TEACHER LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AND PROACTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS
IN NORTH CAROLINA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

TEACHER LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AND PROACTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS

IN NORTH CAROLINA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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This study examined teacher leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics used among interactions of teachers in North Carolina schools. All teachers are now required to demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the teaching profession (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008). Since teachers hold no formal authority over one another, teachers use a variety of influence tactics to lead peers. The conceptual framework for this study used a blend of Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond's theory of distributed leadership, Yukl's identification of 11 proactive influence tactics, teacher leadership behaviors aligned with the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, and North Carolina Standards for School Executives. This framework provided insight into how teachers lead when teachers are both leaders and followers. This study answered five research questions:

1. What leadership behaviors do teachers enact in formal and informal situations?

2. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers perceive are used on them?

3. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers use?

4. What patterns of influence among teachers are associated with teacher leadership behaviors in formal and informal situations?

5. How does principal support influence teacher leadership?

This study used a correlational, cross-sectional research design. The sample consisted of classroom teachers in seven school districts across the state ($N = 493$). A Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire was used to explore specific teacher leadership behaviors and the target and agent versions of Yukl's Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) were used to measure behavioral influence tactics used among teachers. Teacher leadership behaviors were categorized into six different groups based on situation: informal classroom, formal classroom, informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession. Creating and maintaining a safe and supportive classroom environment had the highest percentage of high-frequency behavior. Conversely, few respondents said they very often develop policies or lead professional development outside of their school. The proactive influence tactic respondents reported being used most frequently on them as targets was facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal. Proactive influence tactics that used pressure were reportedly used the least often on respondents. Demanding to carry out a request was the behavior with the lowest percentage of frequency. Similarly, as agents of influence, the most frequently used proactive influence tactic respondents reported using was facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal. Very few respondents reported frequent use of pressure tactics or demanding a colleague carry out a request. There was a statistically significant association between pressure tactics and formal school and formal profession leadership. Agent non-pressure tactics and target

non-pressure tactics were both statistically significantly and positively associated with informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession situations. Principal support was statistically significantly associated with teacher leadership. In all six situations of teacher leadership behavior, the means were higher when principal support was higher. Findings indicate it is incumbent upon the North Carolina State Board of Education, local school districts, principals, and teachers themselves, to develop leadership skills among teachers. In addition, if the use and acceptance of pressure tactics when leading in education increased, North Carolina public schools may experience an increase in the number of teachers leading in our schools and profession.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

*"…it is not important for teachers to 'feel' empowered; it is imperative that they **be***

empowered" (Rettig, 2004, p. 264).

Professional standards for teachers and principals have changed in North

Carolina. As of the 2010-2011 school year, all teachers are required to demonstrate

leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the teaching profession (North Carolina

Professional Teaching Standards, 2008). Additionally, principals are expected to utilize

distributed leadership and engage teachers in leadership roles (North Carolina Standards

for School Executives, 2006). Unlike principals, teachers, whether in formal or informal

roles, hold no formal authority over their colleagues. Therefore, teachers use a variety of

influence tactics to lead colleagues. As principals are urged to distribute leadership, and

teachers assume greater leadership roles, the challenge for educators will be to redefine

roles that have been historically hierarchical.

By mandating a distributed leadership perspective, the North Carolina State Board

of Education (NCSBOE) is attempting to change leadership practice in North Carolina

public schools. If all principals engaged teachers in decision-making and problem

solving, there would be no need for mandates from the NCSBOE for administrators to

cultivate collaborative work environments. Likewise, if all teachers were active leaders,

there would be no need to require all teachers to demonstrate leadership. However, for

such a significant change to occur regarding leadership in North Carolina schools, the

NCSBOE has set the expectations for leadership by all educators, regardless of formal

position. With new professional standards, educators in public schools across North

Carolina may experience a shift in their thinking, interactions, and purpose as their focus

expands from students and self to colleagues and leading the school. The ability to influence others may play an increasingly significant role as teachers lead other teachers.

Background

Over 100 years ago, Dewey experimented with democratic, collaborative schools. Although Dewey (1916) recognized that formal positions within a hierarchy were sometimes needed, he advocated that collaboration could assist in the development of schools and society. Thirty years later, in one of the earliest volumes of *Educational Leadership*, Bahn (1947) advocated for a democratic structure in schools where individuals were encouraged and expected to exercise their greatest leadership potential regardless of formal position. However, for the past century democratic decision making in public education has been minimal (Kesson & Henderson, 2010).

Now, in the 21st century, democratic ideals have become increasingly embedded in educational rhetoric (Lindahl, 2008; Little, 2003; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Within many school systems, a more democratic climate of learning communities is emerging (Crippen, 2005). Distributed leadership has been one framework for encouraging democratic practices in schools. The term "distributed leadership" applies to fields beyond education, but within the field of education the terms distributed leadership and teacher leadership are often used interchangeably. Teacher leadership has been studied with growing intensity for the past two decades (Lindahl, 2008; Little, 2003; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). When schools function as learning communities, teachers develop strong, trusting relationships among colleagues, which in turn promote stronger teacher-student relationships (Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011).

Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond's (2004) distributed leadership perspective addresses the multi-faceted concept of teacher leadership. Within distributed leadership, leadership practice is stretched over leaders in the organization (Spillane, 2006). Furthermore, interactions among leaders, followers, and the school situation are mutually interdependent (Spillane et al., 2004). According to Beachum and Dentith (2004), when leadership is distributed in the school, leadership shifts from authoritative to democratic and teacher leadership is visible throughout the school. Teachers participate in virtually every operation within the school (Silva, Gimbert, & Nolan, 2000). Teachers are embedded in the context of the school and they have the ability to shape the school situation overtime (Lindahl, 2008). Leadership and the school context, therefore, interact as beliefs are shared, ideas are generated, and actions are implemented (Harris, 2003). Schools are constantly changing human organizations, consisting of an interdependent web of relationships (Rettig, 2004).

With all of the responsibilities required of public schools, leadership only by those in formal positions is ineffective (Barth, 2001; Lambert, 2003) and an exclusive focus on principal leadership is non-inclusive of all types of leadership in schools (Spillane, Camburn & Lewis, 2006). When leadership is confined to formal positions, informal leaders are often excluded from decision-making (Anderson, 2004). Research has shown that in order for schools to meet all of the demands today, diverse forms of leadership and expertise (Harris & Spillane, 2008) and teacher leadership is essential (Harris & Muijs, 2003; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011; Silva et al., 2000). However, teacher leadership has yet to be fully operationalized in our nation's public schools (Beachum &

Dentith, 2004; Helterbran, 2010; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009; York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

The omission of teacher leadership in schools is not only ineffective, it is not feasible (Lambert, 2003). With the increasing levels of accountability and demands for student achievement in K-12 public schools, the distribution of leadership among all educators in our nation's schools is needed (Neuman & Simmons, 2000; Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Scribner, Sawyer, Watson & Meyers, 2007). All stakeholders in the school community benefit through distributed leadership (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Miller, 2008) because leadership responsibilities are shared among all educators (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Lindahl, 2008; Robinson, 2008). Maxfield, Wells, Keane, and Klocko (2008) declared, "In effect leadership has evolved from a personal characteristic to an organizational one, from an individual function to a collective function" (p. 4).

Leadership is not limited to formal position within the hierarchy of an organization. In past decades, the principal's role was to manage and control. In today's schools, the principal's role is to inspire, motivate, and create a shared vision. To create a shared vision, teachers must have buy-in. As teachers share responsibility for the vision of the school, relationships are transformed, followers become legitimate stakeholders in the process, and schools move away from hierarchy and toward a new understanding of the concept of leadership (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

Examining the practice of leadership (Spillane et al., 2004) and the relationships and influence throughout organizations provides insight regarding how educators outside of formal positions lead (Helterbran, 2010; Murphy & Louis, 1999; Ogawa & Bossert,

2000; Timperley, 2005; Scribner et al., 2007). A distributed leadership perspective combines the efforts of many individuals in which the sum is greater than the parts and the relationship between the individual and social structure is inherent (Woods & Gronn, 2009). Leadership is stretched over many members of the organization (Spillane, 2006). A distributed perspective of leadership imports the interactions of individuals in both formal and informal roles (Harris & Spillane, 2008). Educators are assuming new roles, forging new relationships, and working within new frames of reference (Leonard & Leonard, 1999). When leadership is defined based on formal roles and responsibilities, teachers often do not identify themselves as leaders. However, when leadership is defined as a broad, inclusive, participatory process, teachers sense their purpose in leadership (Lambert, 2003). By removing job titles from the concept of leadership and distributing leadership responsibilities according to the situation, all educators can be leaders (Harris, 2003; Lambert, 1998; Neuman & Simmons, 2000; Phelps, 2008; Spillane et al., 2004) because decisions emerge from the collaborative efforts of many individuals (Lambert, 1998; Scribner et al., 2007; Spillane et al., 2004).

Distributed leadership is a practice that has often existed in organizations, but has been rarely studied until the mid-1990s (Timperley, 2005). Distributed leadership has been studied to improve teaching and learning (Spillane et al., 2004), and schools across the United States have encouraged teachers to take on leadership roles (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Educational researchers and practitioners have advocated for increased teacher leadership in order to improve K-12 public schools; and district administrators and principals have promoted teacher leadership to attract, utilize, and retain top-quality

teachers whose knowledge has led school improvement initiatives (York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

Research has recorded the benefits of distributed leadership and shared accountability within organizations (Elmore, 1999; Hulpia & Devos, 2010; Margolis, 2008; Robinson, 2008; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). Distributed decision-making reduces the chance of error from a single leader with limited information (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). School reform efforts are more successful (Margolis, 2008) and school improvement efforts are protected against personnel changes (Robinson, 2008).

Distributed leadership in schools comes primarily in the form of teacher leadership that has been utilized to inform practice and make decisions for the classroom, school, and district (Little, 2003; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Teacher commitment increases when teachers have meaningful input in decision-making and school performance decreases when leadership is limited to only those in formal positions of power (Hulpia & Devos, 2010). Teacher leadership addresses demands on schools today because as teachers develop as leaders, their new learning spills over into the classroom to positively impact teaching and learning throughout the school (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011).

As teacher leadership emerges, teacher leaders influence many aspects of the organization. and teachers and administrators may be renewed in open, responsive schools (Harris, 2003; Beachum & Dentith, 2004). Since teachers are immersed in their schools, they are in a position to positively change leadership practices. Teachers convey the norms, values, and beliefs of the school to students, parents and community members (Huffman & Jacobson, 2003; Jerald, 2006). Teachers also shape the attitudes and

practices of new faculty members (Lindahl, 2008). Teacher leadership molds the school

culture (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006) and can promote or impede school reform efforts

(Lindahl, 2008). The ability to collaborate with others is paramount (Danielson, 2007).

Collaborative educational planning and decision making benefits both teachers and

students (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). As teachers collaborate, influence becomes an

essential component of leadership (Yukl, 2006), and leadership is "…socially constructed

and culturally sensitive" (Harris, 2003, p. 314).

Teachers demonstrate leadership as they set agendas, work toward shared goals,

encourage creativity, and build strong relationships with other teachers and leaders

(Printy, 2010); and as teachers work collaboratively, their educational practices improve

(Printy, 2008). When schools function as learning communities, teachers develop strong,

trusting relationships, which in turn, promote stronger teacher-student relationships

(Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011).

Teachers lead in formal ways such as department chairs, lead teachers, and

instructional coaches (Dozier, 2007; Harris, 2003; Lambert, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi,

1999). In addition, teachers lead informally by bringing innovative ideas to the school,

working on projects, sharing professional expertise (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999), working

on curriculum, mentoring colleagues (York-Barr & Duke, 2004), and influencing

colleagues to improve educational practice by leading in learning communities

(Halverson, 2003; Harris, 2003; Harris & Muijs, 2003; Lattimer, 2007; Leithwood &

Jantzi, 1999; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011).

Changes in schools from leadership centered among those in formal positions of

leadership to distributed leadership requires support from principals; and district level

administrators must encourage and inform principals of the value of distributed

leadership (Murphy, Smylie, Mayrowetz, & Louis, 2009). Principals play an essential

role in supporting teacher leadership (Dufour, 1995; Helterbran, 2010; Huffman &

Jacobson, 2003; Hulpia & Devos, 2010; Lambert, 1998; Murphy et al., 2009; Spillane,

2009; Steel & Craig, 2006). Principals support teacher leadership through providing time

and space, as well as providing financial, material, and emotional support through

affirmation of teacher leaders' work. Principals' support of teacher leaders influences

other teachers' receptiveness to teacher leaders (Mangin, 2007). In schools where only

the principal assumes formal leadership, teacher leadership is stifled and sporadic

(Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). A lack of principals intentionally developing teacher

leadership has inhibited the development of teacher leadership throughout the profession

(Helterbran, 2010). Therefore, understanding and embracing a new construct of

leadership where all teachers demonstrate leadership is a necessary change in practice for

principals as well as teachers (Anderson, 2004; Scribner et al., 2007). Lambert (2003)

argued, "…everyone is born to lead in the same way that everyone was born to learn" (p.

422), and teachers can be leaders in making changes to improve teaching and learning

(Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

The Emergence of Teacher Leadership

Teacher leadership has emerged primarily over the past two decades. Although

educators are taking steps to increase teacher leadership, changing the concept of

leadership to include teacher leadership is a slow-moving process. In practice, teacher

leadership has not increased by any substantial measure (Helterbran, 2010; Lindahl,

2008). A major reason for the slow change is that historically, public schools in the

United States have been hierarchical organizations that recognize formal positions of authority such as principals (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006; Crippen, 2005; Harris, 2003; Scribner et al., 2007; York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

Little (2003) examined the development of teacher leadership in three periods of policy and reform from 1988-2002. In the 1980s, teacher leadership occurred via intrinsic motivation. As quality teachers were rewarded, their commitment to the profession increased, and their accomplishments led to school improvement. From the late-1980s to the mid-1990s, whole school reform efforts redefined leadership roles in schools. Administrators encouraged teacher leadership for the purpose of achieving school and school district reform agendas. Then, when high stakes accountability was put into law in the late 1990s, teachers were recruited into leadership positions to meet the demands of external accountability. Over these two decades, while rewards for teacher leadership have waned, demands have continued to increase. Furthermore, teacher leadership transformed from a product of individual educators' internal motivations, to a requirement of all educators due to state and federal accountability.

With all of the demands on school leaders today, there is a need to flatten the hierarchy (Crippen, 2005; Harris, 2003; Scribner et al., 2007), because schools can no longer meet all of the educational and accountability demands by centralizing leadership at the top of the organizational hierarchy (Barth, 2001; Beachum & Dentith, 2004; Foster, 2004; Rettig, 2004). Many forms of leadership and expertise, including teacher leadership, are needed to meet the increasing demands in schools today (Harris & Spillane, 2008).

Leadership and Influence

Leadership emerges through the interaction of leaders, followers, and the situation (Spillane et al., 2004). Viewing leadership through this lens provides insight into how leaders accomplish tasks and the interdependencies among multiple leaders regardless of formal position, followers, and the situation (Robinson, 2008; Spillane et al., 2004). Since leadership occurs through interaction, influence is multi-directional and reciprocal (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000) and influence between leaders and followers flows both ways (Spillane, 2006).

Leadership affects more than a person's actions (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000). Leadership entails influencing others through social interaction (Harris, 2003; Owens & Valesky, 2007) and it is highly contextualized (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Spillane et al., 2004). The situation influences leadership practices (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Spillane et al., 2004; York-Barr & Duke, 2004) as leaders work within schools to influence others (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000). Research that examines school conditions as well as leadership tends to find significant effects of leadership on student outcomes (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Therefore, the situation is an essential component of distributed leadership (Hallinger & Heck, 2011; Lambert, 2003; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011) and the situation cannot be separated from leadership (Spillane et al., 2004).

By viewing leadership through influence and networks of relationships, regardless of position, the practice of leadership expands to the many resources available to all members of the organization, and those resources can be used to influence others to move the organization forward (Lambert, 2003; Spillane et al., 2004). Palmer (2008) examined the social networks in one high school to determine which factors supported or hindered

individual's opportunities to be influential in that school. Findings in Palmer's study indicated the development of professional learning communities best facilitate opportunities for increased teacher leadership.

Yukl (2006) identified the ability to influence others as power. Educators within a school with different knowledge and skill sets may utilize power and influence to address different tasks (Owens & Valesky, 2007; Spillane, 2006) and leaders emerge from focusing professional interactions on specific tasks or goals (Spillane, 2009). Who leads is dependent upon the situation, task, or activity (Spillane, 2006). The school situation, leaders and followers interact to affect student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2010). Through these interactions, followers may be a significant factor in determining who the leaders are (Harris & Spillane, 2008).

In a four-year longitudinal study on instructional leadership and interviews with 84 teachers in eight elementary schools, Spillane, Hallett, and Diamond (2003) found that teachers constructed other teachers as influential leaders based on human, cultural, social, and economic capital. Human capital refers to one's skills, knowledge, and expertise in a certain area. Cultural capital refers to one's way of being or interactive style. Social capital refers to trust, connections, and relationships. Economic capital refers to access to materials and resources. Of these four types of capital, cultural and social were used most often to construct fellow teachers as influential. It is through daily interactions that leadership is constructed. When teachers perceive colleagues to hold valued capital, leaders and influence emerge.

Influence and power within a school system affect the culture, initiatives, and direction of the school system (Owens & Valesky, 2007). In 1959, French and Raven

identified five categories of social power: reward, coercive, legitimate, expert and

referent (Yukl, 2006). Reward, coercive, and legitimate power are categorized as

position power and expert and referent power are categorized as personal power (Yukl &

Falbe, 1991). How and when to use each type of power, or combinations of types of

power, is part of the art and skill of leadership. Since teachers do not hold legitimate

authority over colleagues, influence to lead comes from the respect and perceived

expertise they hold (Danielson, 2007). Therefore, within teacher leadership, two types of

personal power, referent and expert, are most often utilized to influence colleagues

(Northouse, 1997). Referent power is employed when the target person wants acceptance

or approval from the agent and expert power is in action when the target person conforms

or agrees because he or she believes the agent has special knowledge about a subject or

how to perform a task (Yukl, 2006). Since educators have different knowledge and skill

sets, they may utilize power and influence to address different tasks (Owens & Valesky,

2007).

Research has revealed that the use of influence tactics varies according to

profession and culture. Yukl, Seifert and Chavez (2008) identified 11 proactive influence

tactics used to influence peers. These tactics are: rational persuasion, apprising,

inspirational appeals, consultation, collaboration, ingratiation, personal appeals,

exchange, coalition tactics, legitimating tactics, and pressure. Faeth (2004) compared the

use of Yukl's influence tactics among ordained and lay leaders in the Episcopal Church.

Regardless of formal or hierarchical position, Faeth found little difference in use of

tactics between the two groups. Collaboration, consultation, and rational persuasion were

used most frequently, followed by inspirational appeals, ingratiation, and legitimating

tactics. Conversely, in a cross-cultural study comparing American business managers and Chinese business managers with companies in both countries, Yukl and Fu (2000) found differing influence tactics based on nationality. Rational persuasion and exchange were more effective according to American managers while coalition tactics, upward appeals, and gifts were rated more effective by Chinese managers.

Rationale for the Study

"Leading organizations is no longer a solo act"

(Maxfield, Wells, Keane, & Klocko, 2008, p. 11).

Influence has been studied in doctoral dissertations in the fields of business, health, education, and the ministry. Barbuto, Jr. (1997) and Adeyemi (1999) studied influence tactics in business. Lewis (1993) and Martin (1996) studied influence tactics among nurses. Dimeo (1996) studied influence behaviors among adult students, and Faeth (2004) studied influence tactics used by leaders in the Episcopal Church. Because of the role influence plays in teacher leadership, it is necessary to understand leadership as a network of relationships with multidirectional social influences and more flexible role definitions (Helterbran, 2010; Murphy & Louis, 1999; Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Timperley, 2005; Scribner et al., 2007; Spillane et al., 2004). However, no study exists that examines influence tactics used among teachers when all teachers are expected to lead.

Understanding how leadership happens is essential to provide useful knowledge for school leaders (Spillane, 2006; Spillane, Camburn & Lewis, 2006). What is known about distributed leadership (Spillane, et al., 2006) and teacher leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004) is primarily through small-scale case studies. Few studies are large-scale,

quantitative research designs and there is limited research on the practice of school leadership, especially on informal leadership (Spillane et al., 2004). Principal leadership has been the primary focus of leadership in schools (Spillane, et al., 2006; Hallinger & Heck, 2010), and little is known regarding how teachers influence each other in school leadership (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). Brosky (2009) studied six influence tactics and political skills of 149 teachers in Michigan and found the political skills used most among teacher leaders in a formal leadership program were social astuteness, interpersonal influence, and apparent sincerity. Palmer (2008) examined the social networks in one high school to determine which factors supported or hindered individual's opportunities to be influential in that school. Continued research on teacher leadership and its incorporation into practice is needed (Mangin & Stoelinga, 2010). More research is needed to examine leadership through interactions among personnel within organizations (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Robinson, 2008; Scribner et al., 2007; Spillane, 2009) and leadership among all staff (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008) not only a few teacher leaders (Lindahl, 2008).

To understand leadership in the school context, it is necessary to examine interacting components of leaders, followers and the situation (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Robinson, 2008; Spillane, et al, 2004). Spillane (2006) stated it is necessary to examine leadership practice at the collective level and analyze how leadership is stretched over leaders. Since the degree of social influence flows multi-directionally throughout the organization (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Scribner et al., 2007), it is important to examine the interactions of individuals in both formal and informal roles (Harris & Spillane, 2008). Research that extends beyond focusing on designated leaders shows that teachers

also lead in schools (Spillane, 2006). Spillane, Camburn and Lewis (2006) studied the methodological and epistemological trade-offs of four approaches to study how leadership is distributed in schools. Findings differed when studying the school as designed, by formal leaders, versus studying the school as lived, including informal leaders. When studying the school as a lived organization, many informal leaders emerged, and the efforts of some formal leaders were less influential.

