they work closely with. Instructional innovators are not interested in teacher leadership as it extends to administrative tasks or policy-related processes, but instead prefer to focus on teaching and interactions with students. “For instructional innovators, leadership work that extended outside of the classroom still remained student and/or instruction-centered” (Bae et al., 2016, p. 920). Professional learning leaders impact colleagues beyond what instructional innovators do and their impact extends both within and outside of their schools, most often taking on the form of professional development. Administrative teacher leaders serve as representatives for other teachers and act as change agents, especially in policy matters and partnership initiatives. The role of an administrative

teacher leaders involves “a strong commitment to shifting traditional top-down leadership structures toward a participatory decision-making culture” (pp. 924-925). Although Bae et al. found that teacher leaders primarily fell into one of the three teacher leadership typologies identified above, there were teacher leaders who demonstrated characteristics and competencies of more than one typology. “Recognizing the three teacher leadership pathways presented in the study allows teachers who have leadership proclivity at varied levels of the education system to fill unique roles ideal for them” (p. 929).

In addition, though not identified as a typology of teacher leadership, Bae et al. (2016) acknowledged general teacher leadership qualities such as finding work meaningful, respecting others, contributing to the success of the students and school, and being recognized and valued. One interesting finding that Bae et al. noticed in their study on teacher typologies, that is contrary to the data from the current study, is that teachers new to the profession tended to identify as professional learning leaders. Bae et al. speculated that perhaps teachers new to the profession identified as professional learning leaders because of their lack of expertise and their eagerness to learn from other teachers. The current study revealed preservice teachers most identified with general leadership in all licensure areas. However, it is important to note here that preservice teachers have not officially entered the profession yet. Bae et al.’s typologies of teacher leadership “provides a clearer conceptualization to support future work that moves beyond treating teacher leadership as an umbrella term, and toward empirically investigating how different types of teacher leadership support the desired improvements in teaching and learning” (p. 927).

Implications and Recommendations

The current study targeted teacher leadership at the preservice stage and impacts preservice teachers and educator preparation providers. Findings indicated that the opportunity exists for teacher leadership to be a part of the work of teacher preparation programs to prepare preservice teachers. Seminal research has found that educator preparation providers work diligently to prepare high quality teachers in multiple licensure areas (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). In addition, many institutions of higher education effectively prepare already practicing teachers for leadership through master's degree programs and professional development opportunities (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). However, there is a lack of current research on teacher leadership at the preservice stage. As evidenced in the current study, teacher preparation, though a critical point in the continuum of a teacher's career-long development, does not include concepts of and opportunities for leadership. When participants in the current study were asked how many leadership courses they had taken as part of their teacher preparation program, 66 out of 100 indicated they had taken zero classes. Twenty-five out of 100 indicated they had only taken one or two classes.

The results from the current study can be used as a resource to support a continuum of teacher leadership and can be used in discussions about supporting teacher leadership preparation and development throughout an educator's career, starting at the preservice stage. Ninety-eight percent or 98 of the 100 participants in the current study strongly agreed or agreed that work as a teacher leader was important, but only 45% or 45 of the 100 participants answered positively to the statement, "Upon entering the teaching profession I could serve as a classroom teacher and become a teacher leader in

my school and/or district”. Teacher preparation programs need to provide opportunities for preservice teachers to become aware of what teacher leadership is and the various ways in which educators can acquire and develop leadership skills, knowledge, and dispositions, both formally and informally. Teacher preparation programs have the potential to support preservice teachers in establishing an aspirational foundation for leadership opportunities within and outside of the classroom. According to Bond (2011), teacher preparation programs, “can launch the preservice teachers on their leadership journey” (p. 294).

