

Do Followers Desire Distributed Leadership?

By
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Submitted to the graduate degree program in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies and the Graduate Faculty of the University of Kansas in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

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Date Defended: 12 August 2016

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Abstract

Distributed leadership is currently a widely studied and discussed topic in education. Distributed leadership is not a top-down leadership approach, as it depends upon both the leader and follower. However, research, to this point, has only focused upon the leader's perspective. Little to no research has been done on the follower's perceptions. The purpose of this study is to begin to fill the gap in research by examining the follower's perception of the distribution of tasks within their scope of work, as well as the effect of distributed leadership on those tasks. "To what extent are teachers receptive to distributed leadership in different areas of their work, or are there areas where teachers want more or less influence (i.e. curriculum, policies, district initiatives, district calendar, salaries, etc.)?" is the question that focuses this study.

The data from this study comes from two suburban districts just south of Kansas City, Missouri. Certified staff members from preschool, elementary, middle, and high school, and alternative schools were surveyed. The survey included a measure of distributed leadership at the building level, the amount of current influence teachers perceive they have over various tasks within their scope of work, as well as the desired amount of influence teachers would like to have over those same tasks. This made it possible to determine if there is a relationship between how leadership is distributed and the satisfaction of the follower.

Findings suggest that distributed leadership does, in fact, have an impact on closing the gap between perceived and ideal influence – not in all aspects of teachers work, but one in particular (social tasks). Findings show that distributed leadership also has an impact on closing the satisfaction gap for those with higher degrees and males, but only in administrative tasks.

Acknowledgements

First, I would like to give praise to God for sending the right people in my path in order to complete this project. At just the right times, He knew who I needed in my path in order to move to the next phase of this process. I also thank God for giving me words and energy when I didn't feel I had any left to give.

I would like to thank some of the people who encouraged me throughout this journey. My husband, Daniel, was the biggest driving force to keep me working. When I wanted to give up, you reminded me of who I am and what I am capable of doing. You didn't allow me to make excuses, even when I wanted to throw in the towel. In addition, you picked up my responsibilities in my absence.

I would also like to thank my dissertation advisor, Dr. Argun Saatcioglu. If it weren't for your support and guidance throughout this process, I would still be on chapter 3. I also appreciate the committee members who are willing to read my work and provide input and guidance. Thank you for agreeing to serve on the committee so that I can complete my degree.

To the participating districts, schools, and staff members, I thank you for allowing me to conduct research and for taking the time to complete my survey. Without your cooperation, this study would not have been possible.

Last, but definitely not least, I want to thank my children. By no choice of your own, you sacrificed a lot of "mom time" so that I could complete this project. Please know that your sacrifice did not go unnoticed.

Dedication

I want to dedicate this work to my dad, Kent Nickell. Although he passed away unexpectedly on May 30, 2014, what he taught me helped me get through this project. My dad taught me to never give up. There were many times I wanted to give up. However, I was reminded by him, and others, I have never given up on anything. This shouldn't be the first. Also, my dad taught me the value of hard work. Anything worth doing, is worth doing well. Finally, my dad always encouraged me to go for my dreams and pursue a high level of education to get me there. The coursework for my doctorate degree was challenging, but not the most difficult part of the journey. In order for me to complete this dream, I had to finish this work. Thank you, Dad, for believing in me and pushing me to strive for excellence. I think you would be proud.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Distributed leadership has become a widely advocated form of leadership in the educational setting. For decades, numerous studies have focused on distributed leadership (Spillane, 2012; Spillane, 2003; Harris, 2003; Harris, 2004; Arrowsmith, 2004). However, few have addressed teachers' preferences on how leadership should be distributed. One would think distributed leadership would be more effective if followers' preferences were considered in how the leadership tasks are distributed. In this study, I examine if teachers are equally receptive to distributed leadership in all areas or if there are areas where teachers want more or less influence.

There is an ongoing conversation about distributed leadership. Many studies intend to define distributed leadership (Harris, 2003; Harris, 2004; Spillane, 2003; Arrowsmith, 2004; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001), explain the rationale behind utilizing distributed leadership (Spillane, 2012; Spillane, 2003; Harris, 2003; Harris, 2004), describe how leadership tasks are distributed amongst members of the school community (Ingersoll, 2003; Spillane, 2012; Spillane & Diamond, 2007; Spillane, 2012; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001; Gronn, 2000; Harris, 2003), or outline the effects of varying forms of distributed leadership on the school (Camburn, Rowan & Taylor, 2003; Goldstein, 2003; Harris, 2003; Mayrowetz, 2008). Research on this topic is often very descriptive and anecdotal. There is a lack of evidence of the effectiveness of distributed leadership and a lack of studies testing effects.

A substantial problem associated with this is that distributed leadership assumes that when teachers are given influence, teachers want the influence they are given. They may not. Their desire for influence may vary, depending upon a variety of factors such as personal characteristics and type of task. For distributed leadership to be effective, the follower in the

relationship must be taken into account (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996). Current research focuses heavily on the leader, but neglects to analyze the follower. Therefore, the intent of this study is to fill this void. To what extent are teachers receptive to distributed leadership in different areas of their work (i.e. curriculum, policies, district initiatives, district calendar, salaries, etc.)?

Though the concept of distributed leadership has grown in popularity within school systems, the distribution of leadership in school systems varies from school district to school district, and many times from building to building within a district. Though schools have an array of goals and objectives, every school seems to be focused on improving student achievement. School leaders are expected to effectively implement multiple strategies to achieve improvement – a daunting task that cannot be completed in isolation. The idea of distributed leadership is not new, and some researchers claim that it is critical for the success of the organization (Spillane, 2012; Spillane & Diamond, 2007; Harris, 2003). However, the way in which leadership tasks are distributed amongst followers in schools varies from district to district, building to building, and even leader to leader. Within the distributed leadership model, individuals are expected to pool their expertise to create leadership collectively as opposed to leadership being the responsibility of a few actors (Doyle & Smith, 2001; Lambert, 2002). Utilizing distributed leadership is supposed to empower teachers to get involved in the decision-making process of the school. In addition, some researchers and educational practitioners believe that the leader must distribute responsibilities since it is nearly impossible for the leader to be an expert in all areas (Harris, 2004; Gronn, 2000). Much research has been done on the effects of superintendents' leadership and principals' leadership (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003, Connors, 2000; Green, 2005). Less emphasis has been placed on the preferences of teachers and how this aspect of the educational system can move toward implementing more effective practices.

Regardless of whether a leader identifies him or herself as utilizing distributed leadership, the way in which leadership tasks are *actually* distributed can remain a question open to empirical examination. Therefore, teacher preferences regarding distributed leadership need to be addressed. Are there certain factors that render teachers more effective participants of the distributed leadership framework? At the heart of this issue is the balance between autonomy and control in teachers' work. On the one hand, teachers seek autonomy and participation in factors affecting their work because they are the operating core. According to Mintzberg (1979), the operating core of a professional bureaucracy is comprised of skilled professionals ("duly trained and indoctrinated") that expect to have considerable control over how to accomplish the goals of the organization. Teachers are the operating core of our school systems. On the other hand, however, teachers may feel it is unnecessary, or undesirable, to have autonomy in all aspects of their work. This balance of control and autonomy is difficult in the educational setting. As Ingersoll (2003) points out, organizations must coordinate and control its individuals to some extent, as well as depend on the knowledge and expertise of employees in order to be successful.