Historically, teachers have been viewed to have little influence outside of the classroom (Beachum & Dentith, 2004). Egalitarian norms within schools, that all teachers are equal, have hindered teachers from stepping into leadership roles (Murphy et al., 2009). Changing leadership practices in North Carolina require all teachers to demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008). Robinson (2008) stated, "A critical research agenda for researchers in distributed leadership involves the study of the conditions under which teachers, especially those without positional authority, succeed in influencing their colleagues in ways that benefit students" (p. 254). Setting this study apart from other studies on leadership in schools is that it focuses on all teachers as leaders. Although not all teachers lead in the same ways, in North Carolina, all teachers are expected to lead. As schools move toward organizations where leadership is distributed among all educators, it is useful to examine teacher leadership behaviors and how teachers use influence while leading within schools.

Overview of the Study

Because of changing professional standards for teachers and school executives in North Carolina, principals are expected to engage teachers in leadership roles (North

Carolina Standards for School Executives, 2006) and all teachers are required to demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008). As principals are expected to distribute leadership, and teachers assume greater leadership roles, the challenge for educators will be to redefine roles that have been historically hierarchical. In the 2010-2011 school year the NCSBOE, through its professional teaching standards, mandated that all teachers demonstrate leadership. No published study exists that examines proactive influence tactics used by teachers, and North Carolina provides a unique context because of its new teaching standards. Giving a voice to teachers while examining leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics among teachers in North Carolina will inform educators regarding the changing practice of leadership.

The purpose of this research was to examine teacher leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics practiced among teachers in North Carolina public schools. As multiple educators work together to lead public schools, an understanding of teacher leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics can help educators navigate through their interactions to improve teaching and learning. To focus exclusively on the how of teacher leadership, this study examined teachers' leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics when teachers are both leaders and followers. This study answered five important research questions:

1. What leadership behaviors do teachers enact in formal and informal situations?

2. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers perceive are used on them?

3. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers use?

4. What patterns of influence among teachers are associated with teacher leadership behaviors in formal and informal situations?

5. How does principal support influence teacher leadership?

This study used a correlational, cross-sectional research design. The population for this study consisted of employed classroom teachers in North Carolina public schools in the 2011-12 school year. A cluster random sampling approach was used to survey public school teachers throughout North Carolina. Data were collected through a survey questionnaire at the commercial website, Qualtrics. The survey consisted of a Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire designed by the researcher, the target version of Yukl's Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ-G), and the agent version of the IBQ-G. The questionnaires were combined into one survey for ease of administration.

Definitions

The following terms have specific meanings used within the context of this study. The definition of leadership is varied throughout research. For the purpose of this study, I have selected Yukl's (2010) definition of leadership.

Leadership – "The process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (Yukl, 2010, p. 8).

Distributed Leadership – A framework that views leadership practice "…as the product of the joint interactions of school leaders, followers, and aspects of their situation such as tools and routines" (Spillane, 2006, p. 3).

Power – "The capacity of one party (agent) to influence another party (target)" (Yukl, 2006, p. 146).

Influence tactic – "The type of behavior used intentionally to influence the attitudes and behavior of another person" (Yukl, 2006, p. 164).

Assumptions

This study makes the following assumptions:

1. Leadership is not limited to formal position.

2. Leadership is distributed among principals and teachers in North Carolina schools.

3. The concept of teacher leadership is a changing practice.

4. Teachers will answer survey questions honestly, and their collective answers will provide an accurate description of teacher leadership behaviors and behavioral influence tactics.

Delimitations

The following delimitations bound this study:

1. The concept of teacher leadership is multi-faceted. This study addresses teacher leadership through a blend of Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond's (2004) distributed leadership perspective, Yukl's (2006) proactive influence tactics, and teacher leadership behaviors.

2. The sample is limited to certified teachers employed in 2011-12 in North Carolina school districts, selected through cluster sampling methods.

3. This study only examines the behavioral influence tactics of teachers. Examining the influence tactics of all stakeholders is beyond the scope of this study.

4. School culture plays a role regarding the extent to which teachers are able to

lead and, therefore, influence others while leading. An examination of

participants' school cultures is beyond the scope of this study.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

"…the issue of how educators are treated within their own school walls needs to be

resolved if we are to have lasting, significant change in schools"

(Glickman, 1990, p. 69).

Purpose and Organization

The concept of teacher leadership is multi-faceted. This study addresses teacher leadership through a blend of Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond's (2004) distributed leadership perspective, Yukl's (2006) proactive influence tactics, and teacher leadership behaviors. When examining leadership in schools, the concepts and practices of distributed leadership, teacher leadership, and influence are distinct, yet overlapping.

This review of literature synthesizes peer-reviewed articles and research on distributed leadership, benefits of distributed leadership, and criticisms of distributed leadership. Teacher leadership is introduced. Formal and informal teacher leadership, barriers to teacher leadership, supporting the development of teacher leadership, and the role of principals in promoting teacher leadership are discussed. An explanation of teacher leadership in North Carolina, principal leadership in North Carolina, and the situation provide the setting for this study. Finally, research regarding how power and influence are used to affect leadership behaviors and analyzing proactive influence tactics in organizations is examined. This review of literature concludes with a description of the conceptual framework for this study: A blend of Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond's (2004) distributed leadership framework, Yukl's (2006) identification of 11 proactive influence tactics, and teacher leadership behaviors. This framework provides insight into how teachers lead in schools using proactive influence tactics through the interactions of

leaders, followers, and the situation when teachers are both leaders and followers.

Distributed Leadership

"Distributed leadership cultivates collective ownership of both successes and problems,

as well as responsibility for results" (Neuman & Simmons, 2000, p. 9).

Leadership is the product of interactions among leaders, followers, and the

situation. Distributed leadership is a framework in which leadership practice is stretched

over multiple leaders in the school (Spillane, 2006). As external demands on public

schools increase, schools are moving away from bureaucratic command and evolving

more into organizations with collaboration and distributed leadership perspectives

(Lambert, 2003; Owens & Valesky, 2007; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011; Spillane et al.,

2004). Learning and leading are mutually supported actions and leadership emerges as

adults learn together and engage in reflective dialogue in a learning community (Lambert,

2003).

The practice of distributed leadership requires formal leaders to involve other

competent staff members in leadership, regardless of position, so that stakeholders have a

voice in decision-making (Spillane et al., 2004). However, distributed leadership is more

than delegating additional responsibilities to teachers so that the administrative workload

is shared (Elmore, 1999). Distributed leadership fosters community, ownership,

engagement, more manageable workloads (Spillane, 2009), and shared accountability

(Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Maxcy & Thu Su'o'ng, 2006). Distributed leadership increases

school capacity (Hallinger & Heck, 2010) and influences student achievement (Louis &

Wahlstrom, 2011). For collaborative leadership to work, educators must trust each other,

be willing to collaborate, have common goals, and agree that the process is continuous

(Weingast, 1980). Leadership must be distributed through planned, intentional strategies (Mascall, Leithwood, Straus, & Sacks, 2008).

Leadership is an influence process (Spillane, 2006; Yukl, 2006) comprised of social interactions through "…networks of roles that comprise organizations" (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000, p. 53). In the distributed leadership framework developed by Spillane et al. (2004), leadership emerges through the interaction of leaders, followers, and the situation. This framework provides insight into how leaders accomplish tasks and into the interdependencies among multiple leaders regardless of formal position, followers, and the situation. Effective distributed leadership practice engenders reciprocal accountability among those acting as leaders (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Maxcy & Thu Su'o'ng, 2006) and followers within the context of a situation (Robinson, 2008; Spillane et al., 2004). Individuals in schools may be leaders or followers depending on the situation (Spillane, Camburn & Lewis, 2006).

Benefits of distributed leadership. There are many benefits of distributed leadership. Teachers are brought out of isolation (Johnson & Donaldson, 2007) and the end result is that the quality of leadership practice exceeds the sum of each individual's leadership ability (Spillane et al., 2004). Teacher leaders can provide leadership in areas in which they specialize (Camburn, Spillane & Sebastian, 2010). Teachers report being more committed to the school if they have influence in decision-making and when their knowledge and expertise is valued (Hulpia & Devos, 2010). Principals report they have more influence on instruction when teachers are engaged in decision-making because teachers and principals are working closer together and philosophies and decisions shared while collaborating transfer to the classroom (Printy, 2010). When teachers plan,

coordinate, and execute professional development in their schools, decisions affecting school reform are more successful (Margolis, 2008), more sustainable (Kellogg, 2006), and protected against personnel changes (Robinson, 2008). In addition, collective decision-making reduces the chance of error from a single leader with limited information (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008).

Perhaps the most important impact made by distributed leadership, however, is the positive effect on teaching and learning (Elmore, 1999) and student achievement (Barth, 2001; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). In a 4-year study of 198 elementary schools, Hallinger and Heck (2010) found a positive correlation between distributed leadership and school improvement. School improvement was positively related to growth in reading and math. Hallinger and Heck's findings "…provide empirical support for the premise that schools can improve learning outcomes regardless of their initial achievement levels by changing key organizational processes such as leadership and school improvement capacity" (p. 104).

In a 4-year study on distributed leadership and student achievement in New Zealand, Timperley (2005) found that distributed leadership affected student achievement, although student levels of success varied. Teachers' expectations of student achievement increased and different activities were developed to address student under-achievement. Similarly, Foster (2004) conducted a case study examining the relationship between leadership and school success. Foster found that competent administration and teacher leadership contributed to school success.

Skeptics of distributed leadership. Not all educational researchers advocate for distributed leadership in schools and some researchers cite concerns about the practice of

distributed leadership. One significant problem in understanding distributed leadership is that distributed leadership has many different definitions (Harris & Spillane, 2008; Robinson, 2008). Lakomski (2008) stated confusion in understanding distributed leadership because the concept is demonstrated in different behaviors, practices, and policies. Fitzgerald and Gunter (2008) contended that leadership tasks and responsibility, not power, are distributed in schools. Distributed leadership is a practice that impacts organizational reform decisions often made above the school level. By using terms such as teacher leadership, bureaucracies manipulate teachers to accept additional responsibilities without additional compensation. Furthermore, Fitzgerald and Gunter contested the role of teachers is to teach. Therefore, there is no need to change the language to include leadership in the professional expectations of teachers.

Gronn (2003) acknowledged the "obviousness" (p. 288) of distributed leadership: that all principals use distributed leadership to some extent to accomplish the myriad of tasks within a school, however, principals are still leading the organization. By extolling the concept of distributed leadership, Gronn (2008) noted there is a propensity to identify every initiative and responsibility of teachers and principals as leadership. Furthermore, Timperley (2005) warned, "Distributing leadership over more people is a risky business and may result in the greater distribution of incompetence" (p. 417). In a study on facilitating principals' support for instructional teacher leaders, Mangin (2007) found principals who are highly supportive of teacher leadership experienced greater success in their schools as they worked with instructional teacher leaders. However, since sustaining teacher leadership requires direct support from the principal, additional work may be added to the principal's responsibilities.

Finally, Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) argued that distributed leadership, although used to improve the status of teaching, might devalue the profession. Advocating that everyone is a leader diminishes the role and import of the concept of leadership. Teaching is an honorable profession in most cultures. To suggest that teachers must also be leaders implies the art and skill of teaching are not sufficient.

Teacher Leadership

"Teachers can find a wealth of opportunities to extend their influence beyond their own classrooms to their teaching teams, schools, and districts" (Danielson, 2007, p. 14).

The term "teacher leader" is defined in many ways through a combination of traits and actions. Traits of teacher leaders include being perceived as excellent teachers and being respected by their peers. Demonstrating knowledge of excellent instructional practices, understanding the school culture, and having skills to lead colleagues are traits of successful teacher leaders (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Danielson (2007) said, "Teacher leaders call others to action and energize them with the aim of improving teaching and learning" (p. 16).

In a study of teacher leadership in North Carolina, superintendents stated that teachers should be leaders outside of their classrooms, be influential among their colleagues, and be able to provide professional training for their peers (Jones, Smith, & Von Dohlen, 2010). Silva, Gimbert, and Nolan (2000) asserted, "…teacher leaders navigate the structures of schools, nurture relationships, model professional growth, help others with change, and challenge the status quo by raising children's voices" (p. 779). Many teachers desire to have a wider influence in their profession, although they do not aspire to be administrators (Danielson, 2007). Harris and Muijs (2003) said, "Teacher

leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, they identify with and contribute to a community of teachers and influence others toward improved educational practice" (p. 40).

As indicated by definitions of teacher leaders, teacher leadership is also defined in many ways. York-Barr and Duke (2004) defined teacher leadership as "…an umbrella term that includes a wide variety of work at multiple levels in educational systems, including work with students, colleagues, and administrators and work that is focused on instructional, professional, and organizational development" (p. 288). Teacher leadership is "…a fluid, interactive process with mutual influence between leader and follower" (Anderson, 2004, p. 100). Teacher leadership establishes the democratic ethos of reflective thinking and independent decision-making (Crippen, 2005).

Formal and informal teacher leadership. There are recognized formal positions of teacher leadership that are often identified by the principal (Patterson & Patterson, 2004) such as department chairs, lead teachers, mentors, instructional coaches (Dozier, 2007; Harris, 2003; Lambert, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999), members of curriculum committees (Patterson & Patterson, 2004), and union representatives (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Through these formal positions, teachers advocate for teachers' work (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000).

Teachers also lead informally (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006; Harris, 2003; Lambert, 2003). Teachers lead informally by bringing innovative ideas to the school, working on projects, sharing professional expertise (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999), volunteering for new projects (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000) working on curriculum, mentoring colleagues, encouraging parent and community involvement (York-Barr &

Duke, 2004), and influencing colleagues to improve educational practice by leading in learning communities (Halverson, 2003; Harris, 2003; Harris & Muijs, 2003; Lattimer, 2007; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). By actively planning their school's professional development plans, teachers not only lead, they enhance the chances of successful outcomes on school initiatives (Teachers Network Leadership Institute, 2005). Leonard and Leonard (1999) found teachers considered informal leadership to evoke change more than formal collaborative leadership.

Teachers demonstrate leadership as they set agendas, work toward shared goals, encourage creativity, and build strong relationships with other teachers and leaders (Printy, 2010); and as teachers work collaboratively, their educational practices improve (Printy, 2008). When schools function as learning communities, teachers develop strong, trusting relationships, which in turn, promote stronger teacher-student relationships (Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011).

Barriers to teacher leadership. Teacher leadership is hindered for a number of reasons. Teacher leader roles are often unclear (Johnson & Donaldson, 2007) and teachers are often asked to assume leadership roles on top of their instructional duties, without compensation or release time (Lindahl, 2008). In addition, although charged to lead, a barrier to teacher leadership is that teachers often lack (Lord & Miller, 2008; Sherrill, 1999) or perceive that they lack effective leadership skills to lead adults (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Teachers are seldom offered opportunities to develop leadership skills (Dozier, 2007). Dozier (2007) found of 179 teachers surveyed, 82% had not received professional training for the formal roles for which they have been charged. In a study of the role of superintendents in supporting teacher leadership in North

Carolina, Jones, Smith, and Von Dohlen (2010) asserted, "if NCDPI and administrators expect teachers to serve as leaders in their schools and beyond, they must provide training in the skill sets needed to achieve this" (p. 8). Teachers are often expected to already possess the necessary leadership skills, or to acquire these skills on the job (Lattimer, 2007; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009); however, leading colleagues is not the same as working with students (Danielson, 2007). In order for teachers to lead, leadership training is needed (Danielson, 2007; Dozier, 2007; Lattimer, 2007; Lindahl, 2008). As teachers take on additional responsibilities, training, recognition, and time should be offered to them (Teachers Network Leadership Institute, 2005).

Another barrier to teacher leadership is that when teachers begin to work collaboratively, tensions arise among colleagues, bringing differences of opinions and educational philosophies to the surface (Glickman, 1990). However, when members of learning communities understand their own philosophies and those of their colleagues, educators can better realize why individual teachers may disagree on teaching strategies and school policies. Acknowledging individuals' differences and commonalities leads to better understanding and improved working relationships (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Supporting the development of teacher leadership. The shift from developing teaching skills to developing leadership is a significant change from what teachers have historically experienced (Harris, 2003; Helterbran, 2010). Just as teachers have been trained to teach, now teacher leaders must be trained to lead (Dozier, 2007; Lord & Miller, 2000; Sherrill, 1999). In a study of 179 classroom teachers from 37 states that had received awards for excellence in the classroom, Dozier (2007) found teacher leaders want new leadership roles to expand to policymaking and teacher recruitment, and

teachers want more training so they can be more effective and engaged in policymaking. Teachers must improve their confidence in the workplace and recognize themselves as experts in their field, in order to act as leaders in their schools (Harris, 2003). As teachers grow as leaders, they are able to expand their influence beyond their classroom walls to affect teaching and learning within their schools (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, Phelps, 2008; Danielson, 2007).

Leadership can be cultivated from the beginning of teachers' careers (Hummel, 2009). In order to lead, teachers must understand themselves, their educational philosophies, and their strengths. Educational philosophies influence why teachers do what they do, and are the basis for decision making (Phelps, 2008). When teachers examine their beliefs, they are then able to analyze how congruent their actions are with those beliefs (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) and recognize that teaching and learning are joint endeavors (Hummel, 2009). Teachers sharing their educational belief systems through collaboration can encourage other teachers to understand and refine their own educational philosophies (Phelps, 2008). As teachers work to align their beliefs with their actions, the result is the development of strong leaders who have a greater ability to influence others (Hummel, 2009; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). When leadership is conceptualized as professional growth that emerges when educators are engaged in learning communities, all professionals in the organization can share the responsibility for leadership, success, and failure (Lambert, 2003; Spillane, 2009).

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) developed a model for teachers to become leaders by understanding one's own educational philosophies, assessing one's readiness to lead, and understanding the school's culture. Teachers can be trained as leaders

through university coursework and district-level professional staff development (Hickey & Harris, 2005). Following a similar developmental sequence as formal training might, mentoring by administrators and performing job-embedded leadership tasks also develop teachers as leaders (Taylor, Yates, Meyer & Kinsella, 2011; York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

The role of principals in promoting teacher leadership. Acknowledging that leadership stretches beyond that of the school principal does not limit the important role of the principal. Distributed leadership simply acknowledges the collective endeavor of leadership practice within schools (Spillane, 2006). The role of principals in supporting teacher leadership is essential (Dufour, 1995; Helterbran, 2010; Huffman & Jacobson, 2003; Hulpia & Devos, 2010; Lambert, 1998; Murphy et al., 2009; Spillane, 2009; Steel & Craig, 2006). For principals to foster distributed leadership and support teacher leadership, they must change the historically bureaucratic way they have interacted with teachers (Steel & Craig, 2006; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Principals must release authority (Lambert, 1998; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011), but distributed leadership does not negate the important role of the principal to provide leadership, it simply allows for other leaders to emerge in leadership situations and activities (Spillane, 2009).

The responsibility to actively engage teachers in leadership lies in the hands of principals (Dufour, 1995; Helterbran, 2010), and it is not sufficient for the principal to be a passive supporter of teacher leadership (Johnson & Donaldson, 2007). Crowther, Kaagen, Ferguson and Hann (2002) claimed, "Where we have seen teacher leadership begin to flourish, principals have actively supported it or, at least, encouraged it" (p. 33). Principals' support of teacher leaders influences other teachers' receptiveness to teacher leaders (Mangin, 2007) and helps teacher leaders to form professional relationships with

colleagues in order to facilitate teacher-to-teacher leadership (Johnson & Donaldson, 2007).

Bureaucratic leadership has been engrained into the culture of schools, and the failure or success of schools rests on the shoulders of the principal (Spillane, 2009). Principals sometimes resist distributed leadership (Harris, 2003; Lindahl, 2008); however, the demands on school administrators today are nearly impossible to meet (Beachum & Dentith, 2004; Danielson, 2007; Mangin, 2007; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Principals today are expected to be visionaries, instructional leaders, and managers. Principals must answer to boards of education, superintendents, teachers, parents, community stakeholders, and federal and state accountability requirements while trying to meet the needs of students (Beachum & Dentith, 2004; Danielson, 2007; Mangin, 2007). With the increasing complexities in education, no single individual possesses all of the knowledge or skills to lead a school without distributing leadership responsibilities (Hulpia & Devos, 2010).

Principals who practice distributed leadership have a greater opportunity to develop teachers as leaders in their school (Crowther et al., 2002; Huffman & Jacobson, 2003). Distributing leadership can share the burden of leading schools, but expecting principals to accept distributed leadership requires some principals to transform their styles of leadership (Murphy, et al., 2009), and to have confidence in their own leadership skills (Helterbran, 2010). Many principals support teacher leadership because they realize the necessity of teacher leadership in the improvement of teaching and learning (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006). However, some principals may lack skills regarding how to best support higher levels of teacher leadership (Lattimer, 2007; York-Barr &

Duke, 2004). The more knowledge principals have regarding the benefits of teacher

leadership, the more likely they are to support teacher leadership (Mangin, 2007).

Principals often make the assumption that since teachers lead students in the classroom,

they can also lead adults in the profession. However, there are exceptional teachers who

lack leadership skills outside of the classroom (Lord & Miller, 2000) and at times,

teachers seeking to lead beyond their classrooms are met by power struggles with

principals (Silva et al., 2000).

Principals support teacher leadership through providing time and space, as well as

providing financial, material, and emotional support through affirmation of teacher

leaders' work (Mangin, 2007). By distributing leadership, principals influence teacher

learning as they guide teachers' collaborative work and support teachers' efforts (Printy,

2008). It is important for principals to have confidence in teachers' professional

judgment, and recognize teachers' contributions (Hulpia & Devos, 2010; Steel & Craig,

2006). Principals must be aware of the relational nature within schools, reduce teacher

isolation, and trust teachers. Giving feedback other than criticism is essential for

establishing trusting relationships. Finally, to support teacher leadership, principals

should support teachers as learners and encourage leadership beyond the classroom

(Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011; Spillane et al., 2004; Steel & Craig, 2006).