Preservice teacher preparation is a critical point in the continuum of a teacher's career-long development and the potential for leadership must be present at this stage (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006; Forde & Dickson, 2017; King, 2017). Forster (1997) believed that educator preparation providers must help preservice teachers understand that teaching and leadership are inherent in and integral to their role as a professional educator. “Commitment to leadership must be instilled as teachers are prepared to enter the profession and reinforced thereafter. It cannot be incidental learning or an assumption that the commitment exists simply because one chose teaching as a career” (p. 88). In addition, preservice teachers need to understand that teacher leadership is a separate career trajectory from administration. Principals, directors of special education, superintendents and others who serve in an administrative role leave the classroom and move into full time administration. Administrative contracts contain explicit responsibilities and clear authority is assigned to their specific leadership positions. Teacher leaders on the other hand have a teaching contract and have duties inside the classroom in some capacity. The preservice teachers in the current study indicated a

desire to stay in the classroom. When the participants in the current study were asked, “Where do you see yourself professionally in five years?” only six out of the 100 participants answered administration, and two of those six indicated possibly/maybe. All the rest said teaching. Engaging in teacher leadership provides a way for teachers to move along their professional continuum by teaching and leading concurrently.

There are multiple ways available for preservice teachers to learn about and experience both teaching and leading in their teacher preparation programs. Preservice teachers can learn by having opportunities to informally observe a teacher in his/her informal leadership roles and experiences (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Preservice teachers can also learn about leadership by being connected with formal teacher leaders who serve in leadership roles and positions such as department chairs and instructional coaches (Bae et al., 2016; Hunzicker, 2013) thus providing them with firsthand experiences about the variety of teacher leader roles. Finally, preservice teachers can also be advised by administrators to learn more about the role and impact of the teacher leaders within schools (Barth, 2001; Xie & Shen, 2013). Bond (2011) claimed, “Teacher preparation programs, under the guidance of knowledgeable teacher educators, are ideal places to introduce the concept and begin to develop the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that give preservice teachers a leadership frame” (p. 281).

The results from the current study also indicated that the opportunity exists for changes to be made to the curriculum in teacher preparation programs to better support the inclusion of teacher leadership and provide an aspirational foundation for preservice teachers. Reeves and Lowenhaupt (2016) found that preservice teachers aspired to take on leadership roles during their first few years in the classroom, even before they entered

the profession. Aspirations to lead were part of what inspired preservice teachers to enter the teaching profession in the first place. “Motivated by altruistic and intrinsic factors and informed by their own experiences of education, these aspiring teachers view their future careers as multifaceted, shifting over time, and leading to leadership opportunities of broad scope” (p. 184). Faculty in teacher preparation programs have the potential to help preservice teachers understand the opportunities that exist within a teacher’s career and the various ways in which teachers can acquire leadership skills, knowledge, and dispositions, both formally and informally (Ryan, 2017).

Teacher preparation programs that include teacher leadership experiences will better prepare preservice teachers to plan their careers and take advantage of leadership opportunities upon entering the profession. The research of York-Barr & Duke (2004) cites that a culture of teacher leadership sets high expectations within a supportive and dynamic system of professional educators. If teacher leadership is nurtured from preservice, to early, to mid, to advanced career stages, a teacher’s work becomes meaningful and fulfilling, thus attracting and retaining the best classroom teachers for their students (Barth, 2001; Curtis, 2013; Katzenmeyer and Moller, 2009; Smylie, 1995). According to Crowther et al. (2009), teachers who take on leadership opportunities invigorate their schools, impact student achievement, and are invested in building a meaningful career.

Once a culture of teacher leadership is established, institutions of higher education can offer professional development in teacher leadership even at the preservice stage. Professional development in teacher leadership can build preservice teachers’ knowledge and skills in areas such as how to lead change, adult learning, mentoring, coaching, peer

observation, professional development design, action research, and other areas that are not part of typical teacher preparation programs or professional development (Bae et al., 2016; Whitney, 2013). The results of the current study indicated that preservice teachers expect such professional development. When asked how to learn more about teacher leadership, just over half of the participants answered professional development. According to Carver and Meier (2013) continuous professional development in leadership should be as frequent as other types of professional development and should allow for personalization to best meet the needs of each teacher leader. Professional development in teacher leadership can also be embedded into existing models of professional development and can be accomplished through professional organizations that offer webinars, workshops, conferences, or graduate work in teacher leadership programs.

Despite numerous opportunities for professional development in leadership, such as workshops, webinars, institute days, book groups, and professional learning communities, it is rare (Ghamrawi, 2013). A more typical practice is for teachers to assume teacher leader roles with little or no experience in leading their colleagues. Teachers should not assume leadership positions without preparation. Leading colleagues effectively is much different than being competent within a classroom of students. It is essential to provide teachers with the necessary opportunities to develop leadership knowledge, skills, behaviors, and aspirations. If teacher preparation programs provide opportunities for leadership development, then upon entering the profession, teachers can assume leadership positions sooner and with greater confidence.