The central research question within this study is, "To what extent are teachers receptive to distributed leadership in different areas of their work, or are there areas where teachers want more or less influence (i.e. curriculum, policies, district initiatives, district calendar, salaries, etc.)?" In this study, I address the aspects of educational work over which teachers desire to have a leadership role. The effectiveness of distributed leadership depends on both the leaders and followers. Most research, up to this point, has been done on the leaders. Very little has focused on the followers. This gap is a weakness with regard to existing studies of distributed leadership. By gaining insight in to teacher (follower) preferences, distributed leaders can become more

effective. If follower preferences are known, better insights into the success or potential failures of distributed leadership can be examined.

In the following chapters, current literature will be discussed. Using current literature, various definitions of distributed leadership will be reviewed and a common understanding will be built in order to define distributed leadership for the purposes of this study. In addition, the rationale behind distributed leadership, including the barriers to its success, will be reviewed.

The majority of this study will build upon Ingersoll's, *Who Controls Teachers' Work: Power and Accountability in America's Schools* (2003). He divides tasks into three domains – administrative, social, and administrative. In addition, through meta-analysis, Ingersoll describes how tasks are typically distributed – the balance of autonomy and control. After reviewing current literature, I will revisit my research question and describe how this study was conducted.

The remainder of this work will describe the findings of this study. The study examines followers' ideal level of influence over various tasks within the three domains in conjunction with their current level of perceived influence. The effect of distributed leadership on each of the three task domains, as well as control variables, will be analyzed. One major finding for this study is that distributed leadership closes the gap between ideal influence and the current level of perceived influence in only one of the three domains – social. In administrative functions, distributed leadership closes the satisfaction gap for two subcategories of educators – males and those holding higher degrees. In addition, although teachers desire more influence over instructional tasks, doing so does not close the satisfaction gap. The final discussion will include implications for practice, limitations of the study, and directions for further research.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The purpose of this study is to determine if teachers are equally receptive to distributed leadership in all areas or if there are areas where teachers want more or less influence. To do this, it is necessary to take a deeper look at current research concerning distributed leadership and research regarding teacher leadership. Current research on distributed leadership focuses on defining distributed leadership (Harris, 2003; Harris, 2004; Spillane, 2003; Arrowsmith, 2004; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001), the rationale behind utilizing distributed leadership (Spillane, 2012; Spillane, 2003; Harris, 2003; Harris, 2004), how leadership tasks are distributed amongst members of the school community (Ingersoll, 2003; Spillane & Diamond, 2007; Spillane, 2012; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001; Gronn, 2000; Harris, 2003;), and the impact of varying forms of distributed leadership on the school community (Camburn, Rowan & Taylor, 2003; Goldstein, 2003; Harris, 2003; Mayrowetz, 2008).

However, within distributed leadership research, little is known about “followership.” How does the follower figure in? There are theories of leadership that do consider the follower. Most prominently, the Situational Leadership Theory posits that the leader should not be relinquishing control to the follower when that is not appropriate. This approach functions on the premise that depending on the situation, varying levels of leadership and management are needed. In order to determine the balance between leadership and management, the leader must identify their most important tasks or priorities. The readiness of the follower is then considered in light of the follower’s abilities and willingness. The degree and type of control given to a follower is related to the readiness level of the follower along with a matching leadership. (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996)

The Situational Leadership Theory considers follower autonomy exclusively in terms of follower skill, competence, and maturation. Follower preference or attitudes toward leadership tasks is missing from this theory. Irrespective of their potential for leadership, followers may prefer not to (or may not see the need to) exercise autonomy. Most importantly, such attitudes may vary by task domain. Meaning, follower orientation toward autonomy may differ by varying aspects of the work they conduct. The distributed leadership framework offers an opportunity to discuss preference of followers, but that issue has not been addressed in distributed leadership studies. Although, in situational leadership, the follower is taken into account, this study is designed to examine the follower in a different light – follower preference. Even though leadership tasks are distributed amongst followers (teachers) in the school setting, the tasks distributed may or may not be the tasks where followers most desire influence. In addition, there may be tasks which followers have little to no influence over, yet their desire is to be involved in those areas. The followers' preferences have yet to be examined.

This chapter first discusses the existing literature on distributed leadership, and then focuses on the issue of followership as a central gap that warrants further research. Although distributed leadership is commonly utilized within the school setting, teachers may or may not be receptive to leadership in all areas. There very well may be areas of their work where teachers want more or less influence. This is the key gap that this study addresses.

2.1 Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership has been a widely discussed topic in the field of education. Though there are a number of studies with distributed leadership as a focus, there is a lack of research on the follower's preferences. The current research, which is reviewed in the discussion that

follows, focuses on defining the leadership style, giving a rationale for its use, describing how leadership tasks are distributed amongst staff members, providing examples of the style's use, and explaining the effects that distributed leadership has upon the school as an organization (Arrowsmith, 2004; Camburn, Rowan & Taylor, 2003; Gronn, 2000; Harris, 2003; Spillane, 2003; Spillane, 2012; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001). Despite persistent interest in distributed leadership, the majority of current research *assumes* that distributed leadership is effective practice – utilizing anecdotal accounts instead of using measurable evidence. In actuality, the results of distributed leadership are mixed. Though some researchers argue that distributed leadership is effective (Bierly, Doyle, & Smith, 2016; Camburn, Rowan & Taylor, 2003; Goldstein, 2003), others claim that distributed leadership has no impact, or a negative influence, on the organization (Mayrowetz, 2008; Marks & Louis, 1997). It is important to consider this debate when determining if distributed leadership has an impact on teachers' preferences.

Distributed Leadership Defined

Though distributed leadership is a commonly used term in education, there is not a standardized definition of the term. Shared leadership and democratic leadership are often times used interchangeably with distributed leadership. James P. Spillane, the leader in distributed leadership research, argues that they are not one-in-the-same. According to Spillane (2012), distributed leadership focuses on leadership practice. It is viewed as a product of the interactions of school leaders, followers, and their situation. Some state that distributed leadership is just a new name for shared leadership or democratic leadership. In an early work, Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, (1999) compared distributed leadership closely to transformational leadership in the

sense that the approach empowers others with the purpose of bringing about organizational change. Spillane makes the distinction best in the following statement:

“Depending on the situation, a distributive perspective allows for shared leadership. A team leadership approach does not necessarily involve subscribing to a distributive perspective in which leadership is viewed as the interaction of leaders, followers, and situation. Similarly, a distributed perspective allows for leadership that can be democratic or autocratic. From a distributed perspective, leadership can be stretched over leaders in a school but is not necessarily democratic” (Spillane, 2005: 149).

Distributed leadership is a focus on leadership practice. Leadership practice is the product of school leaders, followers, and their situation. It is the interaction of these three that determine the distribution of leadership at any given time. From a distributed perspective, routines, tools, and structures also define leadership practice.

Spillane outlines three types of distribution situations within the definition of distributed leadership – collaborated, coordinated, and collective. A collaborated distribution situation refers to the relationship between the actions of the leaders and followers that gives rise to leadership practice. Leaders and followers are working together, and playing off of each other. In coordinated distribution situations, leaders can work separately or together on different leadership tasks, but the tasks have to be arranged sequentially. When in a collective distribution situation, leadership is distributed between two or more leaders, and they work separately but interdependently.