Teacher Leadership in North Carolina

Educational organizations and schools have historically been hierarchical in

structure (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). However, now that all North Carolina teachers are

expected to demonstrate leadership, the practice of leadership in North Carolina public

schools is compelled to change. North Carolina is now calling on all of its teachers to

expand their skills to become leaders in the classroom, in the school, and in the

profession (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008).

With the adoption of new professional teaching standards in North Carolina,

teacher leadership is expected by all, not only by voluntary teacher leaders. Barth (2001)

asserted just as all students can learn, "…all teachers can lead. Indeed, if schools are

going to become places in which all students are learning, all teachers *must* lead" (p.

444). In congruence with this vision for leadership, The North Carolina State Board of

Education directed NCDPI to initiate a new vision for teaching. In 2010-2011, NCDPI

implemented a new, statewide teacher evaluation instrument to meet the demands for

education in the 21st century. The new standards for teacher leadership are defined in

Table 1. All North Carolina teachers must demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in

the school, in the profession, and advocate for schools and students. Descriptions for

each standard are presented. Teachers are rated by principals as developing, proficient,

accomplished, or distinguished on each of the leadership standards (North Carolina

Professional Teaching Standards, 2008).

Table 1

North Carolina Teacher Leadership Standards

Standard	Description
Teachers lead in their classrooms	Create a culture that empowers students to collaborate and become lifelong learners.
Teachers demonstrate leadership in the school	Work collaboratively with school personnel to create a professional learning community. Provide input in determining the school budget and in the selection of professional development that meets the needs of students and their own professional growth. Participate in the hiring process and collaborate with their colleagues to mentor and support teachers to improve the effectiveness of their departments or grade levels.
Teachers lead the teaching profession	Strive to improve the teaching profession. Contribute to the establishment of positive working conditions in their school. Actively participate in and advocate for decision-making structures in education and government that take advantage of the expertise of teachers. Promote professional growth for all educators and collaborate with their colleagues to improve the profession.

Note. Adapted from "*North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards,*" by North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2008.

Although the NCSBOE has mandated that all teachers demonstrate leadership, there are no specific statewide professional development initiatives to support teacher leadership or to help teachers to become leaders or strengthen leadership skills. Therefore, supporting or building teacher leadership is the responsibility of district level administrators and, primarily, principals. Murphy et al. (2009) stated it is administrators who set the stage for distributed leadership and teacher leadership to occur.

Principal Leadership in North Carolina

At a time when stakeholders are calling for reforms and school improvement, principals increasingly seek the knowledge, expertise, and leadership of teachers (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006; Hulpia & Devos, 2010). In North Carolina, it is not only

suggested that principals change their understanding of leadership, it is required; and standards for school executives are charging principals to create structures to support distributed leadership (North Carolina Standards for School Executives, 2006).

The philosophy of education for North Carolina Standards for School Executives (2006) clearly articulates expectations regarding the philosophy of school leadership that educators should hold. Excerpts related to leadership include:

- Leadership is not a position or a person. It is a practice that must be embedded in all job roles at all levels of the school district.

- The work of leadership is about working with, for and through people. It is a social act…people are always the medium for the leader.

- Leadership is not about doing everything oneself but it is always about creating processes and systems that will cause everything to happen.

- The concept of leadership is extremely complex and systemic in nature. Isolating the parts of leadership completely misses the power of the whole.

- Leadership is about setting direction, aligning and motivating people to implement positive sustained improvement (p. 1).

Each of the seven standards for North Carolina School Executives makes some reference to distributed leadership and a more democratic ethos of leadership in schools (North Carolina Standards for School Executives, 2006). Table 2 identifies some of the elements within the standards that indicate North Carolina expects its public school administrators to move beyond a hierarchical structure and involve teachers and other stakeholders in leading North Carolina public schools.

Table 2

North Carolina Principal Leadership Standards Related to Distributed Leadership

Standard	Description
Strategic Leadership	Creates processes to distribute leadership throughout the school.
Instructional Leadership	Creates an environment of practiced distributive leadership and teacher empowerment. Creates processes and schedules that facilitate the collaborative team design, sharing, and evaluation.
Cultural Leadership	Creates a collaborative work environment predicated on site-based management that supports the "team" as the basic unit of learning and decision-making within the school and promotes cohesion and cooperation among staff. Emphasizes a sense of community. Empowers staff to recommend creative 21st century concepts for school improvement.
Human Resource Leadership	Creates processes for teaches to assume leadership and decision making roles within the school that foster their career development.
Managerial Leadership	Creates processes to identify and solve, resolve, dissolve, or absolve school-based problems/conflicts in a fair, democratic way Designs scheduling processes and protocols that maximize staff input.
External Development Leadership	Creates systems that engage all community stakeholders in a shared responsibility for student and school success.
Micropolitical Leadership	Creates an environment and mechanisms to ensure all internal stakeholder voices are heard and respected and encourages people to express opinions contrary to those of authority.

Note. Adapted from "*North Carolina Standards for School Executives,*" by North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2006.

Distributed leadership promotes reciprocal accountability among those acting as leaders (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Maxcy & Thu Su'o'ng, 2006). An end result of distributed leadership can be that the quality of leadership practice exceeds the sum of each individual's leadership ability (Spillane et al., 2004). By examining the situation in

the execution of leadership tasks, the purpose of leadership is acknowledged (Robinson, 2008; Spillane et al., 2004).

The Situation

The school setting is an essential component of distributed leadership (Hallinger & Heck, 2011; Lambert, 2003; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011) and the context of the school cannot be separated from leadership (Spillane et al., 2004). School and classroom conditions mediate the influence of school leadership. The school setting influences leadership practices (York-Barr & Duke, 2004) as leaders work within schools to influence others (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000), and principals support distributed leadership (Spillane, 2009). Distributed leadership combines the efforts of many individuals in which the sum is greater than the parts and the relationship between the individual and social structure is inherent (Woods & Gronn, 2009).

Empirical research supports the concept that leadership and school situation cannot be separated. In a review of research from 1980-1995 exploring the relationship between principal leadership and student achievement, Hallinger and Heck (1998) identified four school conditions that leadership influences: purposes and goals, school structure and social networks, people, and organizational culture. In a study exploring the effects of principal and teacher leadership on student engagement with school, Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) identified five school conditions that are mediating variables among leadership and influence: purposes and goals, school planning, organizational culture, structure and organization, and information collection and decision making.

Purposes and goals are school conditions that comprise school stakeholders' understanding of the direction of the school. School planning entails the process of creating the mission and goals of a school and deciding what actions need to be taken to accomplish these goals (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). The generation of ideas, actions taken, and reflection on success or failure is a collective endeavor based on the understanding, beliefs, and commitment of the group (Harris, 2003; Spillane, 2009).

Organizational culture consists of the mutually shared norms, beliefs, values, and assumptions that shape decision-making, actions, and practices within a school (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Cultural norms are expressions of virtues that are used to educate (Von Dohlen, 1997). Teachers play a significant role in shaping the school culture as they use common values and beliefs to work toward common goals (Huffman & Jacobson, 2003; Jerald, 2006). Teachers are embedded in the context of the school and they have the ability to shape the school culture overtime (Lindahl, 2008).

Structure and organization refers to the relationships among school stakeholders (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Schools are constantly changing human organizations, consisting of an interdependent web of relationships (Rettig, 2004). Information collection and decision making involves the quality of information used to make decisions in the school, how information is used, and the extent that members within the school are included in making decisions (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000).

One way to sustain collaborative information collection and school-wide decision-making is to institutionalize distributed leadership (Lambert, 1998) through the development of professional learning communities (PLCs; Halverson, 2003; Harris, 2003; Lattimer, 2007; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). Schools that sustain PLCs foster

leadership (Halverson, 2003). A doctoral study by Palmer (2008) examined the social networks in one high school to determine which factors supported or hindered individuals' opportunities to be influential in that school. Findings in Palmer's study indicated the development of PLCs best facilitate opportunities for increased teacher leadership. Through dialogue, reflection, and inquiry, professional learning occurs, teachers are brought out of professional isolation, and the school situation improves (Danielson, 2007; Halverson, 2003; Lambert, 2003; Phelps, 2008; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). Opportunities emerge for teachers to lead formally and informally (Printy, 2008) to influence school initiatives (Halverson, 2003) because through PLCs teachers work, learn, and act collaboratively to ensure school improvement and student achievement (Buffum & Hinman, 2006; Bullough Jr., 2007; Harris, 2003; Huffman & Jacobson, 2003; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011).

Power and Influence

"Influence seems to be an infinite resource in schools. The more those in formal

leadership roles give it away, the more they acquire"

(Leithwood & Mascall, 2008, p. 529).

The terms power and influence are often used interchangeably when examining leadership in organizations. Power and influence are overlapping yet distinct concepts. The following section disentangles power and influence. French and Raven's power taxonomy (1959) is discussed, followed by an analysis of power in organizations. Then, an analysis of research in influence in organizations leads to an explanation of this study's use of Yukl's (2006) 11 proactive influence tactics.

Power is part of leadership because "power is the capacity or potential to influence" (Northouse, 1997, p. 6). Leadership is comprised of more than a person's actions (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000); it entails influencing others through social interaction (Harris, 2003; Owens & Valesky, 2007) and it is highly contextualized (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Spillane et al., 2004). Yukl (2006) defined power as "…the absolute capacity of an individual agent to influence the behavior or attitudes of one or more designated target persons at a given point in time" (p. 146). Power and influence within a school system affects the culture, initiatives, and direction of the school system (Owens & Valesky, 2007). French and Raven (1959) identified five categories of social power: reward, coercive, legitimate, expert and referent. Table 3 defines these types of power that continue to guide research on power and influence in organizations more than 60 years later.

Table 3

French and Raven Power Taxonomy

Type of Power	Definition
Reward	The target person complies in order to obtain rewards controlled by the agent.
Coercive	The target person complies in order to avoid punishments controlled by the agent.
Legitimate	The target person complies because he/she believes the agent has the right to make the request and the target person has the obligation to comply.
Expert	The target person complies because he/she believes that the agent has special knowledge about the best way to do something.
Referent	The target person complies because he/she admires or identifies with the agent and wants the agent's approval.

Note. Quoted from "Power and Influence" by G. Yukl, 2006, *Leadership in Organizations*, p. 148, Copyright 2006 by Pearson Prentice Hall.

Analyzing power in organizations. French and Raven's (1959) five social bases of power can be applied in any organization where interactions between people occur. Power and influence have been studied in business, schools, hospitals, prisons, and families (Tauber, 1985b). Each of French and Raven's types of power can be classified as personal power or position power (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). Power is derived from one's formal position in an organization, or by one's relationships with others in the organization (Yukl, 2006). Personal power consists of persuasiveness and charisma and is derived from "…task expertise, and potential influence based on friendship and loyalty" (Yukl & Falbe, 1991, p. 149). Position power consists of influence originating from "…legitimate authority, control over resources and rewards, control over punishments, control over information, and control over the physical work environment" (Yukl & Falbe, 1991, p. 149). Sometimes these two types of power are used

simultaneously, making it difficult to distinguish between them (Yukl, 2006). Personal power is more influential than position power regardless of lateral or downward relations within a hierarchy (Yukl & Falbe, 1991).

Successful leaders utilize components of each type of power to move an organization forward. How and when to use each type of power, or combinations of types of power, is part of the art and skill of leadership (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Northouse (1997) explained there are two main types of power within organizations: position and personal power. Position power refers to rank within an organizational hierarchy. For example, principals have more position power than teachers. Personal power is related to respect that followers have for a leader. A leader may be a good role model, act in ways that are important to the followers, or be considered to be highly competent (Northouse, 1997).

In the school setting, how principals are perceived to exercise power over teachers influences how teachers exercise power over students (Tauber, 1985a). Tauber (1985a, 1985b) examined teachers' use of power in the classroom. Teachers, like managers, use each of French and Raven's power bases to manage their classrooms (Tauber, 1985b). Teachers do not get their power from only one source (Tauber, 1985b), and teachers have the obligation to use each of the power sources effectively (Tauber, 1985a).

Teachers do not hold position power over each other. Therefore, teachers use personal power to influence others when leading. Within teacher leadership, two types of personal power, referent and expert, are most often utilized to influence colleagues (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Since teachers do not hold legitimate authority over colleagues, influence to lead comes from the respect and perceived expertise they hold

(Danielson, 2007). Referent power is employed when the target person wants acceptance or approval from the agent. The target person may identify with or admire the agent and imitate the agent's behaviors and attitudes. Therefore, teachers with strong interpersonal skills or likeable personalities may be more likely to be strong leaders within schools. Expert power is in action when the target person conforms or agrees because he or she believes the agent has special knowledge about a subject or how to perform a task. To utilize expert knowledge, the target person must perceive the agent to have expertise. In fact, perceived expertise is more influential than real expertise (Yukl, 2006).

Analyzing influence in organizations. Although power and influence are not synonymous, the use of power means to exercise influence (Tauber, 1985b). This section examines studies of influence that were built on French and Raven's (1959) five bases of power, leading to Yukl's (2006) 11 proactive influence tactics used in this study.

In 1980, Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson developed the Profiles of Organizational Influence Strategies (POIS). The POIS tested interpersonal influence in organizations. There were eight identified influence tactics: assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality, sanctions, exchange of benefits, upward appeal, blocking, and coalitions (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980).

A decade later, Schriesheim and Hinkin (1990) examined Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson's (1980) influence subscales by conducting four studies. Schriesheim and Hinkin's research refined the original 58-item survey to 27, 21, and 18 item surveys. Findings indicated a reduction in survey items increased content validity. Findings also indicated a need for future research regarding how employees influence their peers.

Yukl and Falbe (1990) sought to replicate Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson's (1980) findings through different methodology and to extend research by including additional types of influence that were not included in the 1980 landmark study. In 1990, Yukl and Falbe created the Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ). Yukl and Falbe included "…six of the eight scales in the Kipnis et al. study: assertiveness, rationality, ingratiation, exchange, upward appeals, and coalitions" (p. 132). Sanctions and blocking were removed because of infrequent use and two new influence tactics were added: inspirational appeals and consultation. Through additional research and factor analyses, nine proactive influence tactics used to influence colleagues were identified. The IBQ was revised again and currently includes the 11 influence tactics shown in Table 4 (Yukl, 2006; Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008).

Table 4

Yukl's Proactive Influence Tactics and Examples

Influence Tactic	Definition	Example
Rational Persuasion	The agent uses logical arguments and factual evidence to show a proposal or request is feasible and relevant for attaining important task objectives.	Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.
Apprising	The agent explains how carrying out a request or supporting a proposal will benefit the target personally or help advance the target person's career.	Describes benefits you could gain from doing a task or activity (e.g., learn new skills, meet important people, enhance your reputation).
Inspirational Appeals	The agent makes an appeal to values and ideals or seeks to arouse the target person's emotions to gain commitment for a request or proposal.	Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.
Consultation	The agent encourages the target to suggest improvements in a proposal or to help plan an activity or change for which the target person's support and assistance are desired.	Asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.
Collaboration	The agent offers to provide relevant resources and assistance if the target will carry out a request or approve a proposed change.	Offers to show you how to do a task that he/she wants you to carry out.
Ingratiation	The agent uses praise and flattery before or during an influence attempt, or expresses confidence in the target's ability to carry out a difficult request.	Says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants you to carry out.
Personal Appeals	The agent asks the target to carry out a request or support a proposal out of friendship, or asks for a personal favor before saying what it is.	Asks you as a friend to do a favor for him/her.
Exchange	The agent offers an incentive, suggests an exchange of favors, or indicates willingness to reciprocate at a later time if the target will do what the agent requests.	Offers to do something for you in the future in return for your help now.
Coalition Tactics	The agent seeks the aid of others to persuade the target to do something, or	Mentions the names of other people who endorse

Influence Tactic	Definition	Example
	uses the support of others as a reason for the target to agree.	a proposal when asking you to support it.
Legitimating Tactics	The agent seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request or to verify the authority to make it by referring to rules, policies, contracts, or precedent.	Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.
Pressure	The agent uses demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence the target to carry out a request.	Repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.

Note. Adapted from "Power and Influence" by G. Yukl, 2006, *Leadership in Organizations*, 166-169, Copyright 2006 by Pearson Prentice Hall.

Schriesheim and Hinkin indicated studies using Yukl and Falbe's (1990) influence scales are potentially beneficial to extend and refine Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkerson's research regarding influence in organizations (Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990). Since 1992, these 11 proactive influence tactics have been used and revised to research influence in organizations. There are two versions of the IBQ that are used most frequently, the IBQ-R and the IBQ-G. Each of these questionnaires has a target and an agent version. The IBQ-R is used for longitudinal studies to compare respondent ratings overtime. The IBQ-G is used to examine proactive influence tactics at one point in time (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008).

Influence in organizations has been examined by means other than the IBQ as well. In a four-year longitudinal study on instructional leadership and interviews with 84 teachers in eight elementary schools, Spillane, Hallett, and Diamond (2003) found that teachers constructed other teachers as influential leaders based on human, cultural, social, and economic capital. Human capital refers to one's skills, knowledge, and expertise in a certain area. Cultural capital refers to one's way of being or interactive style. Social capital refers to trust, connections, and relationships. Economic capital refers to access to

materials and resources. Of these four types of capital, 45.2% of teachers constructed other teachers as influential based on human capital. 59.5% of participants constructed other teachers as influential based on cultural capital. 50.0% of teachers constructed other teachers as influential based on social capital. Only 27.4% perceived other teachers to be influential based on economic capital. It is through daily interactions that leadership is constructed. When teachers perceive colleagues to hold valued capital, leaders and influence are created.

Since leadership occurs through interaction, influence is multi-directional and reciprocal (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000). Educators within a school with different knowledge and skill sets may utilize power and influence to address different tasks (Owens & Valesky, 2007) and leaders emerge from focusing professional interactions on specific tasks or goals (Spillane, 2009). Who leads is dependent upon the situation, task, or activity (Spillane, 2009); and school situation, leaders and followers interact to affect student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2010).

By viewing leadership through influence and networks of relationships, regardless of position, the concept of leadership expands to the many resources available to all members of the organization, and those resources can be used to influence others to move the organization forward (Lambert, 2003; Spillane et al., 2004). As teachers grow as professionals, they are able to expand their influence beyond their classroom walls to affect teaching and learning within their schools (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, Phelps, 2008; Danielson, 2007). Unless teachers share their knowledge with other educators, they are not utilizing the influence embedded within their role as a teacher (Ackerman & Mackenzie, 2006).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study (Figure 1) is a blend of Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond's (2004) theory of distributed leadership, Yukl's (2006) identification of 11 proactive influence tactics, teacher leadership behaviors (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008), and professional standards for principals (North Carolina Standards for School Executives, 2006). This framework provides insight into how teachers lead in schools using proactive influence tactics through the interactions of leaders, followers, and the situation when teachers are both leaders and followers. The following section examines research that supports the conceptual framework. The situation frames who leads and who follows. As leaders and followers, teachers influence each other using different proactive influence tactics, and principal support for teacher leadership impacts how leadership happens in schools.

In the distributed leadership framework developed by Spillane et al. (2004), leadership emerges through the interaction of leaders, followers, and the situation. Teachers construct colleagues as influential leaders based on human, social, and cultural capital (Spillane et al., 2003). Leadership practice is the product of interactions among leaders, followers, and the situation stretched over multiple leaders in the school, regardless of formal position (Spillane, 2006). Effective distributed leadership practice engenders reciprocal accountability among those acting as leaders (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Maxcy & Thu Su'o'ng, 2006) and followers within the context of a situation (Robinson, 2008; Spillane et al., 2004).

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework for the Study
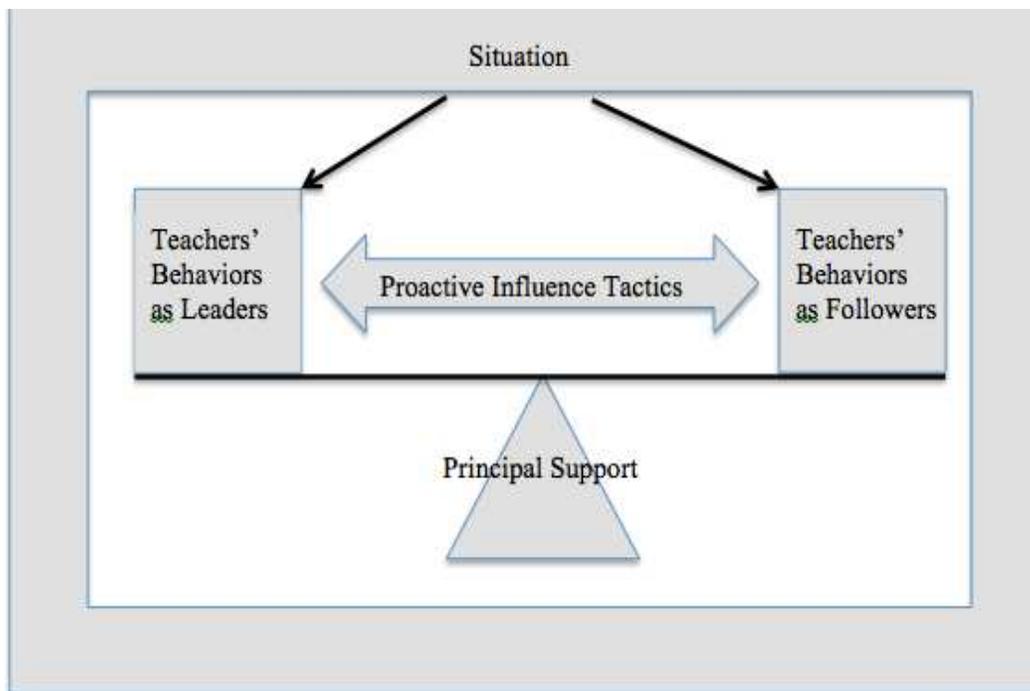
Figure 1. Conceptual Framework for the Study. Adapted from Spillane, J.P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J.B. (2004). Towards a theory of leadership: a distributed perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies 36*(1), p. 11. Also adapted from "Power and Influence" by G. Yukl, 2006, *Leadership in Organizations*, p. 166-169, Copyright 2006 by Pearson Prentice Hall. Teacher Leadership Behaviors are taken from the *North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards* (2008). Principal Support is taken from the *North Carolina Standards for School Executives* (2006).