One recommendation for future research in the area of preservice teacher leadership is to conduct a study that tracks preservice teachers into their inservice practices. A longitudinal study could better identify the factors that lead to a successful transition between preservice teacher leadership preparation and provide examples of specific instances where novice teachers realize and act on teacher leadership opportunities. A longitudinal study could also reveal valuable information on teacher retention and job satisfaction upon entering and continuing in the profession.

In addition, there were only 100 participants in the current study, all of whom attended a private liberal arts institution of higher education in the same state. Surveying preservice teachers from both public and private institutions of higher education would yield more diverse participants in additional licensure areas, and more information on pedagogy and methodology preparation in teacher preparation programs could be uncovered. If the study was expanded beyond one state, because licensure requirements vary from state to state, results may reveal differences in coursework and assessment requirements leaving open the possibility that leadership in certain states is a part of the coursework in certain teacher preparation programs.

It is also suggested an additional piece of demographic data be collected to better differentiate between traditional undergraduate students and adult undergraduate students. Adult undergraduate students may be returning to school or may have already earned a bachelor's degree. The experiences and maturity of adult students are very important factors in how an individual develops leadership skills, behaviors, and aspirations. Taking into account age, life experience, teacher preparation program format,

and previous work experiences would add value to the results of the study and provide additional information on the leadership preparation of preservice teachers.

Finally, if future researchers conduct a similar study on preservice teacher leadership it is suggested that a tool be used or developed and piloted that is more recent than *The Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey* (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Changes in licensure requirements, the current teacher shortage, and the release of standards and teacher evaluation tools that address the leadership domain in education would better include the most recent trends in teacher leadership while measuring leadership behaviors, opportunities, and aspirations.

The ideal that preservice teachers can and should be prepared for teacher leadership has been established in the current study. Preservice teachers in teacher preparation programs need to appreciate the depth and breadth of a teaching career. Preservice teachers need to be equipped to plan their careers and take advantage of leadership opportunities. Preservice teachers need to realize potential exists for teacher leadership within and outside of the classroom upon entering the profession. Preservice teachers need to view the teaching profession as a continuum in which teaching and leading can occur optimally and simultaneously. Preparation of preservice teachers for leadership will result in improved job satisfaction and retention, the modeling of best practices in teaching and leadership, and most importantly, an increase in classroom performance and student achievement.

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Appendix A

Adapted Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey

(Adapted from *Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument* in *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers to Develop as Leaders* (3rd edition, pp. 16-19), by Marilyn Katzenmeyer and Gayle Moller, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2009 by Corwin Press. Adapted with permission. Further use or adaptation of this instrument requires explicit permission from the publisher and author.)

Informed Consent

You are being invited to participate in a research study which is designed to explore preservice teacher leadership. You will be asked to supply demographic information, respond to a 25 item survey, and answer 5 open ended questions. The estimated time to complete the entire survey is about 10 minutes.

The risks associated with this study are minimal. There are also no expected benefits to you as an individual for having participated in this research, except for having the experience of participating in a research study.

Participating in this study is completely voluntary. You will not be penalized in any way for choosing not to participate. You may withdraw from this study at any time with no penalty.

Your participation in this study is completely anonymous. Names will never be linked to data. All data received from participants will remain secure.

Here is a link to link to Survey Monkey's Privacy Policy <https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/privacy-policy/>

Here is a link to Survey Monkey's Security Statement <https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/security/>

If you have any questions you may contact Kelly Lenarz at kalenarz@olivet.edu.

By clicking below on YES you are acknowledging that you are at least 18 years old and have read and understood the information provided in this consent.

Thank you in advance for participating in this study. Your feedback is important.

1. Do you agree with the above terms? By clicking "Yes" you consent that you are willing to participate in this study.

- Yes
 No

Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey

Respond to the following statements in terms of how strongly you agree or disagree.