The Distributed Leadership Study (Spillane, 2012; Harris, 2003; Gronn, 2000) demonstrated that the responsibility for leadership routines involves multiple leaders, but it is

dependent on the routine and the subject area. The study also showed that the actions of leaders in situations are defined by the actions of others. In addition, leadership practice can be spread across two or more leaders who work separately yet interdependently. It was also determined that sometimes separate leadership practices are spread over two or more leaders and must be performed in a particular sequence.

The distributed perspective frames leadership through two aspects: leader-plus and practice. In summary, the leader-plus aspect recognizes that not just those at the top of the organization or those with formal leadership designations lead and manage schools. Leading and managing can involve multiple individuals. The practice aspect refers to what is done in a particular time and place in response to the situation. The focus is removed from the actions of the leader (one individual), and is instead an analysis of the interaction between the leader, followers, and situations. (Spillane, 2012; Spillane, 2012; Spillane & Diamond, 2007; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001; Harris, 2003; Gronn, 2000)

The use of distributed leadership manifests itself in various forms throughout the school context. One example is the use of site-based management teams. This team consists of teachers from varying grade-levels. The role of site-based management teams is to make school-wide decisions such as writing and revising the school improvement plan and analyzing and defining school-wide policies and procedures. Often times in the school setting, teachers will be utilized to provide professional development. This task no longer belongs to the principal alone. Others with expertise in certain areas (i.e., curriculum, technology, behavior management, etc.) will pool their expertise in order to plan, develop, and deliver professional development and ongoing

support in their area of expertise. These are just a couple examples of how distributed leadership is currently used in the school system.

Research suggests that distributed leadership looks different in different schools, depending on a variety of factors (Spillane, 2012; Archer, 2004). It even varies within schools, over time, and across subject areas. (Archer, 2004). Because of the interchangeable use of terms, in this study distributed leadership will be defined as *the process by which various members of the staff contribute to leadership functions in the school.*

Why Distributed Leadership?

There is an ongoing conversation about whether or not distributed leadership is effective practice, even though it is widely utilized. In part because distributed leadership is not well defined, it is difficult to ascertain whether or not it is effective in school organizations. Crippen postulates, “If the members of a school community have the chance to understand the leadership-follower dynamic that exists in their school then it may promote inclusive, transparent, interaction for all members – an authenticity” (Crippen, 2012: 196). Most studies that attempt to test the effectiveness of distributed leadership are anecdotal and qualitative in nature. In addition, most researchers have focused their attention upon the leader and neglected what the follower brings to this interaction.

Many argue that distributed leadership is needed in order to lessen the workload of principals, empower teachers, and increase student achievement – all in an effort to perpetuate school improvement (Spillane, 2012; Spillane, 2003; Harris, 2003; Harris, 2004). Current literature suggests that distributed leadership improves various aspects of school environments –

increasing a positive culture, student achievement, teacher morale, efficacy, and pedagogy (Bierly, Doyle, & Smith, 2016; Harris, 2003; Elmore, 2004). In addition, approaches to teacher problem-solving and decision-making within the school organization have increased in schools with distributed leadership (Harris, 2003; Fullan, 2006, Connors, 2000). Based on such findings, many infer that distributed leadership has a positive impact on school improvement.

Harris and Spillane (2008) explain three reasons for distributing leadership within an organization: (1) normative power, (2) representational power, and (3) empirical power. Distributed leadership has normative power – the ability to change the norms in a school setting. In other words, distributed leadership is working toward making a shift from a traditional top-down structure to a structure that involves more people in leadership functions. As schools restructure leadership and redefine themselves, distributed leadership has representational power. Because of increased external demands on schools, alternative approaches to leadership have become more prevalent. Although the evidence is mixed, Harris and Spillane (2008) argue, most importantly, distributed leadership has empirical power – that is a positive impact on organizational outcomes and student learning.

Barriers to Success of Distributed Leadership That the Literature Addresses

Although current literature overlooks follower preference as a possible barrier to the success of distributed leadership, certain barriers are addressed. In addition to the possibility of distributed leadership to have a positive impact on organizational change, distributed leadership can also result in more of a decentralized structure within the school organization. In other words, with distributed leadership, teachers would have greater influence over their own work as

well as on the administrative decisions within the school (Ingersoll, 2003). Whether or not you are a proponent of teachers having more influence, distributed leadership will spread leadership functions across the organization. The question still remains, do teachers desire a different amount of influence than they perceive they currently have?

Though many studies imply that distributed leadership has a positive effect, not all research supports that claim. Some argue that distributed leadership makes the principal's job more difficult, utilizes ineffective teachers to lead, results in a lack of school improvement, and also results in lower student achievement due to teachers' attention being drawn away from instruction (Mayrowetz, 2008; Marks & Louis, 1997). The effects of distributed leadership are debatable.

Mayrowitz (2008) argues that distributed leadership does not make the principal's job more manageable – instead it creates more work for the leader. According to Mayrowitz, not all teachers that are given leadership responsibilities are effective leaders. Though teachers may possess knowledge and/or expertise in a certain area, they may not be effective leaders in that area. Ineffective teacher-leaders can cause more work for the principal because he/she may have to help problem-solve when issues arise or even take over the task(s) from the ineffective teacher leader. This is yet another piece of evidence that focuses on the leader. Follower preference is essentially ignored.

In addition, an increase in both teachers and principals engaging in leadership work, according to Mayrowitz, has been associated with lower levels of student engagement (2008). This could be due, in part, to distributed leadership taking away from teacher empowerment – thus having a negative effect by weakening classroom practices and, in turn, decreasing student

achievement (Marks & Louis, 1997). Because of these possible negative outcomes, and mixed results, school improvement is not a substantiated result of distributed leadership.

Successful change within an organization takes often time. Distributed leadership can be a tool for positive change, but it must be carefully meted out in order to effect the most desirable changes. Leaders, both formal and informal, have to have time to collaborate in order to complete various leadership tasks. In addition to the time component, the need for additional professional development is another possible barrier to success. Continuous professional development can increase the likelihood of successful implementation of distributed leadership. In an effort to remedy the above stated barriers, resources within the school must also be redistributed. Time, professional development, and resource redistribution are just three obstacles to overcome.

In addition to creating the conditions needed for distributed leadership to successfully occur, other barriers may arise. Traditionally, school systems have been top-down leadership structures where the administrator holds the majority of the power over the employees (Hedges & Schneider, 2005). Many scholars suggest a paradigm shift is needed, but they do not consider the followers perspective in which the administrator(s) may have to “relinquish power to others” (Harris, 2012; Harris, 2004). Do teachers want to assume leadership roles in the school? If so, over what do they want leadership? These questions are the basis for this study.

Additionally, financial barriers may cause a burden upon the organization. Time for collaboration, as well as a need for continuous professional development, can themselves cause an increased need for fiscal resources. Perhaps the most burdensome barrier to distributed leadership is the logistics – how, why, and who. Critical questions of how and why leadership

functions should be distributed and who should distribute the functions are raised by Harris (2012 & 2004). This, in turn, may affect teacher relationships. Consideration of these barriers to success must be considered. Without careful thought to these barriers, positive, lasting change will not occur.

Though distributed leadership is a widely used practice in school environments, there is debate as to whether or not it is an effective practice. In addition, the current research focuses largely upon only the leaders' perspective. What do teachers (followers) actually have to say about these issues? Could distributed leadership be more effective if the followers' perceptions were taken into account? 'Work smarter, not harder,' is a phrase commonly heard in the educational setting. Distributed leadership may not be as effective as it could be, if the followers' preferences are not taken into account. The goal of this study is to determine which areas teachers (followers) want more influence over, as well as look into and which areas they desire less influence.