Building on Spillane et al.'s (2004) distributed leadership framework and Spillane et al.'s (2003) construct of teacher influence via human, social, economic, and cultural capital, this study examines Yukl's (2006) 11 proactive influence tactics: rational persuasion, apprising, inspirational appeals, consultation, collaboration, ingratiation, personal appeals, exchange, coalition tactics, legitimating tactics, and pressure. Leadership occurs through interaction and influence is multi-directional and reciprocal

(Ogawa & Bossert, 2000). Teacher leadership is "…a fluid, interactive process with mutual influence between leader and follower" (Anderson, 2004, p. 100). Since teachers do not hold legitimate authority over colleagues, influence to lead comes from these proactive influence tactics. Different teachers will demonstrate leadership and employ differing sources of power and influence tactics depending on the situation.

The third part of the conceptual framework for this study examines teachers' leadership behaviors. New professional standards in North Carolina require teachers to demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008). Teachers lead in formal ways (Lambert, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999), and in informal ways (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; York-Barr & Duke, 2004) in each of these settings. Who leads is dependent upon the situation, task, or activity (Spillane, 2009). Educators within a school with different knowledge and skill sets may use influence to address different tasks (Owens & Valesky, 2007) and leaders emerge from focusing professional interactions on specific tasks or goals (Spillane, 2009).

Finally, principals create and support the conditions in which teachers can demonstrate leadership behaviors and use influence tactics. Principals who practice distributed leadership have a greater opportunity to develop teachers as leaders in their school (Crowther et al., 2002; Huffman & Jacobson, 2003). Therefore, principals play an essential role in supporting teacher leadership (Dufour, 1995; Helterbran, 2010; Huffman & Jacobson, 2003; Hulpia & Devos, 2010; Lambert, 1998; Murphy et al., 2009; Spillane, 2009; Steel & Craig, 2006). In fact, the responsibility to actively engage teachers in leadership lies in the hands of principals (Dufour, 1995; Helterbran, 2010). Principals are

expected to utilize distributed leadership and engage teachers in leadership roles. In

North Carolina, standards for school executives charge principals to create structures to

support distributed leadership (North Carolina Standards for School Executives, 2006).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter will describe the purpose and research questions for this study. Research design including participants and sampling, survey instrument, pilot testing, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures will be described.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this research was to examine teacher leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics used among teachers in North Carolina public schools. As multiple educators work together to lead public schools, an understanding of teacher leadership behaviors and teacher behavioral influence tactics can help educators navigate through their interactions to improve teaching and learning. An important goal of this study was to explore essential constructs within teacher leadership at a time when North Carolina public schools are required to move to more democratic structures. This study answered five research questions:

1. What leadership behaviors do teachers enact in formal and informal situations?

2. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers perceive are used on them?

3. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers use?

4. What patterns of influence among teachers are associated with teacher leadership behaviors in formal and informal situations?

5. How does principal support influence teacher leadership?

Research Design

This study used a correlational, cross-sectional research design. Correlational research is used to examine relationships between two or more variables, analyze a single group at one point in time, and interpret or draw conclusions from the statistical test results (Creswell, 2005). This study makes the assumption that teacher leadership is changing. Although standards set by the North Carolina State Board of Education mandate that teachers demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession, very little is known at this time about teacher leadership behaviors and even less is known about teacher proactive influence tactics. Collecting descriptive data through a correlational design allowed for an analysis of the relationship between teacher leadership behaviors and teacher proactive influence tactics at the present time.

Participants and Sampling

The population for this study consisted of employed classroom teachers in North Carolina public schools in the 2011-12 school year. Teachers working in non-administrative yet supervisory or leadership roles such as instructional or literacy coaches were not included in the sample. Similarly, other certified educators such as school counselors, media coordinators, and school social workers were not included in the sample. Currently, educators in the aforementioned roles are not evaluated using the same criteria as classroom teachers, and the inclusion of all non-administrative educators was beyond the scope of this study.

A cluster random sampling approach was used to survey public school teachers throughout North Carolina. Cluster sampling is used when the population is "extremely large" (Creswell, 2005, pp. 148-149). NCDPI reported a total of 99,098 classroom

teachers in North Carolina public schools in the 2008-09 school year, which is the most recent year for which data are available (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2011).

North Carolina has 115 public school districts that are divided into eight NCSBOE regions. To ensure representation from across North Carolina, and to access the greatest possible number of participants, the school district from each region with the largest number of classroom teachers was purposefully selected to participate in this study (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2011). This sampling method allowed me to select the school district from each region with the largest population of classroom teachers, and have participant representation throughout North Carolina. School districts were assured that no identifying individual, school, or school district information would be provided in this study.

The North Carolina Public Schools Statistical Profile (2009) was used to identify school districts by region. Then, the Experience Status of School-based Instructional Personnel (2011) was used to estimate the number of classroom teachers in each school district. The superintendent in each of the eight school districts with the largest number of classroom teachers was contacted by email to explain the study. Superintendents were asked to approve of their teachers participating in the study, and were asked to provide email addresses of all certified teachers in their districts (Appendix A). I followed each school district's research approval process. Superintendents granted approval to contact teachers for participation via email or by an approval letter generated by them.

If no response was received from superintendents, reminder emails were sent. When any of the eight superintendents did not respond after being contacted two times,

or if superintendents declined to have their teachers participate, the school district within

the region with the next largest number of classroom teachers was contacted via email.

Phone calls were also made to some school districts to encourage participation. This

process continued until one school district from seven regions agreed to participate in the

study. In the remaining region, every school district was contacted by email or phone

and asked to participate. None of the superintendents in the remaining region agreed to

participate, or superintendents did not respond to my requests. The rationales for

reluctance to participate cited by some superintendents were that teachers were

overwhelmed with job responsibilities and mandated professional development, the fact

that the request came just prior to statewide testing, and that the school district had

already participated in other educational research recently.

Participating regions included school districts whose student enrollment ranged

from 3,000 to over 50,000. Over 200 schools in urban, suburban, and rural settings were

represented. Since all teachers in North Carolina are required to demonstrate leadership,

all classroom teachers from selected school districts were invited to participate in this

study. The sampling frame consisted of current classroom teachers in North Carolina.

The original projected sample size was Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommended

sample size of 384 for a population of 100,000. The actual sample size was 493

respondents. See chapter four for more information about the sample.

Survey Instrument

The survey consisted of a Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire designed

by me, the target version of Yukl's Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ-G), and the

agent version of the IBQ-G. The questionnaires were combined into one survey for ease

of administration (Appendix B) and each section used a five-point Likert scale with varied anchor descriptors.

Teacher leadership behavior questionnaire. The Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire included five demographic questions regarding teachers' age, gender, years of experience, and level of school (elementary, middle or high), and school setting (urban, suburban, or rural). Twenty-two survey items were related to leadership behaviors found in the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards (North Professional Teaching Standards, 2008) and derived from reviewed literature. Items derived from the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards include those addressing professional learning communities, collaboration, school improvement plans, positive work relations, and professional growth opportunities. Survey items related to teacher leadership behaviors from reviewed literature include influencing colleagues, bringing innovative ideas to the school, sharing professional expertise with colleagues, encouraging parent and community involvement, and reflecting on one's teaching practice. This part of the survey instrument used a 5-point Likert scale and the following labels: never, very seldom, occasionally, moderately often, and very often. A low likelihood of socially desirable responses was anticipated due to anonymity of all responses.

In addition, the evaluation instrument used for the professional teaching standards is a growth model, not a proficiency model. For two years, North Carolina teachers have used this assessment tool to conduct self-assessments as well as conference with peers and principals regarding their ratings on this instrument. In addition, two survey items were related to principal leadership behaviors. These two survey items used a 5-point

Likert scale to rate respondents' perceptions of whether their principals give teachers

opportunities to lead and whether their principals organize the school to maximize

opportunities for teacher collaboration. Responses to these survey items were used to

answer research question five: How does principal support influence teacher leadership?

      The Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire was developed by me and had

not been used or tested prior to this study. An expert panel of 9 North Carolina principals

classified each of the 22 leadership behaviors on the Teacher Leadership Behavior

Questionnaire part of the instrument to provide validity evidence. Survey items were

categorized using a 3 by 2 matrix, identifying survey items as leadership in the

classroom, in the school, or in the profession; and leading in formal or informal

situations. Coders individually categorized each item according to the scales on the 3 by

2 matrix. Coders indicated if an item fit more than one scale equally well or if an item

did not fit any of the scales well. Items were retained only if 75% of the coders classified

them in the same way and if items were not cross-classified onto 2 scales. One item was

deleted because it did not fit the criterion.

      Based on the sample, a Cronbach's alpha of internal consistency reliability of the

6-item measure of informal leadership in the classroom was .694. Seven items measured

informal leadership in the school ($\alpha = .596$). Four items measured formal leadership in

the school ($\alpha = .600$), and three items measured formal leadership in the profession (α

$= .652$). One item measured formal classroom leadership and one item measured

informal leadership in the profession. A letter to expert panel members and an expert

panel feedback form are found in Appendix C. Survey items for each of the six scales are

found in Table 5.

Table 5

Items in the Teacher Leadership Behavior Scales

Situation	In the Classroom	In the School	In the Profession
Formal	I create lessons that require students to collaborate.	I participate in developing the school improvement plan.	I serve on a curriculum committee in my district.
		I lead in professional learning community.	I participate in developing policies and practices to improve student learning at the state level.
		I am a formally designated mentor to a new teacher.	I seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in my school district, region, or state.
		I seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in my school.	
Informal	I create a classroom culture that empowers students to collaborate.	I collaborate with colleagues to improve the quality of learning in the school.	I promote positive working relationships through professional collaboration within my school district.
	I evaluate student progress using a variety of assessment data.	I participate in professional learning community.	
	I create and maintain a safe and supportive classroom environment.	I volunteer to work on new projects and initiatives in my school.	
	I analyze student data to guide my instruction.	I lead an extracurricular activity.	
	I can provide evidence of student learning in my classroom.	I informally mentor new teachers.	

Situation	In the Classroom	In the School	In the Profession
	I reflect on my teaching practice.	I actively encourage parent involvement.	
		I actively encourage community involvement.	

Influence behavior questionnaire (IBQ). Since 1992, the IBQ has been used and revised to research proactive influence tactics in organizations. There are two versions of the IBQ that are used most frequently, the IBQ-R and the IBQ-G. Each of these questionnaires has a target and an agent version. The IBQ-R is used for longitudinal studies to compare respondent ratings overtime. The IBQ-G is used to examine proactive influence tactics at one point in time. Therefore, this study used the IBQ-G.

Academic research using the IBQ abounds. Yukl and Falbe (1990) and (1991); Yukl and Tracey (1992); Yukl, Kim, and Falbe (1996); Yukl, Seifert, and Chavez (2008); and Seifert and Yukl (2010) are some of the many published, peer-reviewed studies using, analyzing, and revising the IBQ. Early versions of the IBQ have been used in doctoral dissertations in the fields of business, health, education, and the ministry. Barbuto Jr., Fritz, Matkin and Marx (2007) used the IBQ to study the use of influence tactics based on gender, age, and education. Barbuto Jr. (1998) and Adeyemi (1999) used the IBQ to study influence tactics in business. Lewis (1993) and Martin (1996) used the IBQ to study influence tactics among nurses. Dimeo (1996) studied influence behaviors among adult students, and Faeth (2004) studied influence tactics used by leaders in the Episcopal Church.

The target and agent versions of the IBQ-G are parallel with the exception of minor wording changes. The IBQ-G consists of 44 items that analyze 11 influence

tactics that targets indicate have been used on them by peers. The 11 influence tactics are: rational persuasion, apprising, inspirational appeals, consultation, collaboration, ingratiation, personal appeal, exchange, coalition tactics, legitimating tactics, and pressure. The agent version of the IBQ-G analyzes the same 11 influence tactics, but asks the respondent to indicate which influence tactics they use on peers (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). In this study, in the target version, respondents were asked to think of proactive influence tactics one effective teacher leader has used on them in the past year. In the agent version, respondents were asked to report proactive influence tactics they have used in the past year, but these influence tactics were not directed at one single individual.

The target version of the IBQ-G version has undergone the most analyses and validation evidence is based on the dyadic version with a single agent (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008). Therefore, respondents in this study were asked to respond with one specific teacher leader in mind. The agent version of the IBQ-G has been used to provide feedback to managers, comparing how they perceive their influence behaviors with how their behaviors are perceived by others. Because of self-reporting, validation evidence from the target version of the IBQ-G cannot be transferred to the agent version of the IBQ-G (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008). Use of the agent version of the IBQ-G in this study did not provide individual feedback to respondents and all responses were anonymous. Therefore, there was a low likelihood of respondents answering with socially desirable responses.

Yukl, Seifert, and Chavez (2008) tested the validity and reliability of the 11 influence tactics in the IBQ-G. Each tactic scale has four items derived from findings in descriptive research. Each item has five response choices indicating how often the

proactive influence tactic is used: I can't remember him/her ever using this tactic with me, he/she very seldom uses this tactic with me (only once or twice a year), he/she occasionally uses this tactic with me (several times a year), he/she uses this tactic moderately often with me (every few weeks), he/she uses this tactic very often with me (almost every week or more). Scale scores for each tactic are the means of the item scores. Possible means range from 1 to 5. The authors used four different studies with different samples. Sample one consisted of 259 target subordinates and 229 target peers from four financial service companies. Sample 2 consisted of 70 evening Masters in Business Administration (MBA) students in a northeastern university with full-time jobs rated their immediate supervisors. Sample 3 included 71 subordinates and 75 peers rated the influence tactics of 26 middle managers in a grocery chain, and sample 4 included 45 subordinates and 65 peers rated the influence tactics of 9 middle managers in a manufacturing company in the northeastern United States. In Sample 2 the alpha values all exceeded .80. In Sample 3, all alpha values exceeded .80 except for coalition tactics that had an alpha value below .70. In Sample 4, 77% of the alpha values exceeded .80 and no alpha was less than .70. A confirmatory factor analysis showed a strong Goodness of Fit Index (GFI = .90). The Comparative Fit Index compared the data to a null model with no relationships among variables (CFI = .94). Yukl et al. found the questionnaire to measure influence tactics within an acceptable degree of accuracy when targets are subordinates or peers.

The agent version of the IBQ is parallel to the target version with a few minor wording changes (Yukl et al., 2008), and it has been used with managers to compare their perception of their influence tactics with the perceptions of their subordinates or peers.

Yukl and Falbe (1990) used the agent version of the IBQ with a sample of 197 evening

MBA students who were employed full-time. This version of the IBQ consisted of eight

influence tactics. Respondents were asked to rate their own influence attempts.

Consultation, personal, and legitimating tactics were added in later revisions of the IBQ.

Scale reliabilities computed using Cronbach's alpha for these eight influence tactics

ranged from .61 to .79. Scale reliabilities were similar to those found in the Kipnis et al.

(1980) study.

 Validation research on the IBQ-G is based on the use of all 44 items. Yukl,

Seifert and Chavez (2008) stated when researching proactive influence tactics in

organizations, it is important to examine the whole spectrum of influence tactics. It is

necessary to understand which tactics are used and which tactics are not used. Therefore,

all 44 items in both the agent and target versions of the IBQ-G were used in this study.

Survey items were arranged in random order, with items for each tactic being represented

in the beginning, middle, and end of the questionnaire. No wording changes were made

to any items.

 An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the responses for 44

proactive influence tactic items for both the target and agent versions of the IBQ-G. A

principal component analysis using Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization was

conducted to reduce Yukl's (2006) 11 proactive influence tactic items into dimensions.

Yukl's (2006) 11 proactive influence tactics did not show up in my sample. The EFA did

not yield Yukl's (2006) 11 proactive influence tactics in my sample. In both the agent

and target versions, influence tactics loaded into two unique factors based upon

demonstrated eigenvalues of greater than 1.0 and evaluation of each factor loading in

light of reviewed literature. Two scales were formed when using .45 as the minimum criterion for meaningful factor loading: pressure and non-pressure. The pressure items appeared to reflect Yukl's definition of pressure tactics. In the agent version, three items cross-loaded. These items were included in the scale within which they were most strongly associated. In the target version, six items cross-loaded. Again, these items were included in the scale within which they were most strongly associated. The factors were combined into two variables for both targets and agents: pressure and non-pressure tactics.

Pilot test of the electronic survey instrument. Pilot studies for electronic surveys can increase the response rate of the actual study by assessing survey access issues, item confusion, and how well the format of data collection aids in data analysis (Dillman & Smyth, 2007; Fan & Yan, 2010). The Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire, the target version of the IBQ-G, and the agent version of the IBQ-G were combined into one instrument for ease of administration. The final instrument was electronically pilot tested by 48 classroom teachers outside of the sampling frame for this study. Pilot study participants were sent a letter via email with a link to the survey (Appendix D). Participants completed the pilot test electronically and were given a hyperlink to print a paper copy of the pilot study feedback form (Appendix D). There were no suggested modifications to address item confusion or bias on the Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire section of the survey. For the IBQ-G, I received feedback indicating there was no confusion or perceived bias, and some feedback that was minor or irrelevant to the topic of this study. Therefore, items from the agent and target versions of the IBQ-G were not modified.

Data Collection Procedures

Data were collected through a survey questionnaire at the commercial website, Qualtrics. The use of an electronic questionnaire allowed me to contact participants in a timely manner and facilitated the ability to send follow-up reminders at two-week intervals (Creswell, 2005). An initial mass email with a link to the survey was sent to participants. The email contained a statement of informed consent that by accessing the survey, participants were consenting to participate (Appendix E). Two weeks later, a second email and survey link was sent encouraging non-respondents to participate. After another two weeks, a third and final email and survey link was sent enabling data collection to conclude in six weeks (Creswell, 2005).

Electronic surveys are increasingly being used (Creswell, 2005) to measure employee perspectives and workplace effectiveness when the target respondents are internet users (Dillman & Smyth, 2007; Huang, 2006). The use of email is required among teachers, so an electronic questionnaire was an effective way to reach all participants within the sample. Some benefits of using electronic surveys are that large samples can be collected within a short timeframe (Hayslett & Wildemuth, 2004; Huang, 2006), electronic surveys cost less than print surveys (Hayslett & Wildemuth, 2004), and respondents can complete the survey in the workplace or at home (Chizawsky, Estabrooks & Sales, 2011; Hayslett & Wildemuth, 2004). In addition, analyses of print versus web surveys have found no significant differences in responses, and participants who use the internet regularly have reported electronic surveys were easy to use and less time consuming than print versions (Chizawsky, Estabrooks & Sales, 2011; Huang, 2006).

There were no known risks for participation in this study. Anonymity was maintained by blocking identifying information such as IP addresses and email addresses on the data collection website. No identifying information was accessible to me. Informed consent was obtained by blocking participants from beginning the survey until they have read and selected "yes" to the informed consent feature. Institutional Review Board approval was obtained from Western Carolina University prior to the commencement of this study.

Data Analysis Procedures

Statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS 20.0 for Mac. Demographic data were analyzed using descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages. To answer research question one, 22 teacher leadership behaviors were classified into six situational variables: informal classroom, formal classroom, informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession. Descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages were used to analyze teacher leadership behaviors at the item level in each of the six situations. Descriptive statistics including means, medians, standard deviations, and interquartile ranges were also used to analyze the use of proactive influence tactics when teachers were targets of influence (research question 2), as well as when teachers were agents of influence (research question 3).

To answer research question four, the 44 proactive influence items were reduced to two variables for both the target and agent versions of the IBQ. The factors were combined into two variables for both targets and agents: pressure and non-pressure tactics, as described previously. Pressure and non-pressure variables were analyzed separately based on the ways the variables were defined. The original pressure

distributions were turned into categorical variables. The use of pressure and non-pressure tactics by respondents as agents and targets were crosstabulated to create 4 new groups:

- agent/target no pressure - respondents did not use pressure tactics as either agents or targets of influence

- agent pressure only - respondents only used pressure tactics as agents of influence, but they did not have pressure tactics used on them

- target pressure only - respondents had pressure tactics used on them, but they did not use pressure tactics on others

- agent/target pressure - respondents both used pressure tactics and had pressure tactics used on them

I then checked assumptions to assess equal variability across groups and skewness. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to analyze differences based on the four pressure tactic groups and six teacher leadership behavior scales. A Tukey HSD post-hoc test was used to determine which of the four groups differed from each other.

To examine the patterns of non-pressure tactics and teacher leadership behaviors, the pattern of influence was first operationally defined as the deviation between an individual's agent and target non-pressure tactic scale scores, with target non-pressure tactic score subtracted from agent non-pressure tactic score. The research question was then answered by correlating positive values of non-pressure tactics that reflected greater frequency of use as an agent than perceived use as a target. The deviation variable was then correlated with teacher leadership behaviors scale scores. Since the non-pressure deviation variable had a restricted range, and the target non-pressure means and agent

non-pressure means were highly correlated, I decided to correlate target non-pressure tactics and agent non-pressure tactics separately in relation to teacher leadership behaviors.