2. Work as a teacher leader is both meaningful and important.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neutral
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

(Adapted from *Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument* in *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers to Develop as Leaders* (3rd edition, pp. 16-19), by Marilyn Katzenmeyer and Gayle Moller, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2009 by Corwin Press.

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3. Individual teachers should be able to influence how other teachers think about, plan for, and conduct their work with students.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

4. Teachers should be recognized for trying new strategies whether they succeed or fail.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

5. Teachers should decide on the best methods of instruction for meeting educational goals set by policy-making groups (e.g., school boards, state departments of education).

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

6. I would be willing to observe and provide feedback to fellow teachers.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

7. I would like to spend time discussing my values and beliefs about teaching with my colleagues.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

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8. It will be important to me to have the respect of the administrators and other teachers at my school.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

9. I would be willing to help a colleague who was having difficulty with his or her teaching.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

10. I can see the points of view of my colleagues, students, and students' parents.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

11. I would give my time to help select new teachers for my school.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

12. Teachers should be a facilitator of the work of students in their classroom and of colleagues in meetings at school and in the district.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

(Adapted from *Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument in Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers to Develop as Leaders* (3rd edition, pp. 16-19), by Marilyn Katzenmeyer and Gayle Moller, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2009 by Corwin Press.

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13. Teachers working collaboratively should be able to influence practice in their schools and districts.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

14. Upon entering the teaching profession I could serve as a classroom teacher and become a teacher leader in my school and/or district.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

15. Cooperating with my colleagues is more important than competing with them.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

16. I would give my time to help plan professional development activities at my school and/or district.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

17. A teacher's work contributes to the overall success of the school and/or district.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

(Adapted from *Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument* in *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers to Develop as Leaders* (3rd edition, pp. 16-19), by Marilyn Katzenmeyer and Gayle Moller, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2009 by Corwin Press.

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18. Mentoring new teachers is part of the responsibility of a professional teacher.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

19. School faculty and university faculty can mutually benefit from working together.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

20. I would be willing to give my time to participate in making decisions about such things as instructional materials, allocation of resources, student assignments, and/or organizations of the school day.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

21. I value time spent working with others on curriculum and instructional matters.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

22. I am very effective in working with others.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

(Adapted from *Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument* in *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers to Develop as Leaders* (3rd edition, pp. 16-19), by Marilyn Katzenmeyer and Gayle Moller, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2009 by Corwin Press. Adapted with permission. Further use or adaptation of this instrument requires explicit permission from the publisher and author.)

23. I have knowledge, information, and skills that can help students be successful.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

24. I recognize and value points of view that are different from mine.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

25. I am very effective in working with almost all of my students.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

(Adapted from *Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument* in *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers to Develop as Leaders* (3rd edition, pp. 16-19), by Marilyn Katzenmeyer and Gayle Moller, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2009 by Corwin Press. Adapted with permission. Further use or adaptation of this instrument requires explicit permission from the publisher and author.)

26. I want to work in an environment where I am recognized and valued as a professional.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Short Answer

Please answer the following short answer questions.

27. How many leadership courses have you taken as part of your teacher preparation program?

- 0
- 1 - 2
- 3 or more

28. Even if you didn't take a leadership course, what leadership behaviors and skills did you develop during your time in your teacher preparation program. How did you do this?

29. What are the different ways that teachers can enact leadership within the classroom?

30. What opportunities do teachers have to participate in leadership outside of the classroom?

31. How do you plan to grow and develop professionally once you start teaching?

32. Where do you see yourself professionally in 5 years?

(Adapted from *Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument in Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers to Develop as Leaders* (3rd edition, pp. 16-19), by Marilyn Katzenmeyer and Gayle Moller, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2009 by Corwin Press. Adapted with permission. Further use or adaptation of this instrument requires explicit permission from the publisher and author.)

Demographic Information

33. Licensure area. Please click all that apply

- Early Childhood Education
- Elementary Education
- Secondary English Education
- Secondary Math Education
- Secondary History Education
- Secondary Biology Education
- Secondary Chemistry Education
- Business Education
- Art Education
- Physical Education
- Spanish Education
- Music Education
- Special Education
- Middle Grades English Education
- Middle Grades Math Education
- Middle Grades Science Education
- Middle Grades Social Studies Education
- Other (please specify)

34. Endorsements: Please list any endorsements you are receiving.

35. Educator Preparation Provider: Please list the name of the institution/university at which you are completing your teacher preparation program.