A Key Gap: The "Follower"

Distributed leadership assumes that followers would appreciate more influence. Do people, in fact, desire more influence? Are there areas of their work that teachers desire more or less influence? If the followers' desire for influence is not taken into account, distributed leadership runs the risk of becoming yet another educational fad. If followers are given influence over areas they do not want more influence over, they may only respond ceremonially (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). In addition, the entire practice of distributed leadership may morph into a ritual with no real consequence.

If teachers prefer to follow, distributed leadership may fail. In particular, if teachers are expected to take leadership roles in areas they prefer not to, the benefits of distributed leadership may not be fully realized. Conversely, if the distributed leadership framework takes into account follower preferences, distributed leadership may have more of a positive impact than current research claims.

Little is known about the follower in the context of distributive leadership. Ingersoll clearly defines how leadership tasks are typically distributed in *Who Controls Teachers' Work* (2003). However, this research does not even begin to address the follower's preferences. Do teachers want influence in the areas where they currently have influence? Are there areas where teachers have little to no influence and would like some? These issues have not been addressed.

As discussed earlier, not everyone agrees that distributed leadership is effective. Three barriers discussed that may hinder the effectiveness of distributed leadership within a school building are the time it takes for successful change, resistance to the traditional leadership model, and financial barriers. The set of barriers that literature pays attention to does not address follower preference. The followers' perspective needs to be studied as well. If distributed leadership is an interaction between the leader and follower, dependent on the situation, the follower needs to be addressed. Current research does not do that – it only addressed the leader. In order to begin to study follower preference, actual influence and ideal influence must be examined, as well as how leadership is typically distributed in school settings.

2.2 Teacher Leadership and Followership

This study is needed because of these problems – great variance in definition, lack of evidence of effectiveness, and the omission of teachers/follower opinion. Current literature has not addressed the issue of to what extent followers in a school expect and/or demand influence of leadership functions. In addition, research has not addressed whether these variations of preferred influence are differentiated by task functions. A closer look at the discrepancy between ideal influence and actual influence will allow us to address teacher preference for leadership and followership.

Autonomy and Control as Proxies for Teacher Leadership and Followership

The issue of teacher autonomy pertains to professional independence for leading change and exercising discretion, while the issue of control is relevant for understanding teacher orientation toward being led, that is, followership. Based on the argument that distributed leadership increases the autonomy of teachers because they are given more influence in the decision-making process, Harris (2003) concludes that distributed leadership leads to increased teacher empowerment. When more autonomy is given to teachers, the result is a more loosely coupled and more decentralized system. However, some argue that distributed leadership actually increases traditional top-down control (Arrowsmith, 2004). The leader is forced to delegate responsibilities but at the same time hold teachers responsible and accountable. Again, the two sides of the debate are looked at through the lens of the leader. Distributed leadership is a relationship between the leader, the follower, and the situation. The need to study the followers' perspective is apparent.

Like leaders, followers act in their own self-interest. Even though followers lack formal authority, they do not lack power (Kellerman, 2007). “The more influence followers have, the more they will be motivated to implement a decision” (Yukl, 1989). Some researchers feel that it is the leader’s task to help the followers develop their own self-leadership skills to contribute more fully to the organization (Sims, Faraj, & Yun, 2009). Teacher preferences (interests) should be considered in order to increase the effectiveness of distributed leadership in schools. Are teachers equally receptive to distributed leadership in all areas? Are there areas where teachers want more or less distributed leadership (i.e. curriculum, policies, district initiatives, district calendar, salaries, etc.)? Teachers may not want influence in some of the areas where they have it. In addition, teachers may want more influence in areas where they are currently given little to none. Knowing this information would benefit leaders in making distributed leadership a more effective practice.

There does not seem to be one right way to distribute leadership. The goals of the organization, the style of the leader, the situation, and the followers’ preferences all play a part in this juggling act.

“If they are to succeed, organizations must, obviously, coordinate and control their individual members. But organizations, perhaps, less obviously, are also dependent on the cooperation, expertise, and goodwill of those same individuals. On the one hand, too much control may demotivate, underutilize, and, ultimately, antagonize employees. On the other hand, too little control may undermine the performance and viability of the organization as a whole. Thus, a basic tension, confronts all organizations – how to harness employee expertise and still meet the simultaneous need for both control and

consent, for both accountability and commitment, for both organizational predictability and employee autonomy” (Ingersoll, 2003: 30).

Giving followers too much influence in the areas in which they have little to no interest or giving followers too little influence in the areas in which they have a great amount of interest, will most likely not produce positive results.

Researchers tend to agree that effective leaders continuously ask for input from the staff members because effective leaders know that you must involve others (Connors, 2000; Green, 2005; Marzano, Walters, & McNulty, 2005). If this is the case, why have teacher preferences on distributed leadership been ignored? It is important to gain an understanding of what areas teachers desire autonomy and control. Followers can be the greatest resource a leader has. In order for administrators to be more effective, teacher preference need to be considered when determining how to distribute leadership functions within the educational setting.

Some suggest that educators are on a leadership-followership continuum (Greenleaf, 1977; Kelly, 1992; Crippen, 2012). As teachers navigate through their daily work, they move back and forth along this continuum – neither leadership nor followership is better. “If a school is truly developing and growing and learning and is collaborative, then each person is leader and follower at various times” (Crippen, 2012: 194). Knowing when to lead and when to let others partake in leadership tasks is no small feat. What better way to begin to address this issue than to consider the follower’s preferences.

Current literature does not directly address teacher preference in how leadership is distributed. However, Richard Ingersoll does provided some fundamental knowledge in his book, *Who Controls Teachers’ Work: Power and Accountability in America’s Schools*. This literature bears most closely to these concerns. Ingersoll offers the fundamental framework that addresses

areas where autonomy and control issues transpire. His framework pertains to this study for several reasons. First, the study provides a foundation by outlining the relative influence that teachers have over various aspects of their work. Second, the study digs deeper by analyzing various teacher demographics and how those impact the level of influence teachers have over those same tasks. Third, the study provides a contrast by outlining the relative influence that school administration (districts and principals) has on the same aspects of teachers' work.

Teacher Leadership and Followership Functions

In order to gauge teachers' receptiveness to distributed leadership in various areas, those areas must first be defined. According to Ingersoll, three types of decisions are made in schools – administrative, social, and instructional (2003). Not surprisingly, teachers have the most influence over instructional decisions within a school setting, some influence over social decisions, and little to no influence over administrative decisions (Ingersoll, 2003).

The types of tasks Ingersoll included in each realm are summarized in the table below (2003).

Table 1: Types of decisions made in schools

Administrative	Social	Instructional
Allocating nonteaching duties Allocating school space Selecting administrators Hiring teachers Determining school schedule Determining class sizes Allocating discretionary funds Deciding teacher assignments Establishing salary schedules	Evaluating administrators Determining student expulsion Deciding to add/drop students Evaluating teachers Determining faculty in-service Setting policies: Student tracking School discipline Classroom attendance Teacher's behavior	Establishing school curriculum Making educational innovations Selecting course texts Establishing grading standards Establishing course objectives Determining homework levels Selecting classroom concepts Selecting teaching techniques

In his book, *Who Controls Teachers' Work?*, Ingersoll sought to address three questions:

1) Are schools centralized or decentralized? 2) Do schools have the means to control the work of teachers and hold teachers accountable? 3) Does school centralization or decentralization matter?