To answer research question five, descriptive statistics were used to analyze the association of principal support and teacher leadership behaviors. Two survey items were crosstabulated based on the distribution of responses: principal gives opportunities for teachers to lead and principal maximizes opportunities for teacher collaboration. Principal support was dichotomized to create a new variable with two groups: a high level and low level of support for teacher leadership (see Chapter 4). Then, using principal support for teacher leadership as the independent variable, a MANOVA was performed on the six dependent variables of teacher leadership behavior: informal classroom, formal classroom, informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession. Univariate tests were then performed to examine the association between principal support and teacher leadership behaviors.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this research was to examine teacher leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics practiced among teachers in North Carolina public schools. As multiple educators work together to lead public schools, an understanding of teacher leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics can help educators navigate through their interactions to improve teaching and learning. To focus exclusively on the how of teacher leadership, this study examined teachers' leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics when teachers are both leaders and followers. The research questions were:

1. What leadership behaviors do teachers enact in formal and informal situations?

2. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers perceive are used on them?

3. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers use?

4. What patterns of influence among teachers are associated with teacher leadership behaviors in formal and informal situations?

5. How does principal support influence teacher leadership?

Chapter four will present the data collected from public school teachers across North Carolina, including demographic information as well as responses to survey items that addressed the five research questions. Analysis of each research question will be presented in order.

Demographic Information of the Sample

An email with a link to the survey instrument was sent to approximately 5,700 educators in school districts in seven out of eight NCSBOE regions. Educators working

in non-administrative yet supervisory or leadership roles such as instructional or literacy coaches were not included in the sample. Similarly, other certified educators such as school counselors, media coordinators, and school social workers were not included in the sample. Individuals in these roles were routed out of the survey through the first survey question that asked if respondents were current classroom teachers. The original projected sample size was 384, following Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommended sample sizes for populations of 100,000. Of the 640 educators who started the survey, 493 were currently classroom teachers. Thus, while approximately 11.2% of the sampling frame started the survey, the estimated response rate for eligible respondents was 8.9%.

Five demographic survey items included gender, age range, years of teaching experience, type of school, and school setting. Table 6 summarizes respondents' demographic characteristics. There were considerably more female (83%) than male (16%) teachers responding. Respondents were represented relatively evenly in the characteristics of age range, years of teaching experience, and type of school. Among the characteristic for school setting, suburban (38.5%) and rural (56.8%) teachers were represented more often than urban (4.7%) teachers.

Table 6

Respondent Demographic Characteristics (N = 493)

Characteristic	n	%
Gender		
Male	79	16.2
Female	408	83.8
Age Range		
22-26	59	12.0
30-39	116	23.6
40-49	148	30.1
50-59	141	28.7
60+	28	5.7
Years of Teaching Experience		
0-5	88	18.0
6-10	96	19.6
11-15	99	20.2
16-19	67	13.7
20+	140	28.6
Type of School		
Elementary	200	40.7
Middle	125	25.5
High	166	33.8
School Setting		
Urban	23	4.7
Suburban	189	38.5
Rural	279	56.8

Question One: What Leadership Behaviors Do Teachers Enact in Formal and

Informal Situations?

Respondents were asked about their teacher leadership behaviors. Twenty-two

survey items were related to leadership behaviors found on the North Carolina Teacher

Evaluation Instrument (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008) and

derived from reviewed literature. The twenty-two teacher leadership behaviors were

categorized into six different variables as described in Chapter 3: informal classroom, formal classroom, informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession. Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics of each of the 22 teacher leadership behaviors, classified according to each of the six situations.

Whether formal or informal, leadership in the classroom had the highest reported frequency among all situations. Within informal classroom leadership, creating and maintaining a safe and supportive classroom environment had the highest reported frequency (94.3% very often), while analyzing student data to guide instruction had the lowest reported frequency (59.5% very often). In the classification of formal classroom leadership, 62.6% respondents indicated they very often create lessons that require students to collaborate.

Within the classification of informal school leadership, respondents indicated collaboration with colleagues to improve the quality of learning in the school as the most frequent leadership behavior (53.5% very often). Conversely in that same classification, respondents recorded they actively encourage community involvement very often only 23% of the time. The lowest reported frequency of leadership behaviors fell in the category of formal profession. Only 15% of respondents indicated they participate in developing policies and practices to improve student learning at the state level moderately or very often, and 58.3% said they never engage in this leadership behavior. Similarly, 60.8% said they never or very seldom seek opportunities to lead professional development in their school district, region, or state.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution of Teacher Leadership Behaviors by Situation

Situation	Never		Very Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Informal Classroom										
I create a classroom culture that empowers students to collaborate.	0	0	1	.2	31	6.3	98	20.0	361	73.5
I evaluate student progress using a variety of assessment data.	0	0	1	.2	28	5.7	96	19.5	367	74.6
I create and maintain a safe and supportive classroom environment.	0	0	2	.4	3	.6	23	4.7	462	94.3
I analyze student data to guide my instruction.	1	.2	7	1.4	42	8.6	148	30.3	291	59.5
I can provide evidence of student learning in my classroom.	0	0	2	.4	19	3.9	84	17.2	383	78.5
I reflect on my teaching practice.	1	.2	3	.6	22	4.5	89	18.1	376	76.6
Formal Classroom										
I create lessons that require students to collaborate.	1	.2	9	1.8	36	7.4	136	27.9	305	62.6
Informal School										
I collaborate with colleagues to improve the quality of learning in the school.	5	1.0	14	2.9	60	12.2	149	30.4	262	53.5
I participate in professional learning community.	7	1.4	11	2.3	63	12.9	146	30.0	260	53.4
I volunteer to work on new projects and initiatives in my school.	10	2.1	67	13.8	140	28.8	147	30.2	122	25.1
I lead an extracurricular activity.	116	24.1	71	14.7	55	11.4	66	13.7	174	36.1
I informally mentor new teachers.	88	18.1	78	16.1	100	20.6	107	22.1	112	23.1
I actively encourage parent involvement.	2	.4	26	5.3	107	21.9	170	34.8	183	37.5

Situation	Never		Very Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
I actively encourage community involvement.	17	3.5	93	19.1	141	29.0	124	25.5	112	23.0
Formal School										
I participate in developing the school improvement plan.	65	13.3	141	28.8	148	30.2	71	14.5	65	13.3
I lead in professional learning community.	84	17.4	94	19.4	96	19.8	100	20.7	110	22.7
I am a formally designated mentor to a new teacher.	277	58.2	54	11.3	39	8.2	18	3.8	88	18.5
I seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in my school.	85	17.4	123	25.2	140	28.7	86	17.6	54	11.1
Informal Profession										
I promote positive working relationships through professional collaboration within my school district.	6	1.2	32	6.5	113	23.1	135	27.6	204	41.6
Formal Profession										
I serve on a curriculum committee in my district.	153	31.3	91	18.6	109	22.3	70	14.3	66	13.5
I participate in developing policies and practices to improve student learning at the state level.	287	58.3	80	16.3	51	10.4	36	7.3	38	7.7
I seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in my school district, region, or state.	186	38.1	111	22.7	97	19.9	60	12.3	34	7.0

Collaboration in the school, in the classroom, and in the profession included teacher leadership behaviors in which respondents reported high levels of frequency. In the classroom, 91.7% of respondents reported creating lessons that require students to collaborate moderately or very often. In the school, 83.9% of respondents indicated they collaborate with colleagues to improve the quality of learning moderately or very often. In the profession, 69.2% reported they promote positive working relationships through collaboration within their school districts moderately or very often. When collaborating within professional learning communities (PLCs), 83.4% reported participating moderately or very often, and 43.4% reported leading a PLC moderately or very often. When leading by mentoring new teachers, 45.2% reported informally mentoring moderately or very often, although 58.2% reported never being a formally designated mentor to new teachers.

When items were combined into scales, informal classroom leadership had the highest average frequency ($M = 4.69$, $SD = .364$), followed by formal classroom leadership ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .731$) and informal leadership in the profession ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 1.01$). Formal leadership in the school ($M = 2.72$, $SD = .921$) and formal leadership in the profession ($M = 2.24$, $SD = 1.01$) had the lowest average frequencies. Table 8 shows descriptive statistics for each teacher leadership variable in each of the six situations.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of Teacher Leadership Behavior Scales and Situations

Situation	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*Mdn*	*IQR*
Informal Classroom	484	4.69	.364	4.83	4.50
Formal Classroom	487	4.50	.731	5.00	4.00
Informal School	462	3.72	.628	3.85	3.28
Formal School	468	2.72	.921	2.75	2.00
Informal Profession	490	4.01	1.01	4.00	3.00
Formal Profession	486	2.24	1.01	2.00	1.33

Question Two: What Influence Tactics Do Teachers Perceive Are Used on Them?

Behavioral influence tactics were measured by the target version of the IBQ-G, which uses 44 items representing 11 proactive influence tactics. The 11 influence tactics identified on the IBQ-G are: rational persuasion, apprising, inspirational appeals, consultation, collaboration, ingratiation, personal appeal, exchange, coalition tactics, legitimating tactics, and pressure (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Using the target version of the IBQ-G, respondents were asked to think of an effective teacher leader that they work with or have worked with in the past year. Then, respondents were asked to describe how much this teacher leader (agent) used each type of behavior in an effort to influence the respondent (target). Table 9 shows descriptive statistics from respondents' perspectives as targets of influence.

The proactive influence tactic used most frequently on teachers is when the agent uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal (61.1% moderately or very often). Praising past performance or achievements when asking to do

a task or favor (48.2% moderately often or very often) is the next most frequent influence

tactic used on respondents. Proactive influence tactics describing a clear, inspiring vision

of what a proposed project or change could accomplish was used on respondents 39.0%

moderately or very often. Praising one's skill or knowledge (38.3% moderately or very

often) and encouraging a colleague to express concerns they have about a proposed

activity or change (38.3% moderately or very often) were also used on respondents with

great frequency compared to other proactive influence tactics.

Proactive influence tactics that used pressure were reportedly used the least often

on respondents. Demanding to carry out a request was reportedly used moderately often

or very often by 7.5% of respondents, although 70.3% of respondents reported this

influence tactic was never used on them or they could not remember a time when it was

used on them. Similarly, being pressured to carry out a request was only reported by

4.1% of respondents moderately or very often, while 78.6% indicated this influence tactic

has never been used on them or they could not remember a time when it was used on

them.

Table 9

Target Use of Proactive Influence Tactic

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	**%**
Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.	48	10.0	21	4.4	117	24.5	175	36.6	117	24.5
Asks you as a friend to do a favor for him/her.	90	18.8	91	19.0	146	30.5	97	20.3	54	11.3
Praises your past performance or achievements when asking you to do a task for him/her.	61	12.8	60	12.6	125	26.3	149	31.4	80	16.8
Offers to do a specific task or favor for you in return for your help and support.	145	30.5	86	18.1	106	22.3	95	20.0	44	9.2
Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.	97	20.4	98	20.6	154	32.4	83	17.4	44	9.2
Says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants you to do.	107	22.5	76	16.0	139	29.3	108	22.7	45	9.5
Demands that you carry out a request.	334	70.3	65	13.7	40	8.4	23	4.8	13	2.7
Says that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.	266	56.4	83	17.6	73	15.5	38	8.1	12	2.5

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	**%**
Offers to do something for you in the future in return for your help now.	209	44.1	100	21.1	98	20.7	48	10.1	19	4.0
Explains how the task he/she wants you to do could help your career.	208	44.0	98	20.7	83	17.5	61	12.9	23	4.9
Explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.	115	24.2	97	20.4	131	27.6	83	17.5	49	10.3
Invites you to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that he/she wants.	92	19.5	90	19.0	135	28.5	101	21.4	55	11.6
Describes a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change could accomplish.	66	14.0	72	15.3	150	31.8	114	24.2	70	14.8
Consults with you to get your ideas about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or implement.	55	11.7	65	13.8	142	30.1	129	27.3	81	17.2
Explains why a proposed activity or change would be good for you.	93	19.7	89	18.9	124	26.3	112	23.8	53	11.3
Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.	118	25.0	97	20.6	135	28.6	78	16.5	44	9.3
Says a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.	76	16.1	72	15.3	155	32.9	103	21.9	65	13.8

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Uses threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something.	403	85.9	35	7.5	16	3.4	9	1.9	6	1.3
Says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.	181	38.7	101	21.6	90	19.2	61	13.0	35	7.5
Says he/she needs to ask for a favor before telling you what it is.	254	53.9	98	20.8	74	15.7	31	6.6	14	3.0
Repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.	274	58.5	120	25.6	54	11.5	12	2.6	8	1.7
Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.	95	20.4	97	20.9	141	30.3	90	19.4	42	9.0
Offers to provide resources you would need to do a task for him/her.	74	15.8	78	16.7	141	30.1	107	22.9	68	14.5
Gets others to explain to you why they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement.	236	50.3	95	20.3	79	16.8	36	7.7	23	4.9
Offers to provide any assistance you would need to carry out a request.	68	14.6	66	14.2	127	27.3	122	26.2	82	17.6
Explains clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.	74	15.8	88	18.8	125	26.7	115	24.6	66	14.1

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Verifies that a request is legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.	167	35.6	98	20.9	104	22.2	65	13.9	35	7.5
Says you have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.	89	19.0	89	19.0	128	27.4	118	25.2	44	9.4
Mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking you to support it.	176	37.8	108	23.2	110	23.6	53	11.4	19	4.1
Talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change.	98	21.2	78	16.8	134	28.9	101	21.8	52	11.2
Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something.	88	19.1	72	15.7	124	27.0	125	27.2	51	11.1
Offers something you want in return for your help on a task or project.	275	5.9	82	17.6	61	13.1	34	7.3	13	2.8
Tries to pressure you to carry out a request.	367	78.6	53	11.3	28	6.0	11	2.4	8	1.7
Asks someone you respect to help influence you to carry out a request or support a proposal.	318	68.1	7.4	15.8	42	9.0	22	4.7	11	2.4
Encourages you to express any concerns you may have about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement.	83	17.8	73	15.7	131	28.2	108	23.2	70	15.1

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	**%**
Offers to show you how to do a task that he/she wants you to carry out.	108	23.3	89	19.2	125	27.0	88	19.0	53	11.4
Offers to do something for you in exchange for carrying out a request.	246	53.1	97	21.0	68	14.7	37	8.0	5	3.2
Appeals to your friendship when asking you to do something.	265	57.0	78	16.8	62	13.3	42	9.0	18	3.9
Describes benefits you could gain from doing a task or activity.	130	27.7	102	21.7	125	26.7	80	17.1	32	6.8
Asks for your help as a personal favor.	220	47.0	121	25.9	60	12.8	49	10.5	18	3.8
Explains how a proposed activity or change could help you attain a personal objective.	172	36.8	86	18.4	126	27.0	59	12.6	24	5.1
Offers to help with a task that he/she wants you to carry out.	103	22.1	97	20.8	116	24.9	110	21.5	50	10.7
Brings someone along for support when meeting with you to make a request or proposal.	302	64.3	76	16.2	48	10.2	33	7.0	11	2.3
Asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.	124	26.4	77	16.4	123	26.2	96	20.5	49	10.4

Question Three: What Behavioral Influence Tactics Do Teachers Use?

Respondents were asked to think of different ways they try to influence colleagues. When an individual is trying to influence another person, they are the agent. The person being influenced is the target. The agent version of the IBQ-G uses the same 44 items and 11 proactive influence tactics as the target version of the IBQ-G, with minor wording changes. The agent version of the IBQ-G asks the respondent (agent) to indicate which influence tactics they use on peers (targets). The target version asks respondents to report proactive influence tactics that have been used on them (Yukl & Falbe, 1990).

The proactive influence tactic respondents indicated they used most frequently on peers is using facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal (55.0% moderately or very often). Offering to provide assistance to help a peer carry out a request was used moderately or very often by 46.2% of respondents, and offering to help with a task you want a peer to carry out was used moderately or very often by 42.8% of respondents. Encouraging a peer to express any concerns about a proposed activity or change was used moderately or very often by 45.6% of the respondents.

A majority of respondents (87.9%) said they never demand or can't remember ever demanding that a peer carry out a request, while a small percentage of respondents reported demanding that a peer carry out a request (3.1% moderately or very often). Similarly, 84.4% of respondents reported never using or not remembering using pressure to get a peer to carry out a request. However, a few respondents did report using pressure to get a peer to carry out a request (4.9% moderately or very often). Table 10 illustrates descriptive statistics of responses to all 44 proactive influence tactics that respondents reported using on peers.

Table 10

Agent Use of Proactive Influence Tactic

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	**%**
Use facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.	31	6.7	35	7.6	141	30.7	141	30.7	112	24.3
Ask him/her as a friend to do a favor for him/her.	92	20.1	156	34.1	134	29.3	60	13.1	16	3.5
Praise his/her past performance or achievements when asking him/her to do a task for you.	75	16.3	83	18.1	140	30.5	108	23.5	53	11.5
Offer to do a specific task or favor for him/her in return for his/her help and support.	155	34.1	102	22.4	114	25.1	55	12.1	29	6.4
Make an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.	139	30.5	101	22.1	112	24.6	63	13.8	41	9.0
Say he/she is the most qualified person for a task that you want him/her to do.	109	23.9	100	21.9	130	28.4	80	17.5	38	8.3
Demand that he/she carries out a request.	399	87.9	24	5.3	17	3.7	9	2.0	5	1.1
Say that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.	265	57.9	89	19.4	65	14.2	23	5.0	16	3.5
Offer to do something for him/her in the future in return for their help now.	169	37.1	121	26.5	102	22.4	45	9.9	19	4.2

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	**%**
Explain how the task I want him/her to do could help his/her career.	205	45.2	97	21.4	91	20.0	45	9.9	16	3.5
Explain why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.	108	24.2	82	18.3	121	27.1	96	21.5	40	8.9
Invite him/her to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that I want.	74	16.3	77	16.9	131	28.8	116	25.5	57	12.5
Describe a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change could accomplish.	63	13.9	68	15.0	137	30.3	125	27.7	59	13.1
Consult with him/her to get ideas about a proposed activity or change that I want him/her to support or implement.	48	10.5	64	14.0	146	31.9	136	29.8	63	13.8
Explain why a proposed activity or change would be good for him/her.	94	20.7	114	25.1	115	25.3	91	20.0	40	8.8
Say that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.	154	34.0	96	21.2	107	23.6	67	14.8	29	6.4
Say a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.	77	17.0	86	18.9	139	30.6	102	22.5	50	11.0

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	**%**
Use threats or warnings when trying to get him/her to do something.	416	91.4	16	3.5	10	2.2	7	1.5	6	1.3
Say that my request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.	204	45.1	111	24.6	74	16.4	45	10.0	18	4.0
Say I need to ask for a favor before telling him/her what it is.	243	53.4	110	24.2	56	12.3	32	7.0	14	3.1
Repeatedly check to see if he/she has carried out a request.	269	59.0	123	27.0	41	9.0	18	3.9	5	1.1
Provide information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.	82	18.1	88	19.5	161	35.6	76	16.8	45	10.0
Offer to provide resources he/she would need to do a task for you.	69	15.2	65	14.3	126	27.8	123	27.1	71	15.6
Get others to explain to him/her why they support a proposed activity or change that I want him/her to support or help implement.	205	45.4	107	23.7	81	17.9	40	8.8	19	4.2
Offer to provide any assistance he/she would need to carry out a request.	49	10.9	47	10.4	146	32.4	118	26.2	90	20.0
Explain clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.	69	15.3	58	12.9	145	32.2	111	24.6	68	15.1

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	**%**
Verify that a request is legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.	159	35.2	79	17.5	115	25.4	54	11.9	45	10.0
Say he/she has the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.	99	22.0	83	18.4	135	29.9	96	21.3	38	8.4
Mention the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking him/her to support it.	180	39.8	113	25.0	91	20.1	52	11.5	16	3.5
Talk about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change.	102	22.7	75	16.7	125	27.8	99	22.0	48	10.7
Praise his/her skill or knowledge when asking him/her to do something.	84	18.7	84	18.7	128	28.5	104	23.2	49	10.9
Offer something he/she wants in return for his/her help on a task or project.	221	49.7	94	21.1	75	16.9	37	8.3	18	4.0
Try to pressure him/her to carry out a request.	378	84.4	34	7.6	14	3.1	15	3.3	7	1.6
Ask someone he/she respects to help influence him/her to carry out a request or support a proposal.	286	64.0	88	19.7	40	8.9	21	4.7	12	2.7
Encourage him/her to express any concerns he/she may have about a proposed activity or change that I want him/her to support or help implement.	58	12.9	60	13.4	126	28.1	133	29.6	72	16.0
Offer to show him/her how to do a task that I want	79	17.7	75	16.8	123	27.6	102	22.9	67	15.0

Proactive Influence Tactic	Can't Remember		Seldom		Occasionally		Moderately Often		Very Often	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	**%**
him/her to carry out.										
Offer to do something for him/her in exchange for carrying out a request.	203	45.5	113	25.3	68	15.2	38	8.5	25	5.6
Appeal to his/her friendship when asking him/her to do something.	255	57.0	91	20.4	52	11.6	35	7.8	14	3.1
Describe benefits he/she could gain from doing a task or activity.	114	25.6	112	25.1	102	22.9	87	19.5	31	7.0
Ask for his/her help as a personal favor.	226	50.9	114	25.7	56	12.6	35	7.9	13	2.9
Explain how a proposed activity or change could help him/her attain a personal objective.	150	33.6	99	22.1	111	24.8	66	14.8	21	4.7
Offer to help with a task that you want him/her to carry out.	63	14.1	69	15.4	124	27.7	121	27.1	70	15.7
Bring someone along for support when meeting with him/her to make a request or proposal.	260	58.8	91	20.6	52	11.8	28	6.3	11	2.5
Ask him/her to suggest things he/she could do to help me achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.	81	18.2	79	17.8	118	26.6	99	22.3	67	15.1

Question Four: What Patterns of Influence Among Teachers are Associated with Teacher Leadership Behaviors in Formal and Informal Situations?

To analyze the use of pressure and non-pressure tactics by respondents the agent and target pressure variables (as described in Chapter 3) were crosstabulated to create 4 new groups: agent/target no pressure ($n = 259$), target pressure only ($n = 93$), agent pressure only ($n = 23$), and agent/target pressure ($n = 60$). The four groups were compared on their means of teacher leadership behaviors according to situation: informal classroom, formal classroom, informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession (Table 11).