36. Program Format:

- Undergraduate traditional program
- Undergraduate adult program
- Licensure only program

(Adapted from *Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument in Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers to Develop as Leaders* (3rd edition, pp. 16-19), by Marilyn Katzenmeyer and Gayle Moller, 2009, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin. Copyright 2009 by Corwin Press. Adapted with permission. Further use or adaptation of this instrument requires explicit permission from the publisher and author.)

37. Student Teaching Placement: please list the grade/subject area where you are currently student teaching.

38. Gender

- Male
- Female
- Do not wish to share

39. Age

Appendix B
Survey Permissions

Friday, January 31, 2020 at 09:49:48 Central Standard Time

Subject: RE: Help contacting an author
Date: Friday, February 9, 2018 at 5:56:01 AM Central Standard Time
From: permissions (US)
To: Kelly Lenarz

Hello Kelly,

My apologies for the delay in reply – this time of year we are receiving a large volume of email requests and I have not been able to stay on top of the replies to my satisfaction.

Thank you for supplying the additional information about the specific pages the instrument was printed in the Corwin book. I am happy to report that you can consider this email as permission to use the survey as detailed below in your upcoming dissertation research. Please note that this permission does not cover any 3rd party material that may be found within the work. Distribution of the scale must be controlled, meaning only to the participants engaged in the research or enrolled in the educational activity. All copies of the material should be collected and destroyed once all data collection and research on this project is complete. Any other type of reproduction or distribution of test content is not authorized without written permission from the publisher

You must properly credit the original source, Corwin. If you wish to include the scale itself in your final dissertation report, please contact us again for that request

Please contact us for any further usage of the material and good luck on your dissertation!

All the Best,
Yvonne

--

Yvonne McDuffee
Rights Coordinator
SAGE Publishing
2455 Teller Road
Thousand Oaks, CA 91320

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From: Kelly Lenarz [mailto:kalenarz@olivet.edu]
Sent: Wednesday, January 10, 2018 11:40 AM
To: permissions (US) <permissions@sagepub.com>
Subject: Re: Help contacting an author

Good afternoon Yvonne,

Thank you for your quick reply.

I would like to reuse the Teacher Leadership Readiness survey. It is found on pp. 16-19 of the book. I've attached a copy to this email.

Page 1 of 3

Friday, January 31, 2020 at 09:41:00 Central Standard Time

Subject: RE: Help contacting an author
Date: Wednesday, March 28, 2018 at 6:08:46 PM Central Daylight Time
From: Craig Myles
To: Kelly Lenarz
CC: permissions (US)

Hello Kelly,

Thank you for your earlier voicemail. While I typically handle our UK titles permission requests, I'm happy to assist in this instance.

Upon review of the "Teacher Leadership Readiness Instrument," as it is cited in *'Awakening the Sleeping Giant, 3e,'* it appears that the copyrights to this instrument were actually retained by Marilyn Katzenmeyer under her business, 'Professional Development Center, Inc.' instead of by Corwin Press. You will therefore need to contact the author instead for her permission to publish this instrument in your dissertation. According to the book, the contact information for Dr. Katzenmeyer is as follows:

Professional Development Center, Inc.
P.O. Box 46609
Tampa, FL 33647
Telephone: (813) 991-5101
E-mail: mkatzen383@aol.com

If you have any questions, or if we can be of further assistance, please let us know.

Best regards,

Craig Myles
Rights Coordinator
SAGE Publishing
2455 Teller Road
Thousand Oaks, CA 91320
USA

www.sagepublishing.com

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Singapore | Washington DC

From: Kelly Lenarz [mailto:kalenarz@olivet.edu]
Sent: Thursday, March 1, 2018 6:15 PM
To: permissions (US) <permissions@sagepub.com>
Subject: Re: Help contacting an author

Good evening Yvonne,

Thanks again for your help with obtaining permission to use the Teacher Leadership Readiness Survey in my published dissertation. I wanted to follow up on my request to include a copy of the tool because I am getting prepared for my IRB approval and including the scale itself in my final dissertation report is a requirement.