In order to address these questions, Ingersoll brings together findings from a series of related studies spanning a ten-year period. The method and scope of each study varies. Both quantitative and qualitative survey data, as well as an analysis of qualitative interview data, were used.

Teachers and administrators from a wide variety of schools and settings were surveyed. Some of Ingersoll's findings spurred on my research.

Ingersoll found that teachers had little input regarding decisions about the schedule, class size, allocation of school space, and budgetary decisions. Because of this lack of influence in these tasks, it can be said that teachers have little to no influence over administrative decisions within the school setting. Though this is the case, do teachers want more influence in the administrative arena?

Social decisions are an arena that teachers have some influence (Ingersoll, 2003) – more so than the administrative arena. It was discovered that teachers had some influence over setting behavioral norms for themselves and determining student discipline within the walls of their classroom. However, teachers had little influence over evaluation, in-service training, and school-wide behavioral rules for students. Do teachers want the influence they have in this realm? Would teachers rather have more or less influence in tasks within this realm? Current research does not address the preferences of the followers. Therefore, the answers to these questions are unknown. This study is designed to dig into this unknown.

Administrative and social decision-making has been addressed. The third area of decision-making within a school is instructional. Since the instructional realm is where teachers

spend the majority of their time, and it is where their expertise typically lies, it is not surprising that teachers perceive themselves to have the most influence in this area. According to Ingersoll, teachers most notably felt like they had considerable influence over establishing grading standards, choosing objectives, assigning homework, and selecting course texts (2003). Though one could assume teachers appreciate the level of influence they have in this arena, it has not been addressed in research. This study will examine whether teachers do want to keep this influence or if there are areas where they would like to relinquish some of this influence. As seen here, distributed leadership has no conception of this issue.

This study seeks to determine the extent to which teachers want administrative, social, and instructional influence. Because of the study's design, I will be able to determine trends based on the perceived level of distributed leadership by teachers in each building. The level of current perceived influence in each area, as well as the level of desired influence, may be a manifestation of the level of distributed leadership perceived in each building.

A Conceptual Framework for Exploring Teachers' Desire for Leadership and Followership

Current research does not often address how leadership should be distributed between Ingersoll's categories of educators' work – administrative, social, and instructional. Distributed leadership will be tested in light of this model.

Figure 1: Actual and ideal influence framework

	<u>Administrative</u>	<u>Social</u>	<u>Instructional</u>
<u>Actual Influence</u>			
<u>Ideal Influence</u>			

Some literature outlines how leadership is currently distributed. *Taking a Distributed Perspective to the School Principal's Work Day* (Spillane, Camburn, & Stitzel Pareja, 2007) is a study in which principals analyze their work and the level of leadership. Tasks are broken into categories – administration, instruction and curriculum, fostering relationships, and professional growth. Within each of those categories, the principal's percent of time leading, percent of time leading alone, percent of times co-leading, and percent of time not leading was determined. This study showed that principals lead alone most often with administration tasks and least often with professional growth. The category of fostering relationships was the area where principals co-led most frequently. In addition, the area where principals did not lead was instruction and curriculum.

Little research discusses how leadership should be distributed. One article suggests that teacher leaders should have more influence within the social realm – specifically in professional development (Hickey & Harris, 2005). Since teachers have a practical perspective of a school's needs, they could tailor professional development to meet those needs. When teachers have more influence over professional development, a higher level of collaboration can be reached. In addition, there is a sense of ownership and commitment to implementation of professional development (Hickey & Harris, 2005). "Administrators who make it a priority to treat teachers

with respect, recognize invaluable contributions, and realize teachers are their best allies, see great things happen” (Connors, 2000: 21).

Another work, *School Leadership That Works: From Research to Results* (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005) suggest thirteen distributed responsibilities and actions of the leadership team. All thirteen of their suggestions fall under Ingersoll’s categories of social and instructional. Not even one suggested responsibility of the leadership team fell within Ingersoll’s administrative realm.

If the followers are given influence when they don’t want it or are not given influence when they do want it, distributed leadership runs the risk of being ineffective or an obsolete practice. If followers are given influence over areas they do not want more influence, they may respond ceremonially (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). There may be no real buy-in or change within a school setting. “Leadership has a greater influence on organizational change when leadership practice is purposefully distributed or orchestrated” (Harris & Spillane, 2008: 33).

The level of distributed leadership may have an effect on school conflict: student-staff conflict, conflict amongst teachers, and teacher-principal conflict (Ingersoll, 2003). In his study, Ingersoll (2003), found that schools with higher levels of teacher influence in social decisions had a lower level of conflict across the board. Much research has been done on positive climate and the importance of climate to successful schools (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Whitaker, 2003; Connors, 2000). Giving teachers influence in the areas where they want more influence could have a positive impact on climate. Adversely, giving teachers influence in the areas where influence is not desired, could have a negative impact on school culture and climate.

Perhaps the most striking result of ill-distributed leadership is teacher turn-over (Ingersoll, 2003). Ingersoll found that with a low level of teacher influence over social issues,

one out of five teachers were likely to leave. In schools where there was a high level of teacher influence over social issues, the turnover probability was far lower – one out of twenty-five teachers were likely to leave. Teacher turnover was also impacted by the level of influence over instructional decisions, although not as greatly as the social arena. In schools where there was a low level of teacher influence over instructional issues, one in nine teachers were likely to leave. In contrast, schools with a high level of teacher influence over instructional issues, only one out of fourteen teachers were likely to leave. Since teacher turnover can be effected by how leadership is distributed, follower preferences ought to be considered.

Chapter 3

Data and Methodology

3.1 Research Questions and Goals

The focus of this study is to analyze preferences of teachers in regards to distributed leadership in order to increase the efficiency of the school organization. The research questions for this study are listed below.

1. To what extent are teachers receptive to distributed leadership in different areas of their work?
2. Are there specific areas of their work where teachers desire more or less distributed leadership (i.e. curriculum, policies, district initiatives, district calendar, etc.)?

The major goals of this study include the following:

1. Analyze teachers' receptiveness to distributed leadership in various aspects of the school organization.
2. Assuming there are areas where teachers want more or less influence, correlate these preferences with characteristics of the follower.

Current research on distributed leadership focuses on the definition of the leadership style, the rationale, various ways in which leadership tasks are distributed, and the effect distributed leadership has upon the school system. However, current research fails to analyze distributed leadership from the follower's perspective. This study will aid in filling this gap by analyzing the follower, rather than the leader, in the distributed leadership framework.

3.2 Empirical Context

Data for this study will be gathered from certified staff members in two suburban Missouri school districts. For the purposes of this study, certified staff members will be defined as individuals who hold a four-year degree in education, hold a current Missouri teaching certificate, and are employed in the school district being surveyed. The schools represented in this study are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2: Participating elementary, middle, and high schools from districts 1 and 2

School Level	Pre-K and Elementary	Middle	High School	Alternative School	Total
District 1	8	1	1	1	11
District 2	7	1	2	1	11
Total	15	2	3	2	22

School district 1 includes certified staff members from eight elementary schools, one middle school, one high school, and one alternative school. Six of the elementary schools in school district 1 service students in grades kindergarten through four. In addition, two elementary schools service students in the fifth and sixth grades. The middle school houses students in grades seven and eight. There is one high school in school district 1 that services students in grades nine through twelve. The alternative school serves students Kindergarten through twelfth grade. School district 2 is comprised of one early childhood center, six elementary schools, one middle school, and two high schools. Five of the six elementary schools serve children grade kindergarten through four, while the sixth school services children in grades five and six. The middle school houses students in grades seven and eight. One of the high

schools houses only ninth graders. The second high school instructs students in grades ten through twelve.