The greatest difference in mean frequencies of leadership was between the agent/target pressure and agent/target no pressure groups in formal profession and formal school situations. In formal profession situations, the mean frequency of leadership was .52 greater for the agent/target pressure group ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 1.21$) than for the agent/target no pressure group ($M = 2.15$, $SD = .992$). In formal school situations, the mean frequency of leadership was .33 greater for the agent/target pressure group ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 1.08$) than for the agent/target no pressure group ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .910$).

Mean frequencies of leadership differed the least among groups in formal and informal classroom situations. In formal classroom situations, the mean frequency of leadership for the agent/target pressure group ($M = 4.48$, $SD = .770$) was only .06 greater than the mean frequency of leadership for the agent/target no pressure group ($M = 4.54$, $SD = .705$). In informal classroom situations, there was only a .12 difference in the mean frequencies of leadership between the agent/target pressure group and the agent/target no pressure group. However, the mean frequency of leadership was higher for the

agent/target no pressure group ($M = 4.73$, $SD = .317$) than the agent/target pressure group

($M = 4.61$, $SD = .451$).

Table 11

Association of Pressure and Non-Pressure Groups and Situations

Situation	N	M	SD
Informal Classroom			
Agent/Target No Pressure	254	4.73	.317
Target Pressure Only	91	4.71	.318
Agent Pressure Only	23	4.67	.380
Agent/Target Pressure	60	4.61	.451
Formal Classroom			
Agent/Target No Pressure	259	4.54	.705
Target Pressure Only	92	4.50	.687
Agent Pressure Only	22	4.54	.670
Agent/Target Pressure	60	4.48	.770
Informal School			
Agent/Target No Pressure	241	3.69	.608
Target Pressure Only	90	3.82	.573
Agent Pressure Only	23	3.70	.675
Agent/Target Pressure	56	3.76	.727
Formal School			
Agent/Target No Pressure	249	2.67	.910
Target Pressure Only	90	2.70	.862
Agent Pressure Only	23	2.98	.960
Agent/Target Pressure	54	3.00	1.08
Informal Profession			
Agent/Target No Pressure	259	3.97	.984
Target Pressure Only	92	4.14	.978
Agent Pressure Only	23	3.82	1.07
Agent/Target Pressure	60	4.18	.947
Formal Profession			
Agent/Target No Pressure	258	2.15	.992
Target Pressure Only	93	2.29	.956
Agent Pressure Only	23	2.20	1.09
Agent/Target Pressure	58	2.67	1.21

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the new group variable was statistically

significantly associated with teacher leadership behaviors,

$\lambda = .914$, F (18, 1064) = 1.91, $p = .012$. Univariate tests found statistical significance in the association between pressure tactic groups and formal school leadership ($F = 3.10$, $df = 3$, $p = .027$, $\eta^2 = .024$) and between pressure tactic groups and formal profession leadership ($F = 3.99$, $df = 3$, $p = .008$, $\eta^2 = .031$; Table 12).

Table 12

Statistical Significance of Pressure Tactics and Teacher Leadership

Situation	F	df	p	η^2
Informal Classroom	1.454	3	.227	.011
Formal Classroom	.343	3	.794	.003
Informal School	1.206	3	.307	.009
Formal School	3.104	3	.027	.024
Informal Profession	1.202	3	.309	.009
Formal Profession	3.998	3	.008	.031

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test found a statistically significant difference in the means of teacher leadership behaviors between the agent/target no pressure group and the agent/target pressure group ($M_D = -.380$, $SE = .144$), $p = .043$ [95% CI -.752, -.008] in formal school situations (Table 13). These findings indicate teacher leadership among the agent/target pressure group was statistically significantly greater than the agent/target no pressure group.

Table 13

Comparison of Groups and Tactics in Formal School Situations

Group	Target Pressure Only	Agent Pressure Only	Agent/Target Pressure
Agent/Target No Pressure	$M_D = -.068$ $SE = .119$ $p = .940$	$M_D = -.381$ $SE = .207$ $p = .257$	$M_D = -.380$ $SE = .144$ $p = .043$
Target Pressure Only		$M_D = -.313$ $SE = .223$ $p = .497$	$M_D = -.312$ $SE = .165$ $p = .236$
Agent Pressure Only			$M_D = .001$ $SE = .237$ $p > .99$

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test found another statistically significant difference in means between the agent/target no pressure group and the agent/target pressure group ($M_D = -.542$, $SE = .159$), $p = .004$ [95% CI -.952, -.131] in formal profession situations (Table 14). Similar to the findings in formal school situations, these findings in formal professional situations indicate teacher leadership among the agent/target pressure group was statistically significantly greater than the agent/target no pressure group.

Table 14

Comparison of Groups and Tactics in Formal Profession Situations

Group	Target Pressure Only	Agent Pressure Only	Agent/Target Pressure
Agent/Target No Pressure	M_D = -.177 SE = .131 p = .534	$M_{D=}$-.098 SE = .229 p =.974	$M_{D=}$-.542 SE =.159 p =.004
Target Pressure Only		$M_{D=}$ .078 SE = .246 p = .989	$M_{D=}$-.365 SE = .182 p = .191
Agent Pressure Only			$M_{D=}$ -.443 SE = .262 p =.329

To analyze the relationship between the pattern of non-pressure influence tactics and teacher leadership, a non-pressure deviation variable was operationalized by subtracting target non-pressure tactics from agent non-pressure tactics. The non-pressure deviation variable was then correlated with teacher leadership behaviors. When the non-pressure deviation variable was correlated with teacher leadership scales, analysis revealed there were no strong correlations. The only statistically significant correlation was between the non-pressure deviation and formal school leadership (r = .163, n = 314, p = .004). The values of the non-pressure deviation variable hovered around zero, indicating a weak correlation between the non-pressure variable and formal school leadership. Figure 2 shows a scatterplot of the non-pressure variable and formal school leadership. Among the other five leadership scales, correlations were not statistically significant and ranged from informal school leadership (r = .100, n = 314, p = .076); to formal profession leadership (r = .007, n = 314, p = .901).

Figure 2

Non-pressure Variable and Formal School Leadership
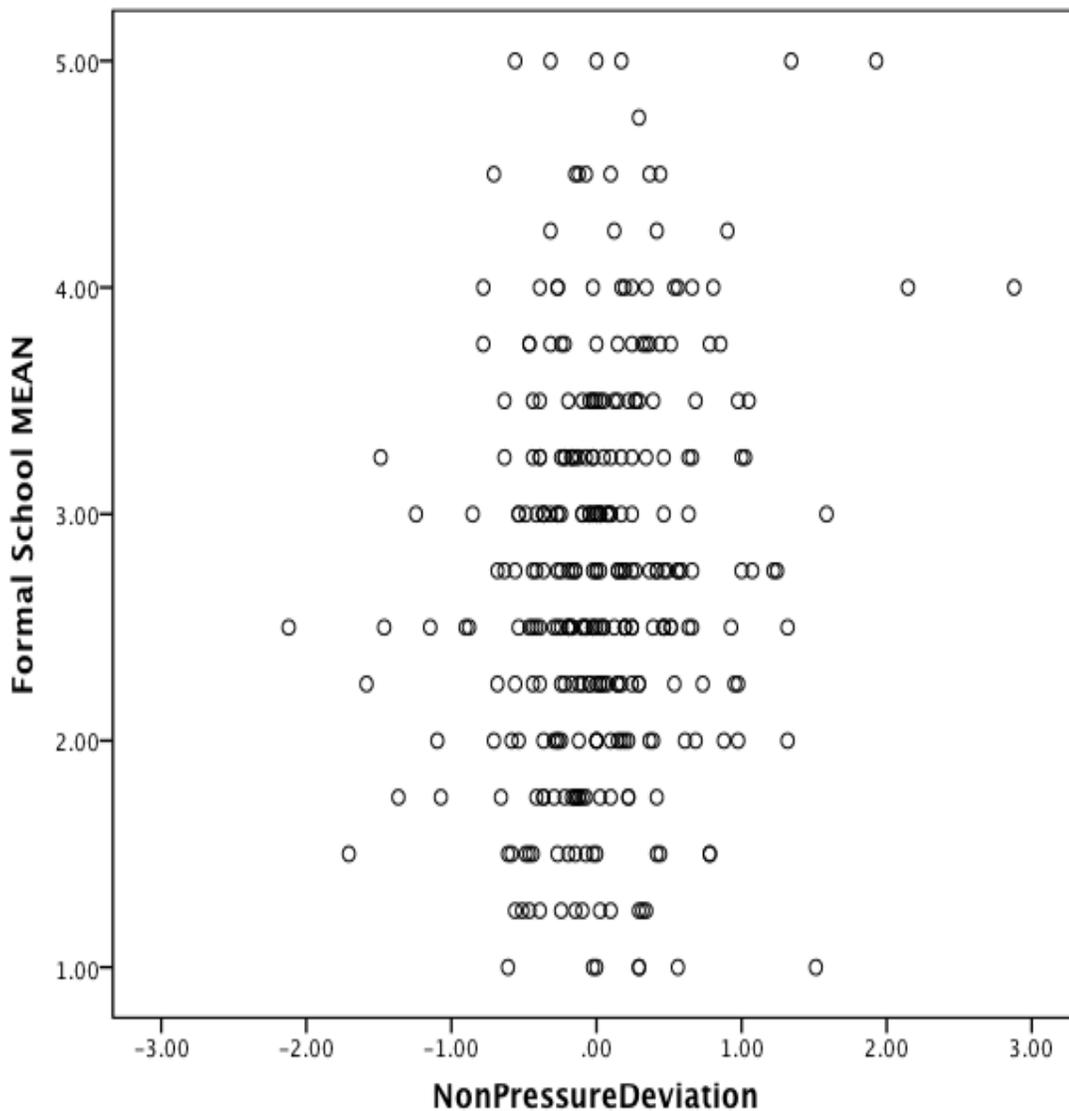
I then analyzed target non-pressure means and agent non-pressure means and found they were highly correlated, *r*(395) = .776, *p* = .01. Since the non-pressure deviation variable had a restricted range, and the target non-pressure means and agent non-pressure means were highly correlated, I decided to analyze target non-pressure tactics and agent non-pressure tactics separately in relation to teacher leadership

behaviors. Therefore, the results no longer show patterns of influence, but rather agent non-pressure tactics and target non-pressure tactics separately. When correlated separately with teacher leadership, target non-pressure tactics and agent non-pressure tactics were both statistically significantly associated with teacher leadership in all situations except informal and formal classroom situations. Correlations were positive, although they were not very strong. Target non-pressure was statistically significantly correlated with informal school ($r = .260$, $n = 382$, $p < .001$); formal profession ($r = .259$, $n = 394$, $p < .001$); and formal school ($r = .225$, $n = 379$, $p < .001$) situations; respectively. Target non-pressure was also statistically significantly correlated with informal profession situations ($r = .203$, $n = 396$, $p < .001$).

Agent non-pressure tactics were statistically significantly correlated with school and profession leadership, although again, the associations are not very strong. Agent non-pressure tactics showed positive correlations with formal school ($r = .349$, $n = 362$, $p < .001$); informal school ($r = .334$, $n = 355$, $p < .001$); and formal profession ($r = .285$, $n = 373$, $p < .001$) situations; respectively. Although not as highly correlated, agent non-pressure tactics were also statistically significantly correlated with informal profession situations ($r = .173$, $n = 373$, $p < .001$; see Table 15).

Positive correlation coefficients indicated the more frequent the use of influence, the more frequent teacher leadership behaviors were in informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession situations. So, although the associations are not very strong, there is statistical significance when associating non-pressure influence tactics with teacher leadership in the school and in the profession. In addition, agent use

of influence tactics showed stronger correlations with school leadership than target use of influence.

Table 15

Correlation of Teacher Leadership Behaviors and Non-pressure Tactics by Targets and Agents

	Target Non-Pressure			Agent Non-Pressure		
Situation	*n*	*r*	*p*	*n*	*r*	*p*
Informal Classroom	392	.029	.571	369	.067	.197
Formal Classroom	395	.045	.377	372	.099	.056
Informal School	382	.260	< .001	355	.334	< .001
Formal School	379	.225	< .001	362	.349	< .001
Informal Profession	396	.203	< .001	373	.173	.001
Formal Profession	394	.259	< .001	373	.285	< .001

Question Five: How Does Principal Support Influence Teacher Leadership?

Respondents were asked two survey questions to address principal support for teacher leadership in their schools. Most respondents (59.1%) indicated their principal often gives teachers opportunities to lead. Similarly, 52.1% of respondents said their principal often organizes the school to maximize opportunities for teacher collaboration. Descriptive statistics of principal support for teacher leadership are shown in Table 16.

Table 16

Principal Support for Teacher Leadership

	Never		Sometimes		Often	
Support	n	%	n	%	n	%
My principal gives teachers opportunities to lead.	23	4.8	175	36.2	286	59.1
My principal organizes the school to maximize opportunities for teacher collaboration.	42	8.7	190	39.3	252	52.1

These two survey items were crosstabulated and principal support was

dichotomized to create a new variable with two groups: a high level and low level of

support for teacher leadership. Principals ranked "often" in both survey items were

combined into the high level group. Principals ranked "never" or "sometimes" in at least

one of the survey items were combined into a low support group. The rationale for this

grouping is that there should be consistent support for teacher leadership by the principal

for him/her to rank as having a high level of support. Table 17 shows 219 out of 483

respondents (45%) indicated their principals often show support in both ways. These

respondents were rated as having principals with a high level of support for teacher

leadership while the remaining 264 respondents were rated as having principals with a

low level of support for teacher leadership.

Table 17

Crosstabulation of Principal Support Questions (*N* = 483)

		Teacher Collaboration					
		Never		Sometimes		Often	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Teachers Lead	Never	13	2.6	9	1.8	1	
	Sometimes	22	4.5	122	25.2	31	6.4
	Often	7	1.4	59	12.2	219	45.3

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on the six

dependent variables of teacher leadership behavior: informal classroom, formal

classroom, informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession

The independent variable was principal support. With the use of Wilks' criterion,

principal support was statistically significantly associated with teacher leadership,

λ = .956, *F*(6, 418) = 3.19, *p* = .004.

Table 18 shows principal support was statistically significantly associated with

formal and informal leadership in the school and informal leadership in the profession.

Univariate tests found statistical significance in the association between principal support

and formal school leadership (F = 14.2, df = 3, $p <$ .001, η^2 = .033); between principal

support and informal school leadership (F = 9.09, df = 3, p = .003, η^2 = .021); and

between principal support and informal profession leadership (F = 8.58, df = 3, p = .004,

η^2 = .020).

Table 18

Relationship between Principal Support and Teacher Leadership

Situation	F	df	p	η^2
Informal Classroom	3.15	3	.076	.007
Formal Classroom	1.78	3	.183	.004
Informal School	9.09	3	.003	.021
Formal School	14.2	3	< .001	.033
Informal Profession	8.58	3	.004	.020
Formal Profession	3.73	3	.058	.008

In all six situations of teacher leadership behavior, the mean frequencies were higher when principal support was higher (Table 19). The greatest differences in means occurred in formal school leadership and informal profession leadership. In formal school leadership, teacher leadership was .31 greater when principal support was high (M = 2.89, SD = .953) than when principal support was low (M = 2.58, SD = .884). In informal profession leadership, teacher leadership was .28 greater when principal support was high (M = 4.17, SD = .943) than when principal support was low (M = 3.89, SD = 1.03).

The mean frequencies of classroom leadership differed the least when associated with high and low levels of principal support. The mean difference of informal classroom leadership was .07 when principal support was high (M = 4.73, SD = .354) rather than low (M = 4.66, SD = .371). The mean formal classroom leadership value was .10 higher when principal support was high (M = 4.56, SD = .716) rather than low (M = 4.46, SD = .730).

Table 19

Mean Frequencies of Teacher Leadership Behaviors, by Level of Principal Support

	High			Low			
Situation	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	95% CI (H-L)
Informal Classroom	216	4.73	.354	260	4.66	.371	[.006, .132]
Formal Classroom	218	4.56	.716	261	4.46	.730	[-.025, .235]
Informal School	206	3.83	.612	248	3.64	.627	[.072, .302]
Formal School	205	2.89	.953	255	2.58	.884	[.141, .479]
Informal Profession	219	4.17	.943	264	3.89	1.03	[.109, .466]
Formal Profession	216	2.36	1.06	262	2.14	.964	[.037, .402]

Summary of Findings

A total of 493 current classroom teachers in public schools across the state of North Carolina took the survey for this study. Twenty-two teacher leadership behaviors were categorized into six different groups based on context: informal classroom, formal classroom, informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession. On average, informal classroom leadership was the most frequent teacher leadership behavior reported, followed by formal classroom leadership, and informal leadership in the profession. Formal leadership in the school and formal leadership in the profession were the least frequent teacher leadership behaviors. Findings in this study showed statistical significance, however, small effect sizes are cautionary about over-interpreting or placing too much emphasis on these findings as a "universal truth".

Whether teachers were targets or agents of influence, the most frequently used proactive influence tactic was using facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal. Whether targets or agents of influence, proactive influence tactics that used pressure were reportedly used the least often. When analyzing patterns of influence, respondents were classified into four groups: agent/target pressure, target pressure only, agent pressure only, and agent/target pressure. There was a statistically

significant difference in means between the agent/target no pressure group and the agent/target pressure group in both formal school and formal profession situations. When analyzing agent non-pressure and target non-pressure tactics separately, both were statistically significantly associated with informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession teacher leadership behaviors.

Higher levels of principal support were associated with higher levels of teacher leadership behavior in all six situations. The level of principal support was statistically significant when associated with formal and informal school leadership, and informal profession leadership. Means of leadership behavior differed the least when principal support was associated with formal and informal classroom leadership.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter four presented the analysis of data collected in the study of teacher leadership behaviors and the use of proactive influence tactics among teachers in North Carolina public schools. Chapter five presents a summary of the study and conclusions drawn from the data. The strengths and limitations of the study and implications for research and practice are also presented.

The purpose of this research was to examine teacher leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics practiced among teachers in North Carolina public schools. To focus exclusively on the how of teacher leadership, this study examined teachers' leadership behaviors and proactive influence tactics when teachers are both leaders and followers. This study answered five research questions:

1. What leadership behaviors do teachers enact in formal and informal situations?

2. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers perceive are used on them?

3. What behavioral influence tactics do teachers use?

4. What patterns of influence among teachers are associated with teacher leadership behaviors in formal and informal situations?

5. How does principal support influence teacher leadership?

With the increasing levels of accountability and demands for student achievement in K-12 public schools, the distribution of leadership among all educators in our nation's schools is needed (Neuman & Simmons, 2000; Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Scribner, Sawyer, Watson, & Myers, 2007). All stakeholders in the school community benefit through distributed leadership (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Miller, 2008) because

leadership responsibilities are shared among all educators (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Lindahl, 2008; Robinson, 2008).

Examining the practice of leadership (Spillane et al., 2004) and the relationships and influence throughout organizations provides insight regarding how educators outside of formal positions lead (Helterbran, 2010; Murphy & Louis, 1999; Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Timperley, 2005; Scribner et al., 2007). A distributed leadership perspective combines the efforts of many individuals in which the sum is greater than the parts and the relationship between the individual and social structure is inherent (Woods & Gronn, 2009). Leadership is stretched over many members of the organization (Spillane, 2006). A distributed perspective of leadership imports the interactions of individuals in both formal and informal roles (Harris & Spillane, 2008). Educators are assuming new roles, forging new relationships, and working within new frames of reference (Leonard & Leonard, 1999). When leadership is defined based on formal roles and responsibilities, teachers often do not identify themselves as leaders. However, when leadership is defined as a broad, inclusive, participatory process, teachers sense their purpose in leadership (Lambert, 2003). By practicing distributed leadership according to the situation, all educators can be leaders (Harris, 2003; Lambert, 1998; Neuman & Simmons, 2000; Phelps, 2008; Spillane et al., 2004) because decisions emerge from the collaborative efforts of many individuals (Lambert, 1998; Scribner et al., 2007; Spillane et al., 2004).

Influence within a school system affects the culture, initiatives, and direction of the school system (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Spillane, Hallett, and Diamond (2003) found that teachers constructed other teachers as influential leaders based on human,

cultural, social, and economic capital. Leaders influence others through social interaction (Harris, 2003; Owens & Valesky, 2007) in highly contextualized situations (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Spillane et al., 2004). Since leadership occurs through interaction, influence is multi-directional and reciprocal (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000). Educators within a school with different knowledge and skill sets may utilize power and influence to address different tasks (Owens & Valesky, 2007) and leaders emerge from focusing professional interactions on specific tasks or goals (Spillane, 2009). Who leads is dependent upon the situation, task, or activity (Spillane, 2009); and school situation, leaders and followers interact to affect student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2010).

Findings of the Study

      Question one: What leadership behaviors do teachers enact in formal and informal situations? The North Carolina State Board of Education requires all teachers to demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008). Respondents were asked about their teacher leadership behaviors. Teacher leadership behaviors were categorized into six different variables of leadership: informal classroom, formal classroom, informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession.

      Leadership in the classroom, whether classified as formal or informal, had the highest reported frequency among all situations. The leadership behavior within informal classroom leadership with the highest reported frequency was creating and maintaining a safe and supportive classroom environment.

      Analyzing student data to guide instruction was the leadership behavior with the lowest reported frequency. In professional discussions related to using data to drive

instruction over the past several years, I have found the very term "data" pushes many teachers beyond their comfort zones. Overwhelmingly, teachers associate data with statistics and analyses from standardized tests. I have spoken with a number of teachers who use a variety of forms of data to guide their instruction, though do not identify what they do regularly in their teaching practice as analyzing student data to guide instruction because they have not conducted statistical analyses on the data. It is possible that analytical teachers are unintentionally downplaying their practice. Through discussions, when I have pointed out and named the ways that they are using data to guide their instruction, it is apparent that they have never identified their analysis of student learning and then modified their instruction as "analyzing student data to guide instruction".