Page 1 of 4

Friday, January 31, 2020 at 09:51:43 Central Standard Time

Subject: Re: Permission to publish your survey
Date: Thursday, March 29, 2018 at 4:18:12 PM Central Daylight Time
From: Marilyn Katzenmeyer
To: Kelly Lenarz

Kelly,
Thanks for your request. You have permission to use the instrument for your research and to publish the Teacher Leadership Readiness instrument with revisions in your dissertation.
Please include copyright information as shown on the instrument on all copies you use for gathering your data and in publishing it.
Best regards,
Marilyn Katzenmeyer, EdD

Sent from my iPhone

On Mar 28, 2018, at 7:41 PM, Kelly Lenarz <kalenarz@olivet.edu> wrote:

Good afternoon Dr. Katzenmeyer,

I am currently a doctoral candidate at Olivet Nazarene University and recently received permission from SAGE/Corwin publishers to use your Teacher Leadership Readiness survey found on pp. 16-19 of your book *Awaking the Sleeping Giant* (2012). I hope to use this tool to measure the leadership skills and aspirations of teacher candidates upon completion of their teacher preparation programs. My dissertation title is "Preparing Preservice Teachers for Leadership Within and Beyond the Classroom".

Upon further review by the Rights Coordinator at SAGE I was advised to reach out to you with my request for permission to publish this instrument in my dissertation.

In addition, because my study is targeting preservice teachers and not inservice teachers, I was wondering if I could also modify the survey to reflect my targeted participants. For certain items instead of using "I" or "my" I would like to use "a teacher's". For example #16 "A teacher's work contributes to the overall success of a school program."

Thanks in advance for considering my request. I look forward to hearing back from you.

Kelly Lenarz

Page 1 of 1

Appendix C

Permissions from Educator Preparation Providers

3/12/2018

Re: Permission to use Student Teachers from Trinity Christian College

 Reply all |  Delete | Junk | 

Re: Permission to use Student Teachers from Trinity Christian College

 Joy.Meyer <Joy.Meyer@trnty.edu>
Today, 9:02 AM
Kelly Lenarz; Joy.Meyer <Joy.Meyer@trnty.edu> 

  Reply all | 

Inbox

 Phish Alert 

Kelly,

Your research topic sounds interesting. I believe that having our students participate will be a great experience for them.

With the approval of Trinity's IRB, you have my permission.

Joy Meyer, Ed. D.
Associate Professor of Education
Department Chair & Licensure Officer | Trinity Christian College
6601 West College Drive | Palos Heights, Illinois 60463

708.239.4810 | joy.meyer@trnty.edu

On Mar 1, 2018, at 9:03 PM, Kelly Lenarz <kalenarz@olivet.edu> wrote:

Good evening Dr. Meyer,

I am emailing you to ask for permission to use the 2018-2019 Student Teachers from Trinity Christian College as participants in my doctoral study on preservice teacher leadership. Participation will be voluntary and will consist of filling out a survey via Survey Monkey. I anticipate this survey will take at most about 10 minutes to complete. All participants will remain anonymous and data gathered will not be directly linked to your institution. Once I obtain IRB approval from Olivet Nazarene University I will request IRB approval from Trinity Christian College as well.

Thank you for considering my request and for this opportunity.

Kelly Lenarz

Approval for Student Teacher Participation

BH

Bob Hull

Yesterday, 2:15 PM

Kelly Lenarz; Bob Hull; Kelly Brown

 Reply all | v Reply all | v  Delete Junk | v ...

You replied on 3/14/2018 11:17 AM.

 Phish Alert 

Dear Kelly,

This is to acknowledge that I have received your request to ask ONU's student teachers to participate in and provide information for your doctoral study. I grant approval to you to contact our students and proceed with collecting information. If you want this information in their last semester of study, our Seminar III - EDUC 493 Class is one where all the student teachers take it at the same time.

I wish you the best as you continue your doctoral studies. Please contact me if you have/need additional information.

Sincerely

Bob Hull

Dr. Robert E. Hull Ed.D.
Dean School of Education | Weber Center
Director of Emergency Management
Olivet Nazarene University | One University Avenue | Bourbonnais, IL 60914
rehull@olivet.edu | Ph: 815.928.5429 | Fax: 815.935.4996

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