3.3 Data Collection Process

Data collection for this study was a multi-step process. First, the survey was developed using multiple sources and previous research (details addressed further below). Next, the survey, as seen in Appendix A, was given to both districts and approval was gained from district administration. After gaining approval, the survey was distributed electronically to all principals in both districts. Principals then distributed the survey electronically to all certified staff members in their respective schools. Approximately two weeks later, and again in another two weeks, reminder e-mails were sent to all principals in both districts. The principals forwarded these reminders to the certified staff members in their schools to encourage participation.

Figure 2: Progression of data collection



3.4 Measures

The data collection instrument for this study is an electronic survey (Appendix A). The survey includes three subsections: demographics, measure of distributed leadership, and teachers' perception of current influence versus teachers' desired influence.

Outcome: Discrepancy between Ideal and Actual Influence

The outcome measure in the study is the difference between the actual degree of influence teachers experience and the ideal degree of influence they prefer in the different aspects of their work. The actual influence and ideal influence framework aided in analyzing the differences.

Figure 3: Actual and ideal influence framework

	<u>Administrative</u>	<u>Social</u>	<u>Instructional</u>
<u>Actual Influence</u>			
<u>Ideal Influence</u>			

Ingersoll utilized the Schools and Staffing Survey from the 1993-94 school year in order to ascertain how much influence teachers had in each area – administrative, social, and instructional. This survey was conducted by the U.S. Department of Commerce: Bureau of the Census. Though Ingersoll’s research provides foundational knowledge, assumptions cannot be made about the two districts in this study. His work must be duplicated with this data set in order to determine how much perceived (actual) influence these teachers have in each area. Therefore, that portion of the Schools and Staffing Survey was be utilized in this study – questions fourteen through forty in Appendix A.

The heart of this study is to determine if the influence teachers are given is the influence they want. Are there areas where teachers prefer more or less influence than others? Using the same structure as perceived (actual) influence – questions fourteen through forty in Appendix A,

teachers will be asked to use the rating scale to indicate how much more or less influence they desire for each task within the three realms – administrative, social, and instructional.

The difference between these two scores (ideal influence and actual influence) is the outcome variable in this study. This is the outcome measure, because the point of the analysis is to determine whether distributed leadership increases or decreases this difference. If distributed leadership increases, and the difference between ideal and actual influence also increases, followers do not have enough influence.

The Predictor: The Degree of Distributed Leadership

In order to study the perceived influence and desired influence of teachers, and its relationship to distributed leadership, there has to be a method for determining the level of distributed leadership within a school building. The distributed leadership scale was adapted from the work of Heck, Hallinger, and Ingersoll (Heck & Hallinger, 2009; Ingersoll, 2003). The survey goes about determining the level of distributed leadership by asking questions related to three aspects of distributed leadership – collaborative decisions, school governance, and academic development. Collaborative decisions have an emphasis on educational improvement. School governance addresses to what extent leadership empowers staff and students, encourages commitment, level of participation and shared accountability. Academic development analyzes the extent to which teachers participate in efforts to evaluate the school. The distributed leadership scale probes participants about the level of distributed leadership within the building. It does not, however, analyze to what extent individuals participate in leadership tasks. In this study, distributed leadership will be analyzed in three ways – in light of administrative tasks, social tasks, and instructional tasks.

Control Measures

Control measures include an array of questions on demographics and work history of respondents. Beyond the typical demographic factors of race and gender, the control measures include non-teaching duties, years of experience (in education and in the current position), and the highest degree obtained. This section was developed by Jaimi Clutter-Shields and adapted from James Spillane.

Reliability of Scales

The internal consistency of the scales in the questionnaire was tested by means of Cronbach's alpha (α) measure. The nine item distributed leadership scale had an alpha reliability of 0.923. The alpha reliabilities for desired influence in administrative, social, and instructional areas respectively were 0.894, 0.888, and 0.830.

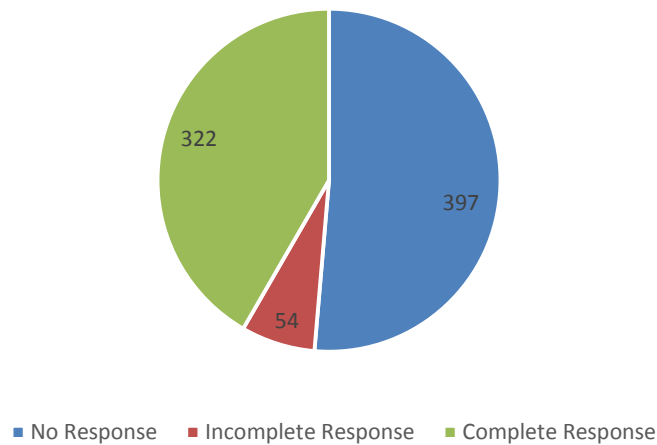
Chapter 4

Findings

4.1 Response Rate

The electronic survey was distributed to 773 certified staff members from 22 schools within two different suburban school districts. 376 people participated in the survey (48.6% participation rate), and 322 (41.7% of those with the opportunity to participate) of those responses were complete. The following data analysis reflects that of the 322 completed surveys.

Figure 4: Survey participation



4.2 Summary of Findings

When a school is perceived to have distributive leadership, the discrepancy between ideal influence and actual influence is lower. If a task is rated high on actual influence, the difference between actual and ideal influence should be lower. When distributed leadership is utilized, there is a beneficial difference in the social arena. This is interesting, because the social domain is also

where followers reported wanting the least amount of influence. For every one unit that distributed leadership increases, the desire for more influence in social tasks decreases. However, distributed leadership does not have a significant impact on the administrative or instructional realms.

Positive Effects on Outcomes

Although opinions about the effectiveness of distributed leadership are mixed, there are several purported positive effects. As discussed in the literature review, assuming that members of the school's staff have an understanding of the leadership-followership dynamic that exists in their setting, distributed leadership has the possibility of increasing the level of inclusion of each member in the decision-making process, as well as the chance to improve the level of transparency within the organization (Crippen, 2012). It has also been argued that distributed leadership lessens the workload on the traditional leaders (administrators) while empowering teachers as they take on more leadership roles (Spillane, 2012; Spillane, 2003; Harris, 2003; Harris, 2004). In addition, a positive impact on school climate, student achievement, teacher morale, and efficacy have been attributed to the use of distributed leadership (Harris, 2003; Elmore, 2004). Ingersoll (2003) also notes that the amount of influence teachers have in schools may contribute to a lower degree of conflict with students, amongst teachers, and between teachers and administrators. Teacher turnover may also be reduced, especially when teachers are given more influence over social decisions. Although there are many factors that can contribute to these positive effects, there was a correlation between these positive effects and distributed leadership. Because of these purported positive effects, many school systems use varying degrees of distributed leadership. However, because studies to this point have focused simply on defining

distributed leadership or analyzing this practice from the leader's perspective, there are some gaps. The findings from this study, analyzing the distributed leadership effects on various domains of followers' work, along with follower preferences, begin to fill some of those gaps.