Within formal leadership in the school, participating in a professional learning community was the behavior with the greatest reported frequency. This finding aligns with Lambert's (2003) assertion that leadership emerges as adults learn together and engage in reflective dialogue in a learning community. The leadership behavior in the school with the lowest reported frequency was actively encouraging community involvement. This finding is not surprising since encouraging community involvement is not a primary focus when discussing, researching, or supporting teacher leadership in the school. Collaborating with families and significant adults in the lives of students to ensure the academic success of students is one element of a professional standard on which teachers are evaluated in North Carolina (North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards, 2008). However, beyond that, teachers are not evaluated on encouraging community involvement. Stereotypically, elementary schools, and therefore elementary teachers, demonstrate more community involvement than middle and high school

teachers. Encouraging community involvement, therefore, is a teacher leadership behavior that could vary significantly based on the age level of students.

In the classification of leadership in the profession, respondents reported enacting informal leadership more often than formal leadership. Within the classification of informal leadership in the profession, a majority of respondents reported they promote positive working relationships through professional collaboration within their school district. Within the classification of formal leadership in the profession, very few respondents indicated they participate in developing policies and practices to improve student learning at the state level. These findings support research by Dozier (2007) who found teacher leaders want leadership training to expand so they can be more effective and engaged in policymaking. With new professional standards requiring teachers to demonstrate leadership in the profession, it would behoove the NCSBOE and teacher training programs to focus efforts on building formal teacher leadership skills in developing policy and in leading in the profession outside of school walls.

The ability to collaborate with others is paramount (Danielson, 2007). As teachers collaborate, influence becomes an essential component of leadership (Yukl, 2006) and educational practices improve (Printy, 2008). Therefore, collaboration is a teacher leadership behavior that can influence improved teaching and learning in the school and school district. Across classifications of leadership in the classroom, in the school, or in the profession, teacher leadership behaviors involving collaboration had high levels of frequency. Collaboration is a leadership behavior that can occur in formal and informal situations, which might explain the high frequency teachers reported in this study. In the classroom, respondents reported creating lessons that require students to

collaborate. In the school, respondents reported they collaborate with colleagues to within professional learning communities. In the profession, respondents reported they promote positive working relationships through collaboration within their school districts.

The implementation of PLCs, emphasis on collaboration, and bringing teachers out of isolation with the aim of improving teaching and learning has been a movement for several years in North Carolina. Although the implementation of PLCs varies by schools and school districts, collaboration with others is now a commonly understood norm in education. The findings in this study document current teacher leadership behaviors of collaboration in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession across North Carolina that would have been less several years ago, and may be different several years from now. Currently, providing time for collaboration is the responsibility of individual principals and teachers themselves, within the confines of an already full schedule.

Question two: What influence tactics do teachers perceive are used on them?
Leaders and followers interact to affect student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2010), and through these interactions, followers may be a significant factor in determining who the leaders are (Harris & Spillane, 2008). Respondents' were asked about their perspectives as targets of influence. The proactive influence tactic respondents reported being used on them most frequently was the use of facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal. This finding supports Yukl's (2006) research that expert power is in action when the target person conforms or agrees because he or she believes the agent has special knowledge about a subject or how to perform a task. The next most frequent influence tactic used on respondents was praising past performance or achievements when asking to do a task or favor. This finding supports Spillane, Hallett, and Diamond's

(2003) research regarding how teachers construct other teachers as influential leaders based on human capital: one's skills, knowledge, and expertise in a certain area, as well as social capital: one's connections and relationships.

Proactive influence tactics that used pressure had the lowest frequencies reported by respondents. A majority of respondents reported demanding to carry out a request was an influence tactic that was never used on them or they could not remember a time when it was used on them. Similarly, being pressured to carry out a request was reported often by only 4% of respondents. Pressure tactics would be best used with position power. It is possible that the absence of position power is one reason why pressure tactics were used with the least frequency among teachers.

Since teachers do not hold legitimate authority over colleagues (Danielson, 2007), it is not surprising that using pressure to influence peers was not a frequently used influence tactic among teachers. Furthermore, equalitarian norms among teachers potentially limit the use of pressure tactics to influence others. Teachers are accountable to the demands of principals, state testing, boards of education, parents, and students. If teachers are able to keep the demands of colleagues at bay, it stands to reason they would do so. Further explanation of the use of non-pressure tactics rather than pressure tactics is discussed in research question three.

Question three: What behavioral influence tactics do teachers use? Leaders emerge from focusing professional interactions on specific tasks or goals (Spillane, 2009). Who leads is dependent upon the situation, task, or activity (Spillane, 2006). The most frequently reported proactive influence tactic respondents reported they used on peers was using facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal. This

finding is identical to the most frequently reported proactive influence tactic respondents reported was used on them. Therefore, having the ability to present facts and logically articulate the need for a request or proposal are important skills when leading in schools. The NCSBOE purports the use of data to drive instruction. This finding supports the use of data to lead in schools. As both agents and targets of influence, teachers use facts and logic to lead in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession.

When teachers perceive colleagues to hold valued capital, leaders and influence emerge. Cultural capital refers to one's way of being or interactive style, and social capital refers to trust, connections, and relationships (Spillane et al., 2003). These forms of capital may be present in the next three most frequently reported proactive influence tactics: offering to provide assistance to help a peer carry out a request, offering to help with a task you want a peer to carry out, and encouraging a peer to express any concerns about a proposed activity or change.

Similar to the findings of respondents' perceptions of proactive influence tactics that are used on them, a majority of respondents reported never using or not remembering using proactive influence tactics involving pressure on peers. Only 5% reported using pressure tactics often. Congruent with this finding is that a majority of respondents said they never demand or can't remember ever demanding that a colleague carry out a request. Only 3% of respondents reported using this influence tactic moderately or very often.

Whether agents of influence or targets of influence, the use of pressure tactics had the lowest reported frequency. This finding may identify an unspoken "truce" among colleagues. With all of the external demands on teachers today - state-mandated

professional development, principal directives, regular electronic communication with parents, teacher websites, training and increasing the use of instructional technology, supervisory duties, demonstrating student growth on standardized tests, and so forth - teachers may choose to not use pressure tactics to influence one another because of perceived rebuttal and ineffectiveness. In other words, an abundance of external pressure that already exists in education may influence the use of non-pressure tactics over pressure tactics as teachers lead teachers within schools. Again, though unspoken, there may be a culture within education that does not exist in other organizations, where teachers refrain from using pressure tactics on each other because they are influenced by pressure from so many other professional requirements.

Question four: What patterns of influence among teachers are associated with teacher leadership behaviors in formal and informal situations? Teacher leaders influence many aspects of the organization (Harris, 2003; Beachum & Dentith, 2004). There was a statistically significant association between pressure tactics and formal school leadership. Similarly, there was a statistically significant association between pressure tactics and formal profession leadership. The agent/target pressure group showed greater leadership in formal school and formal profession situations when compared to the agent/target no pressure group. Therefore, teachers who use pressure tactics and have had pressure tactics used on them have higher levels of leadership in formal school and formal profession situations. These findings indicate that in order to lead with greater frequency in formal school and formal profession settings, teachers need to be willing to use and respond to pressure tactics. Conversely, these findings

indicate that teachers who do not use pressure tactics or have not had pressure tactics used on them are less likely to be leaders in the school and in the profession.

Agent non-pressure tactics and target non-pressure tactics were both statistically significantly and positively associated with informal school, formal school, informal profession, and formal profession situations. The only situations non-pressure tactics were not statistically significantly associated with were informal and formal classroom leadership. Since classroom leadership primarily lies with individual teachers, it is not surprising that non-pressure influence tactics were not statistically significant when associated with leadership in the classroom. The finding that the use of non-pressure tactics was statistically significant in leading in the school and in the profession indicates that teachers can lead by influencing others, even without the use of pressure tactics. Agent use of influence tactics was more strongly correlated with leadership in the school than target influence tactics. The greater the use of influence indicated a greater frequency of teacher leadership behavior.

These findings may have implications beyond North Carolina. For example, the preference for non-pressure rather than pressure influence tactics has not been previously documented. These findings may reflect a fundamental difference in proactive influence tactics used among teachers versus other professions that have been studied using Yukl's (2006) 11 identified proactive influence tactics. Respondents who were both agents and targets of pressure tactics showed greater leadership in formal school and formal profession situations when compared to respondents who were neither agents nor targets of pressure tactics. This finding indicates an increase in the use of pressure tactics among educators may positively associate with greater leadership in our schools and profession.

The findings that teachers use non-pressure tactics rather than pressure tactics to influence peers, but pressure tactics were positively associated with greater leadership in the school and profession begs the question: what should teachers be learning to do differently in the way they use pressure tactics on one another? I speculated earlier that there could be an unspoken truce regarding the use of pressure tactics between teachers. However, with new state mandates that all teachers demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession, North Carolina educators may experience an increase of pressure tactics as agents and targets of influence as teachers seek to rise to the highest levels of ratings for teachers: accomplished and distinguished. It is possible that these new professional standards may prompt an increase in the use of pressure tactics among educators in North Carolina.

Question five: How does principal support influence teacher leadership?
Principals play an essential role in supporting teacher leadership (Dufour, 1995; Helterbran, 2005; Huffman & Jacobson, 2003; Hulpia & Devos, 2010; Lambert, 1998; Murphy et al., 2009; Spillane, 2009; Steel & Craig, 2006). Principals' support of teacher leaders influences other teachers' receptiveness to teacher leaders (Mangin, 2007). In schools where only the principal assumes formal leadership, teacher leadership is stifled and sporadic (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). A lack of principals intentionally developing teacher leadership has inhibited the development of teacher leadership throughout the profession (Helterbran, 2010). In the current study, the level of principal support was associated with teacher leadership behavior means according to situation. In all six situations, teacher leadership mean frequencies were higher when principal support was higher. The three situations statistically significantly associated with high principal

support were in formal leadership in the school, informal leadership in the school, and informal leadership in the profession. These findings support current literature that principals need to develop and support teacher leadership.

Principals develop and support teacher leadership in a myriad of ways. Teachers' perceptions of leadership may mirror the perspective of the principal. For example, teachers are more likely to identify their behaviors as "leadership" if it is acknowledged as "leadership" by the principal. Identifying leadership behaviors as leadership may increase awareness of teacher leadership and promote a better understanding of what constitutes leadership in our schools. Principals need to be aware if the same teachers are repeatedly being asked to lead. A conscious effort to stretch leadership responsibilities across the school will allow principals to capitalize on individuals' strengths, foster teacher leadership in the whole school, and lead according to the North Carolina Standards for School Executives (2006).

With new professional standards requiring teachers to demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession, and professional standards for principals to develop and support teacher leadership, North Carolina educators may see more focused professional development pertaining to distributed leadership. Currently, the NCSBOE has not implemented training or discussion of the practice of distributed leadership to coincide with these new professional standards. Without such professional development, North Carolina can expect leadership practices to evolve more slowly. However, with focused professional development pertaining to these new leadership standards, the rate and successful implementation of distributed leadership in our schools may increase.

Strengths, Limitations, and Delimitations

This study has several strengths. The sample size was 493 current classroom teachers in North Carolina completing the survey. This sample size far exceeds original projected sample size of 384, following Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommended sample sizes for populations of 100,000. Including participation from seven of eight NCSBOE regions assisted in results being generalizable to teachers throughout North Carolina.

Another strength of this study is the direct link to the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards (2008) and North Carolina Standards for School Executives (2006). By mandating that all teachers demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession, the NCSBOE is attempting to change leadership practice in North Carolina public schools. With new professional standards for teachers and for principals, educators in public schools across North Carolina may experience a shift in their thinking, interactions, and purpose as their focus expands from students and self to colleagues and leading the school. Understanding how teachers lead better informs educators as teachers assume greater leadership in a distributed leadership practice. An understanding of the use of proactive influence tactics when teachers are both agents and targets of influence provides meaningful information regarding how leadership happens in schools.

There were some limitations to this study. While the demographics of the respondents were generally representative of the teaching population in North Carolina, some of their characteristics may have impacted the findings. Types of teacher leadership and frequency of teacher leadership may vary depending upon school level, gender, and setting. Of the respondents in this study, 84% were female, 57% taught in

rural settings, and 41% taught in elementary schools. Stereotypically, one would not expect pressure tactics to be frequent behaviors used among rural, elementary, female teachers. In addition, it is possible that this demographic group leads, but that they do not necessarily identify themselves as "leaders". One would also not expect this demographic group to demonstrate frequent leadership in developing policy at the state or professional level. However, a majority of schools in North Carolina are elementary schools in rural settings. Furthermore, a majority of teachers in North Carolina are females (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2011). Therefore, if females do not rise to develop policy and influence others to improve education in our state, then who? Further analysis of respondents at the elementary, middle, and high school levels may reveal differences across grade levels in teacher leadership behaviors and the use of proactive influence tactics.

Finally, the largest percentage of respondents (29%) had 20 or more years of experience. Teachers with more than two decades of experience are perhaps more likely to respond to a survey on teacher leadership because they, quite possibly, already view themselves as teacher leaders. Therefore, the findings of this study may best reflect the phenomenon of teacher leadership among more experienced teachers. Interestingly, respondents with 16 to 19 years of experience only accounted for 13% of the sample, while the other 3 lower ranges of experience each represented 18% to 20% of the sample.

There were some limitations to this study that could threaten the internal and external validity. One threat to the internal validity of this study was that the data collection instrument had not been tested previously. To address this limitation, an expert panel of 9 North Carolina principals classified each of the 22 leadership behaviors

on the Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire part of the instrument to provide validity evidence. Survey items were categorized into scales using a 3 by 2 matrix, identifying survey items as leadership in the classroom in the school, or in the profession; and leading in formal or informal situations. Pilot testing the data collection instrument and making appropriate changes prior to the start of data collection also potentially addressed this limitation. Cronbach's alpha statistics indicated acceptable reliability coefficients for the four of the teacher leadership scales. Two of the teacher leadership scales: formal classroom and informal profession were single items. Therefore, these scales may be less reliable.

One potential threat to external validity is that the Teacher Leadership Behavior Questionnaire consisted of elements from the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Instrument. Therefore, results may not be generalizable when examining teacher leadership behaviors for states that define teacher leadership differently.

The potential for response bias existed since teachers answered questions regarding their own leadership behaviors and uses of proactive influence tactics. Pilot testing and making survey items as specific and behavioral as possible may have mitigated the potential for response bias. Also, ensuring the confidentiality of respondents, schools, and school districts addressed the potential for response bias.

This study had some delimitations. One delimitation of this study is that this study used a cross-sectional research design. However, the concept of teacher leadership and the practice of distributed leadership are constantly changing. Therefore, the results are specific for a certain period of time. An understanding of the practice of teacher leadership and the use of proactive influence tactics at the inception of new professional

teaching standards that require teacher leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession provides a baseline for future examination of how the practice of leadership is evolving in public schools.

Yet another delimitation in this study is that teachers working in non-administrative yet supervisory or leadership roles such as instructional or literacy coaches were not included in the sample. Similarly, other certified educators such as school counselors, media coordinators, and school social workers were not included in the sample. Educators in the aforementioned roles were not included in this study because they are not evaluated using the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards. However, leadership behaviors, the practice of distributed leadership, and the use of proactive influence tactics is not limited to only classroom teachers.

Finally, a delimitation of this study is that the respondents' school cultures were not examined. School culture may affect how leadership is distributed, and may play a role regarding the extent to which teachers are able to lead. School culture may also affect the use of proactive influence tactics or types of influence tactics used while leading within schools.

Implications for Research

New leadership standards in North Carolina require all teachers to demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession. As schools become organizations where leadership is distributed among all educators, understanding teacher leadership behaviors and how teachers use influence while leading within schools may help teachers to be more effective leaders.

Continued research on teacher leadership and its incorporation into practice is

needed (Mangin & Stoelinga, 2010). Specifically, continued research on how teachers lead other teachers is needed. The use of proactive influence tactics in any or all of the six situations in this study could be examined in greater depth. Furthermore, since this study is a cross-sectional research design, a follow-up study at a later date could provide meaningful information to educators when teachers have worked for a longer period of time under the professional standards that all teachers must demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession.

Whether agents of influence or targets of influence, the most frequently used proactive influence tactic was using facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal. This finding merits further examination of how egalitarian norms within schools, that all teachers are equal (Murphy et al., 2009) may correspond with more or less frequent use of certain proactive influence tactics. A follow-up analysis of differences between the use of influence tactics according to level of school, years of experience, school setting, and gender would provide insight into types of proactive influence tactics used based on teacher demographics. With this information, we may learn ways to further the development of teacher leadership behaviors.

Understanding how leadership happens is essential to provide useful knowledge for school leaders (Spillane, 2006; Spillane et al., 2006). Since principal support is associated with teachers' leadership behaviors, this study has implications for school administrators who are responsible for fostering teacher leadership. An examination of principals' leadership behaviors for supporting teacher leadership would provide valuable information regarding the practice of distributed leadership in North Carolina schools. In addition, a study on teachers' use of proactive influence tactics on principals may provide

meaningful information regarding how leadership happens in schools. Similarly, a study on principals' use of proactive influence tactics and their impact on teachers' use of influence tactics on students may reveal associations between the use of influence tactics and student learning.

Finally, more research is needed to examine leadership through interactions among personnel within organizations (Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Robinson, 2008; Scribner et al., 2007; Spillane, 2009). Within the practice of distributed leadership, who leads is dependent upon the situation (Spillane et al., 2004). Examining the use of proactive influence tactics by teachers compared to proactive influence tactics used by principals may provide greater insight into the practice of distributed leadership in schools.

Other research questions to consider are: What proactive influence tactics do principals use on teachers? How are principal leadership behaviors associated with their use of proactive influence tactics? What proactive influence tactics do support personnel (media coordinators, counselors, school social workers, specialists, etc.) use as they lead?

Recommendations for Practice

The NCSBOE has mandated that all teachers demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession. With the increasing levels of accountability and demands for student achievement in K-12 public schools, the distribution of leadership among all educators in our nation's schools is needed (Neuman & Simmons, 2000; Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Scribner, Sawyer, Watson, & Myers, 2007). However, teacher leadership has yet to be fully operationalized in our nation's public schools (Beachum & Dentith, 2004; Helterbran, 2010; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009;

York-Barr & Duke, 2004). This study may serve to inform the practice of distributed leadership and specifically, teacher leadership, as well as increasing what is known about the evolution of leadership in K-12 public schools. To better support teacher leadership, the NCSBOE and school districts may consider providing time and resources to maximize collaboration outside of individual schools. Additionally, knowledge of influence opens new paths for understanding how leadership happens in schools. These results can inform educators regarding how to develop teachers as leaders to successfully lead other teachers.

In the classroom, it is validating to know that teachers focus on maintaining safe and supportive classrooms, and encourage collaboration among students. However, newer to the expectations of teaching and learning in the 21st century is the analysis of data to guide instruction. These results indicate more focus and perhaps professional development needs to be devoted to analyzing student data and using that data to guide and improve instruction.

In the school, viewing leadership from a distributed leadership perspective may assist in increasing the levels of teaching and learning as principals support teacher leadership. Understanding *that* teachers influence one another when leading, and *how* teachers influence one another when leading, may assist in achieving school improvement initiatives with teacher buy-in through ownership in the decision-making process. Most importantly, in the school, understanding that teachers are both leaders and followers depending on the situation, and the propensity for teachers to use non-pressure influence tactics rather than pressure influence tactics when leading provides a much greater understanding of how leadership happens in the school.

In the profession, this study found that few teachers seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in their school district, region or state. Similarly, few teachers participate in developing policies and practices to improve student learning at the state level. Just as teachers have been trained to teach, now teacher leaders must be trained to lead (Dozier, 2007; Lord & Miller, 2000; Sherrill, 1999). It is possible as well, that teachers need to be trained to identify leadership behaviors. For example, participating in a PLC at the school or district level is leading, and assisting or training colleagues in the use of instructional technology in the classroom is leading. It is possible that teachers still see leadership as a person, rather than a behavior, and it is likely that teachers engage in leadership behaviors that they do not recognize as such. The NCBOE has mandated that all teachers must demonstrate leadership. However, this new professional standard has been set without any providing training in leadership, or discussion of what teacher leadership entails. Professional development offered by the NCSBOE is needed in order for teachers to realistically meet the demands of the NCSBOE.

This study highlights the need for professional development for principals as well as teachers. The NCSBOE has mandated that principals support teacher leadership. While the role of principals in supporting teacher leadership is essential (Dufour, 1995; Helterbran, 2005; Huffman & Jacobson, 2003; Hulpia & Devos, 2010; Lambert, 1998; Murphy et al., 2009; Spillane, 2009; Steel & Craig, 2006), the change in professional standards for principals to practice distributed leadership was implemented without professional development for principals. This study informs school principals regarding how to better support teacher leadership through an understanding of how influence is

used in teacher leadership and how teachers are leaders and followers depending on the situation. Principals must release authority (Lambert, 1998; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011), but distributed leadership does not negate the important role of the principal to provide leadership, it simply allows for other leaders to emerge in leadership situations and activities (Spillane, 2009).

Perhaps the greatest contribution this study makes to the field of education is the integrated examination of how teachers use proactive influence tactics as leaders and followers in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession. Findings of this study indicated respondents who were both agents and targets of pressure tactics had greater mean frequencies of leadership in formal school and formal profession situations. Respondents who were neither agents nor targets of pressure influence tactics had lower mean frequencies of leadership in formal school and formal profession situations. If the use and acceptance of pressure tactics when leading in education increased, North Carolina public schools may experience an increase in the number of teachers leading in our schools and profession.