The Big Picture

As discussed in the methodology section, participants were asked to rate their perceived level of current influence and their desired amount of influence on various tasks – each task within one of the three realms of teachers' work (administrative, social, and instructional). Participants were asked to rate their ideal and actual levels of influence on a scale from one to five – one meaning “little to no influence” and five meaning “a great deal of influence” (See Appendix A). Table 3 shows the average ideal amount of influence, actual amount of influence, and discrepancy (ideal minus actual) of all participants and all tasks specific to each realm.

In addition to rating their ideal and actual levels of influence over various tasks, participants were asked questions pertaining to the level of distributed leadership within their school setting. There were nine attributes participants were asked to rate on a scale of one to five – one meaning “not at all”, and five meaning “a lot” (See Appendix A). The average of all participants' ratings on all nine attributes was calculated for an overall distributed leadership rating, as depicted in Table 3.

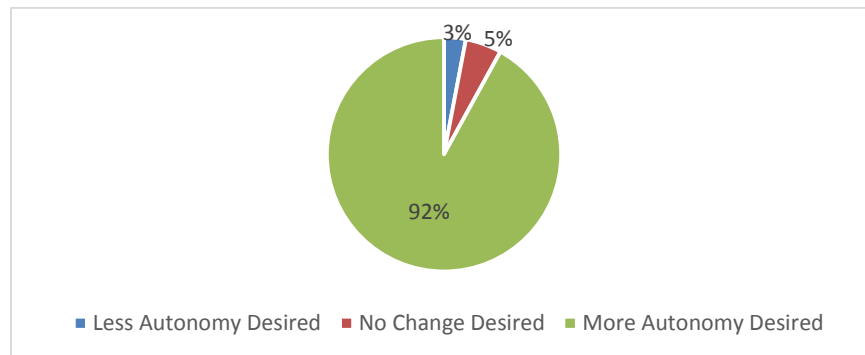
Table 3: Discrepancy between ideal and actual influence

	Administrative	Social	Instructional	Average
Ideal Amount of Influence	3.698	3.401	4.101	3.733
Actual Amount of Influence	2.292	2.198	3.320	2.603
Discrepancy	1.406	1.203	0.781	1.130
Distributed Leadership				3.671

Administrative

Participants were asked to rate their ideal amount of influence and their actual amount of influence over nine tasks within the administrative realm: allocating non-teaching duties, allocating school space, selecting administrators, hiring teachers, determining school schedule, determining class sizes, allocating discretionary funds, deciding teacher assignments, and establishing salary schedules. In the administrative arena, out of 322 valid responses, only nine (3%) respondents desired less influence than they currently hold and 15 (5%) respondents desire the same level of influence (as depicted in Figure 5). This means that 92% of respondents desire more influence in this area of their work.

Figure 5: Desired administrative influence

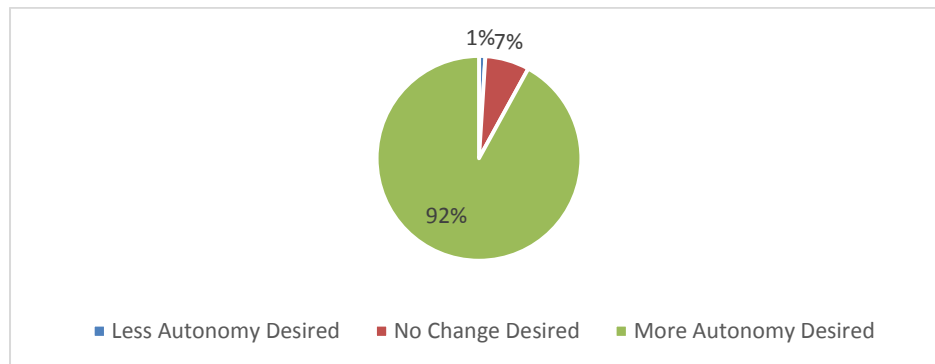


Based on the findings of this study, followers desire more influence than they perceive they have in administrative tasks. The average distributed leadership rating (on a scale of one to five) in this study, was 3.671.

Social

Participants were also asked to rate their ideal amount of influence and actual level of influence over ten tasks within the social realm: evaluating administrators, determining student expulsion, deciding to add/drop students, evaluating teachers, determining student tracking policy, determining faculty in-service, setting school discipline policy, establishing classroom attendance policy, determining classroom discipline policy, and determining rules for teacher behavior. Within the social realm, out of 322 valid responses, only four (1%) respondents want less influence in this area than they currently have. 21 (7%) of the respondents were currently satisfied with the level of influence they possess in this area (as depicted in Figure 6). On the other hand, again, 92% of respondents would like to have more influence in the social aspects of their work.

Figure 6: Desired social influence

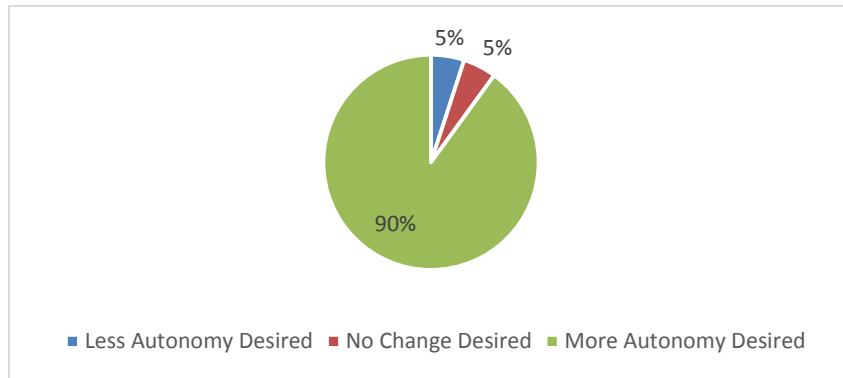


Although more influence is desired, of the three realms (administrative, social, and instructional), the social realm is the realm where teachers desire the least amount of influence. Interestingly, the social realm is also the realm where teachers reported having the least amount of influence. According to this study, distributed leadership has the greatest effect on closing the satisfaction gap in the social realm.

Instructional

Finally, participants were asked to rate their ideal amount of influence and actual amount of influence on eight tasks within the instructional arena: establishing school curriculum, making educational innovations, selecting course texts, establishing grading standards, establishing course objectives, determining homework levels, selecting classroom concepts, and selecting teaching techniques. In the instructional realm, more of the 322 survey participants (15 or 5%) want less influence than they currently have or desire the same amount of influence (16 or 5%). However, 90% of participants still desire more influence than they currently have in the instructional tasks relevant to their work (as depicted in Figure 7).