Conclusion

I embarked upon this study for a few different reasons. I was a classroom teacher for two decades, prior to moving in to administration. During those 20 years, I considered myself a teacher leader. Through my own personal experience, I knew that my leadership was supported by my work experiences and professional development, but, primarily, I felt I had attained my leadership skills without any poignant effort from school systems I had worked in. Sometimes I was supported by other teacher leaders and followers, and sometimes I was supported by principals. However, when the North

Carolina Board of Education mandated that all teachers must demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession without any training or even discussion about what "leadership" entails, I began to ponder what is really meant by teacher leadership in the 21st century, and how teacher leadership actually happens.

An analysis of teacher leadership behaviors by an expert panel was a first step to categorize leadership as formal or informal, and in the classroom, in the school, or in the profession. Then, collecting data from teachers across the state to document frequencies of leadership behaviors according to the situation provided a baseline of knowledge we did not previously have. Findings indicate it is incumbent upon the NCBOE, local school districts, principals, and teachers themselves, to develop leadership skills among teachers.

Data related to teacher leadership behaviors, combined with an analysis of proactive influence tactics with teachers as both agents and targets of influence, provided insight into how teachers lead in our classrooms, schools, and profession. Understanding that a majority of teachers are neither agents nor targets of pressure tactics, but that the use of pressure tactics is statistically significantly associated with leadership in formal school and formal profession situations, further informs the field of education regarding how leadership happens. It is incumbent upon teachers to increase their use of pressure tactics to influence colleagues and impact teaching and learning.

Finally, the role of principals in supporting teacher leadership is essential (Dufour, 1995; Helterbran, 2005; Huffman & Jacobson, 2003; Hulpia & Devos, 2010; Lambert, 1998; Murphy et al., 2009; Spillane, 2009; Steel & Craig, 2006). The level of principal support is statistically significantly associated with teacher leadership

behaviors. Therefore, it is incumbent upon principals to have a high level of support for distributed leadership and teacher leadership.

In summary, teacher leadership has yet to be fully operationalized in our nation's public schools (Beachum & Dentith, 2004; Helterbran, 2010; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). School districts need to provide leadership training to teachers. Principals need to support teacher leadership. And, teachers need to increase their use of proactive influence tactics to lead within the classroom, school, and profession.

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APPENDIX A

LETTER TO NORTH CAROLINA SUPERINTENDENTS

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO NORTH CAROLINA SUPERINTENDENTS

Dear Superintendent (name):

I am conducting research on teacher leadership in North Carolina public schools. In short, I would like to send an email to your classroom teachers to invite them to voluntarily participate in an electronic survey that will take about 20 minutes of their time if they choose to participate. I would need someone from personnel or technology to send me an Excel or .CSV file of teachers' email addresses. Neither individual nor school district identities will be revealed. In fact, I have blocked the survey from gathering any identifying information.

Please read below for a detailed description of my study. I thank you for your consideration.

Heidi B. Von Dohlen

Purpose of Study
I am conducting research for my doctoral dissertation in Educational Leadership through Western Carolina University, Teacher Leadership Behaviors and Proactive Influence Tactics in North Carolina Public Schools. I am writing to you to ask for your approval for me to survey classroom teachers in your school district. I have selected several public school districts across North Carolina.

As you know, the North Carolina State Board of Education, through the new Teacher Evaluation Process, has mandated that all teachers must demonstrate leadership in the classroom, in the school, and in the profession. However, not much is known empirically about how teachers actually lead. This research is intended to inform the field of education by surveying teachers regarding teacher leadership behaviors and teachers' use of influence tactics when leading.

Description of Participation
There are no known risks to teachers' participation, and the researcher will ensure privacy and confidentiality of all participants. Identifying data such as IP addresses and email addresses will be disabled on the data collection website. No identifying personal, school, or school district information will be collected. Although there is no personal compensation to you or your teachers for participation in this study, I will be happy to provide an electronic copy of a summary of the results upon request.

For your review, I have attached the letter of informed consent that will be sent to each of your teachers, informing them of the study and their voluntary participation. If you agree to have your school district participate in this study, I will need a listserv of your district's classroom teachers in order to distribute the information about the survey via email.

If you have any questions or concerns about allowing your teachers to participate in this study, please contact me at ***-***-*** or _____@catamount.wcu.edu. You may also contact my dissertation chair, Dr. Meagan Karvonen, at ***-***-*** or _____@email.wcu.edu.

I thank you for your consideration of my request. Please "REPLY" to this email and answer the following questions to allow your teachers to participate in this study of Teacher Leadership in North Carolina.

_____ Yes, I approve of teachers in my school district to be contacted and invited to voluntarily participate in this study.

AND

_____ I will provide the researcher with a listserv of my district's classroom teachers so the researcher can send survey information directly to teachers.

_____ No, I do not consent to my district's participation in this study.

Again, thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Heidi B. Von Dohlen

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT:

TEACHER LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS AND PROACTIVE INFLUENCE TACTICS

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Teacher Leadership Behaviors and Proactive Influence Tactics

Please provide the following information about yourself.

Are you currently a classroom teacher?   Yes   No
(If participant answers "No", a screen will pop up thanking them for their willingness to participate but explaining that only teachers should complete this survey.)

What is your gender?   Male   Female

What is your age range?   22-29   30-39   40-49   50-59   60+

How many years have you been employed as a teacher including this year?
        0-5   6-10   11-15   16-20   20+

In which type of school are you currently employed?   Elementary   Middle   High

How would you describe the setting of your school?   Urban   Suburban   Rural

Instructions: Please answer the following questions about leadership behaviors <u>you use and do not use (within the past school year)</u>. It is <u>not</u> expected that all teachers lead in all ways.

1   Never
2   very seldom (only once or twice a year)
3   occasionally (several times a year)
4   moderately often (every few weeks)
5   very often (almost every week or more)

1. I evaluate student progress using a variety of assessment data.
2. I participate in developing the school improvement plan.
3. I create a classroom culture that empowers students to collaborate.
4. I serve on a curriculum committee in my district.
5. I participate in developing policies and practices to improve student learning at the state level.
6. I participate in professional learning community.
7. I lead in professional learning community.
8. I collaborate with colleagues to improve the quality of learning in the school.
9. I create and maintain a safe and supportive classroom environment.
10. I volunteer to work on new projects and initiatives in my school.
11. I analyze student data to guide my instruction.

12. I volunteer to work on projects that involve the community.
13. I am a formally designated mentor to a new teacher.
14. I informally mentor new teachers.
15. I can provide evidence of student learning in my classroom.
16. I promote positive working relationships through professional collaboration within my school district.
17. I reflect on my teaching practice.
18. I create lessons that require students to collaborate.
19. I lead an extracurricular activity.
20. I seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in my school.
21. I seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in my school district, region, or state.
22. I actively encourage parent involvement.
23. I actively encourage community involvement.

Instructions: Now, think of an effective teacher leader that you work with or have worked with in the past year. Please describe how much the teacher leader you indicated uses (or used) each type of behavior in an effort to influence you. For each behavior item, select one of the following response choices.

1   I **can't remember** him/her ever using this tactic with me
2   He/she **very seldom** uses this tactic with me (only once or twice a year)
3   He/she **occasionally** uses this tactic with me (several times a year)
4   He/she uses this tactic **moderately often** with me (every few weeks)
5   He/she uses this tactic **very often** with me (almost every week or more)

If an item does not apply to your situation, then use the #1 response. Please try to avoid letting general impressions of the teacher leader bias your answers.

This teacher leader…

___ 1. Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.
___ 2. Asks you as a friend to do a favor for him/her.
___ 3. Praises your past performance or achievements when asking you to do a task for him/her.
___ 4. Offers to do a specific task or favor for you in return for your help and support.
___ 5. Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.
___ 6. Says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants you to do.
___ 7. Demands that you carry out a request.
___ 8. Says that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
___ 9. Offers to do something for you in the future in return for your help now.
___ 10. Explains how the task he/she wants you to do could help your career.
___ 11. Explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.
___ 12. Invites you to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that he/she

wants.

___ 13. Describes a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change could accomplish.

___ 14. Consults with you to get your ideas about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or implement.

___ 15. Explains why a proposed activity or change would be good for you.

___ 16. Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.

___ 17. Says a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.

___ 18. Uses threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something.

___ 19. Says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.

___ 20. Says he/she needs to ask for a favor before telling you what it is.

___ 21. Repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.

___ 22. Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.

___ 23. Offers to provide resources you would need to do a task for him/her.

___ 24. Gets others to explain to you why they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement

___ 25. Offers to provide any assistance you would need to carry out a request.

___ 26. Explains clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.

___ 27. Verifies that a request is legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.

___ 28. Says you have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.

___ 29. Mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking you to support it.

___ 30. Talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change.

___ 31. Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something.

___ 32. Offers something you want in return for your help on a task or project.

___ 33. Tries to pressure you to carry out a request.

___ 34. Asks someone you respect to help influence you to carry out a request or support a proposal.

___ 35. Encourages you to express any concerns you may have about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement.

___ 36. Offers to show you how to do a task that he/she wants you to carry out.

___ 37. Offers to do something for you in exchange for carrying out a request.

___ 38. Appeals to your friendship when asking you to do something.

___ 39. Describes benefits you could gain from doing a task or activity (e.g., learn new skills, meet important people, enhance your reputation).

___ 40. Asks for your help as a personal favor.

___ 41. Explains how a proposed activity or change could help you attain a personal objective.

___ 42. Offers to help with a task that he/she wants you to carry out.

___ 43. Brings someone along for support when meeting with you to make a request or proposal.

___ 44. Asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.

Now, think of different **ways you try to influence colleagues**. Please describe how much you use (or have used) each type of behavior in an effort to influence colleagues in the past year. For each behavior item, select one of the following response choices.

     1   I **can't remember** ever using this tactic with colleagues
     2   I **very seldom** use this tactic with colleagues (only once or twice a year)
     3   I **occasionally** use this tactic with colleagues (several times a year)
     4   I use this tactic **moderately often** with colleagues (every few weeks)
     5   I use this tactic **very often** with colleagues (almost every week)

If an item does not apply to you, then use the #1 response.

As I lead, I…

___ 1. Use facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.
___ 2. Ask as a friend to do a favor for me.
___ 3. Praise a colleague's past performance or achievements when asking him/her to do a task for me.
___ 4. Offer to do a specific task or favor for him/her in return for his/her help and support.
___ 5. Make an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.
___ 6. Say he/she is the most qualified person for a task that I want him/her to do.
___ 7. Demand that he/she carries out a request.
___ 8. Say that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
___ 9. Offer to do something for him/her in the future in return for their help now.
___ 10. Explain how the task I wants him/her to do could help his/her career.
___ 11. Explain why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.
___ 12. Invite him/her to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that I want.
___ 13. Describe a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change could accomplish.
___ 14. Consult with him/her to get ideas about a proposed activity or change that I want him/her to support or implement.
___ 15. Explain why a proposed activity or change would be good for him/her.
___ 16. Say that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.
___ 17. Say a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.
___ 18. Use threats or warnings when trying to get him/her to do something.
___ 19. Say that my request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.
___ 20. Say I need to ask for a favor before telling him/her what it is.
___ 21. Repeatedly check to see if he/she has carried out a request.

___ 22. Provide information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.

___ 23. Offer to provide resources he/she would need to do a task for me.

___ 24. Get others to explain to him/her why they support a proposed activity or change that I want him/her to support or help implement.

___ 25. Offer to provide any assistance he/she would need to carry out a request.

___ 26. Explain clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.

___ 27. Verify that a request is legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.

___ 28. Say he/she has the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.

___ 29. Mention the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking him/her to support it.

___ 30. Talk about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change.

___ 31. Praise his/her skill or knowledge when asking him/her to do something.

___ 32. Offer something he/she wants in return for his/her help on a task or project.

___ 33. Try to pressure him/her to carry out a request.

___ 34. Ask someone he/she respects to help influence him/her to carry out a request or support a proposal.

___ 35. Encourage him/her to express any concerns he/she may have about a proposed activity or change that I want him/her to support or help implement.

___ 36. Offer to show him/her how to do a task that I want him/her to carry out.

___ 37. Appeal to his/her friendship when asking him/her to do something.

___ 38. Describe benefits he/she could gain from doing a task or activity (e.g., learn new skills, meet important people, enhance his/her reputation).

___ 39. Ask for his/her help as a personal favor.

___ 40. Explain how a proposed activity or change could help him/her attain a personal objective.

___ 41. Offer to help with a task that I want him/her to carry out.

___ 42. Bring someone along for support when meeting with him/her to make a request or proposal.

___ 43. Ask him/her to suggest things he/she could do to help me achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.

___ 44. Offer to do something for him/her in exchange for carrying out a request.

My principal gives teachers opportunities to lead.   Yes   No

My principal organizes the school to maximize opportunities for teacher collaboration.
 Yes   No

APPENDIX C

EXPERT PANEL LETTER

AND

EXPERT PANEL FEEDBACK FORM

APPENDIX C

EXPERT PANEL LETTER

Dear fellow administrators,

I am currently working on my dissertation titled, *Teacher Leadership Behaviors and Proactive Influence Tactics in North Carolina Public Schools*. I am writing to ask for your professional expertise and feedback on part of my survey questionnaire. I need administrators trained on the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Instrument to review survey items related to teacher leadership behaviors.

I simply need you to look at each of the survey items and classify each survey item as **formal** or **informal**; and leadership in the **classroom**, in the **school**, or in the **profession**. Please make a note if an item fits more than one category equally well or if an item does not fit any of the categories well.

For example:

1. I lead in decision-making processes in my school.   This item demonstrates **formal** leadership in the **school**.

This should take you **less than 10 minutes** to complete and responses from this expert panel will provide validity evidence and help me to correct issues prior to launching my study.

Your time is valuable. I appreciate your willingness to help me in this way. Please return your responses to me by Wednesday, March 7, 2012. Please contact me at _____ or at ***-***-**** if you have any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Heidi B. Von Dohlen

EXPERT PANEL FEEDBACK FORM

Based on your training of the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Instrument and your professional experience and knowledge, please classify the following teacher leadership behaviors as **formal** or **informal**; and leadership in the **classroom**, in the **school**, or in the **profession** in the table below.

Teacher Leadership Behavior	Formal or Informal	Classroom, School, or Profession	Comments or wording change suggestions
Example: I lead in decision-making processes in my school.	Formal	School	none
1. I participate in developing the school improvement plan.			
2. I create a classroom culture that empowers students to collaborate.			
3. I serve on a curriculum committee in my district.			
4. I participate in developing policies and practices to improve student learning at the state level.			
5. I evaluate student progress using a variety of assessment data.			
6. I lead in professional learning community.			
7. I collaborate with colleagues to improve the quality of learning in the school.			
8. I create and maintain a safe and supportive classroom environment.			
9. I volunteer to work on new projects and initiatives in my school.			
10. I analyze student data to guide my instruction.			
11. I volunteer to work on projects that involve the community.			
12. I am a formally designated mentor to a new teacher.			

13. I informally mentor new teachers.			
14. I can provide evidence of student learning in my classroom.			
15. I promote positive working relationships through professional collaboration within my school district.			
16. I reflect on my teaching practice.			
17. I create lessons that require students to collaborate.			
18. I lead an extracurricular activity.			
19. I seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in my school.			
20. I seek opportunities to lead professional development activities in my school district, region, or state.			
21. I actively encourage parent involvement.			
22. I actively encourage communi involvement.			

1. Do any items fit into more than one category equally well?

2. Do any items not fit well into any category?

3. Through your professional experience and education, are there any teacher leadership behaviors that are not included among these survey items that should be?

Thank you again for sharing your time and expertise. I greatly appreciate it!!

APPENDIX D

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN PILOT STUDY

REMINDER INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN PILOT STUDY

PILOT STUDY FEEDBACK FORM

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN PILOT STUDY

Dear (name of schools) Teachers,

You are invited to participate in a pilot study for doctoral research exploring teacher leadership in western North Carolina. Interestingly, research on teacher leadership is seldom from the perspectives of teachers. This research is intended to inform the field of education by giving a voice to teachers regarding teacher leadership behaviors and teachers' use of proactive influence tactics when leading.

Description of Participation
As a pilot study participant, you will complete an individual survey that asks demographic questions, questions about your leadership behaviors based on the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Instrument, and behavioral influence tactics that you use with colleagues. Completing this survey will take less than 30 minutes.

Voluntary Participation and Anonymity
Your participation in this pilot study is completely voluntary, and you may choose to end it at any time. There are no known risks to your participation, and the researcher will ensure anonymity of all participants. Identifying data such as IP addresses and email addresses will be disabled on the data collection website. No identifying personal or school district information will be collected.

Feedback
Attached is a feedback form. Pilot study feedback form. Please use it to provide your insights regarding survey items in the first section of the questionnaire. Your responses will be used to make necessary changes to the survey prior to launching this study. Thank you for participating in this pilot study. I appreciate your time, your thoughts, and your professional perspective. Please feel free to contact me at _____@catamount.wcu.edu if you have any questions, concerns, or additional comments.

Please click on the link below to consent to participate and access the pilot study.

Thank you again for your time and input!

Heidi B. Von Dohlen

Follow this link to the Survey:
${l://SurveyLink?d=Take the Survey}

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:
${l://SurveyURL}

Follow the link to opt out of future emails:
${l://OptOutLink?d=Click here to unsubscribe}

REMINDER INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN PILOT STUDY

Hi (name of schools) teachers,

Thank you so much to those of you who have completed the pilot study survey! I so appreciate your time and input!!!

This is a gentle reminder to those of you who have not yet completed the survey. If you are willing to participate, I need surveys done this week. Many folks are saying it takes approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Of course this is completely voluntary! There is no way for me to know who does the survey or what anyone's responses are. If you have comments you would like to give me, please complete the <u>Pilot study feedback form</u> and email it or print a hard copy for me. The data you provide me with will help me to fine tune my final survey for the actual study.

Thank you all so much for your help, your time, and your perspective!

The suvey link is below.

Heidi

Follow this link to the Survey:
${l://SurveyLink?d=Take the Survey}

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:
${l://SurveyURL}

Follow the link to opt out of future emails:
${l://OptOutLink?d=Click here to unsubscribe}

FEEDBACK FORM FOR TEACHER LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR PILOT STUDY

This research is intended to inform the field of education by giving a voice to teachers regarding teacher leadership behaviors and teachers' use of proactive influence tactics when leading.

Please answer the following questions after completing the survey.

1. Which, if any, items on the survey were unclear to you? *(Please explain.)*

2. Which, if any, items did you find difficult to answer? *(Please explain.)*

3. Approximately how long did it take you to complete the survey?

4. This survey uses a five-point scale.
> 1   Never
> 2   very seldom (only once or twice a year)
> 3   occasionally (several times a year)
> 4   moderately often (every few weeks)
> 5   very often (almost every week)

While completing this survey, did you feel this scale adequately allowed you to express your opinion? *(If not, please explain.)*

5. In your opinion, which, if any, items on the survey display a bias on the part of the researcher?

6. Please provide any additional comments you would like to make.

Thank you for participating in this pilot study. Your time and thoughts are greatly appreciated.

APPENDIX E

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR STUDY
PARTICIPANTS

FIRST REMINDER

FINAL REMINDER

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR STUDY

PARTICIPANTS

Dear North Carolina Teacher,

You are invited to participate in doctoral dissertation research exploring teacher leadership in North Carolina. Interestingly, research on teacher leadership is seldom from the perspectives of teachers. This research is intended to inform the field of education by giving a voice to teachers regarding teacher leadership behaviors and teachers' use of proactive influence tactics when leading.

Description of Participation
As a participant, you will complete an individual survey that asks demographic questions, questions about your leadership behaviors based on the North Carolina Teacher Evaluation Instrument, and behavioral influence tactics that you use with colleagues. **Completing this survey will take approximately 20 minutes.**

Voluntary Participation and Anonymity
Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may choose to end it at any time. There are no known risks to your participation, and the researcher will ensure anonymity of all participants. Identifying data such as IP addresses and email addresses will be disabled on the data collection website. **No identifying personal, school, or school district information will be collected.**

The data from all collected surveys will be analyzed in the dissertation, which will be presented to doctoral faculty at Western Carolina University. The dissertation may be published or presented in professional literature or academic settings. Although there is no personal compensation for your participation in this study, I will be happy to provide an electronic copy of a summary of the results if you send an email to the address below.

If you have any questions about my study or your role as a participant, please contact me at ***-***-**** or _____@catamount.wcu.edu. You may also contact my dissertation chair, Dr. Meagan Karvonen, at ***-***-**** or _____@email.wcu.edu. Finally, any questions or concerns regarding your role as a participant can be directed to the Western Carolina Institutional Review Board at ***-***-****.

Thank you for your time and your valuable perspective. Please give consent to participate and access the survey by clicking on the link below.

Follow this link to the Survey:

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FIRST REMINDER

Dear North Carolina Teacher,

This is a gentle reminder that you have been invited to participate in educational research exploring teacher leadership in North Carolina. Interestingly, research on teacher leadership is seldom from the perspectives of teachers. If you have already completed the survey, THANK YOU! If you have not yet taken the survey, please do so. **Completing this survey will take approximately 20 minutes.**

Voluntary Participation and Anonymity
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Thank you for your time and your valuable perspective,

Heidi B. Von Dohlen

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${l://SurveyURL}

Follow the link to opt out of future emails:
${l://OptOutLink?d=Click here to unsubscribe}

FINAL REMINDER

Dear North Carolina Teacher,

This is a final reminder that you have been invited to participate in educational research exploring teacher leadership in North Carolina. If you have already completed the survey, **THANK YOU**! If you have not yet taken the survey, please do so. **Completing this survey will take approximately 20 minutes.**

<u>Voluntary Participation and Anonymity</u>
Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may choose to end it at any time. There are no known risks to your participation, and the researcher will ensure anonymity of all participants. Identifying data such as IP addresses and email addresses will be disabled on the data collection website. **No identifying personal, school, or school district information will be collected.**

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Heidi B. Von Dohlen

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