Figure 7: Desired instructional influence



4.3 Significant Findings

Table 4: Distributed leadership effect on the discrepancy between ideal and actual degree of influence in administrative, social, and instructional tasks

	Administrative Full Sample Difference Between Ideal and Actual	Administrative Positive Discrepancies Between Ideal and Actual (9 Participants Removed)	Social Full Sample Difference Between Ideal and Actual	Social Positive Discrepancies Between Ideal and Actual (4 Participants Removed)	Instructional Full Sample Between Ideal and Actual	Instructional Positive Discrepancies Between Ideal and Actual (15 Participants Removed)
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Actual Degree of Influence	-0.901*** (0.050)	-0.848*** (0.054)	-0.777*** (0.063)	-0.752*** (0.065)	-0.657*** (0.051)	-0.642*** (0.052)
Distributed Leadership	-0.018 (0.051)	-0.058 (0.052)	-0.108** (0.054)	-0.116** (0.057)	-0.024 (0.048)	-0.024 (0.049)
Male	0.260*** (0.098)	0.249*** (0.098)	0.061 (0.107)	0.054 (0.107)	0.166* (0.096)	0.181* (0.096)
Caucasian or White	0.288 (0.245)	0.296 (0.265)	0.586** (0.268)	0.456 (0.289)	0.265 (0.239)	0.282 (0.236)
Non-Teaching Duties	0.042* (0.024)	0.047 (0.246)	0.048* (0.027)	0.053** (0.027)	0.023 (0.024)	0.027 (0.025)
Experience	-0.019 (0.053)	-0.014 (0.053)	-0.097* (0.058)	-0.101* (0.057)	0.023 (0.051)	0.020 (0.051)
Years in Current School	0.053 (0.064)	0.051 (0.067)	0.058 (0.073)	0.063 (0.072)	-0.008 (0.065)	0.008 (0.066)
Years in Current Position	0.021 (0.064)	0.030 (0.064)	0.099 (0.070)	0.108 (0.070)	0.078 (0.062)	0.071 (0.063)
Highest Degree	0.133** (0.067)	0.129* (0.067)	0.034 (0.075)	0.027 (0.075)	0.041 (0.065)	0.030 (0.065)
Constant	2.593*** (0.310)	2.564*** (0.329)	2.356*** (0.343)	2.450*** (0.367)	2.326*** (0.313)	2.270*** (0.311)

Table 4 depicts several points. First, Table 4 shows effects on the difference in teachers' perceived level of actual influence and ideal level of influence in all three realms – administrative, social, and instructional. Models 1, 3, and 5 rely on the full sample of data. For models 2, 4, and 6, the few cases with a negative discrepancy score were removed. In the area of administrative tasks, only nine participants desired less influence than they currently perceive they have. For the social realm, only four participants desired less influence than they currently perceive they have, and in the instructional arena fifteen participants were removed, desiring less influence. There was very little difference between the full sample and the adjusted sample (removing those who desired less influence). Therefore, in the discussion below, models 1, 3, and 5 were treated as the primary basis for interpretation. For both analyses, the total participants and the adjusted effect, controls were put in place for key demographics – distributed leadership, gender, race, the number of non-teaching duties, experience, number of years in the current school, years in the current position, and the highest degree obtained. The dependent variable is the difference between actual influence and ideal influence. Teachers' level of perceived actual influence varies. The discrepancy between actual and ideal is likely to be less for those with high actuals, therefore, the study controls for that.

Administrative

According to Table 4, Model 1, distributed leadership does not close the satisfaction gap for teachers in the administrative arena of their work. There are several possible explanations for why distributed leadership does may not close the gap. One possible reason is that leadership roles are not given to followers in the administrative realm. Another possible explanation is that

the distribution of leadership in administrative tasks is simply ritualistic – teachers are said to have a leadership role, but when it comes down to it, they have no ultimate impact. A third possibility is that leadership is distributed, but it is not distributed enough to close the satisfaction gap between ideal and actual levels of influence. Finally, another thought is that distributed leadership does have a positive effect - what is currently distributed in this area is all that can be done, and there is a threshold on the impact of distributed leadership in the administrative realm.

According to Ingersoll (2003), within administrative tasks, teachers have a low level of influence over schedule, class size, allocation of school space, and budgetary decisions. Because these four administrative decisions have a direct impact on teachers' work, it is not surprising that the majority of participants in our study desire more influence in this sphere of their work. As discussed in the literature review, distributed leadership has the potential for normative power – the ability to change the school norms. All four of these administrative tasks seem to fall within the norms of a school. Typically, teachers desire a say in the norms, because they will be directly impacted.

Social

This study found that distributed leadership has the greatest impact on the social realm. According to Table 4, Model 3, for each unit that distributed leadership increases, the desire for more influence in social tasks decreases. It appears to be the case that there is a certain level of trust that distributed leadership helps to create.

Distributed leadership tends to have an impact on the discrepancy between ideal and actual influence in a domain where followers report the lowest amount of desired influence.

Being purposeful about how leadership is distributed is key. The social domain is an area where leaders can make a small change that has a big impact. Giving teachers more influence over the tasks in this domain where they have little to none would decrease the satisfaction gap. The social domain really sets the framework for how a teacher goes about doing his or her work.

As discussed in the literature review, as the level of influence increases, the level of conflict decreases. Teacher turnover is yet another illustration of the effect of distributed leadership on social tasks. As previously noted, Ingersoll's (2003) work found, in schools where teacher influence is low, one in five (20%) of teachers are likely to leave. Conversely, in schools with a high level of teacher influence in the social tasks, the turnover rate is only one in twenty-five (4%). Therefore, at least in the social realm, distributed leadership has proven to have a positive effect on school climate.

According to Ingersoll (2003), teachers have little influence over evaluation, in-service training, and school-wide behavioral rules. However, teachers do have a moderate level of influence in setting behavioral norms for themselves and determining student discipline within the classroom. The tasks in the social realm over which teachers have most influence are those that most frequently and closely impact their work. "The more influence followers have, the more they will be motivated to implement a decision" (Yukl, 1989). The further removed a social task is from their day-to-day work, the more accepted it is for formal leaders to have more influence.

With the increase on accountability over the past decade, evaluation has become a hot topic in education. As standards-based evaluation has entered the field, teachers may have a stronger desire to be involved in setting the guidelines for evaluation – including how much

weight is placed on student achievement in the evaluation process. There also may be a desire for equity, some level of influence over evaluating administrators, especially since the stakes have become higher for them as teachers.

Policies on student tracking, school discipline, classroom attendance, and teacher's behavior will directly impact how teachers conduct their work. Therefore, teachers would want to be part of writing and/or revising those policies. The closer a policy affects a person, the more interested they are in shaping it. In general, people appreciate having their voice heard when a decision is going to affect them. Faculty in-service that does not meet the needs of its intended audience will be ineffective. Therefore, teachers want to be largely involved in the planning and delivery of professional development. Again, this social task helps shape how teachers do their work. It is possible, although followers report wanting the least amount of influence over social tasks, giving a little in this task would decrease the satisfaction gap.

As discussed in the literature review, Harris and Spillane (2008) explain three types of power that distributed leadership has upon an organization – normative, representational, and empirical. Tasks within the social realm have not always been distributed between leaders and followers. However, as this study shows, distributed leadership in this arena, has an impact. Therefore, one can conclude the representational power is at work. At least in the social realm, a shift is being made from a traditional top-down structure to a structure that involves more people in leadership functions.

Instructional

According to this study, teachers want the most influence over the instructional aspects of their work. However, as noted in Table 3, teachers also report to have the most influence over the

instructional aspects of their work. This is the area where there is the least discrepancy between ideal and actual influence. It is difficult to say whether or not distributed leadership has an impact on this arena, simply because teachers have traditionally had the most influence of these aspects of their work. Teaching is “least controlled by specific and literally enforced rules and regulations,” (Lortie, 1969: 14) and “compared to other systems of work, schools still provide considerable occasion for the exercise of personal discretion by classroom teachers” (Lortie, 1977: 30).

Teachers have the most influence over their work and decisions made within their classroom. Perhaps, because of this level of influence, subgroups are not desperate for more influence in this area of their work. Teaching is not a strict science – it’s ambiguous. Because of varying views on the “technology of teaching” (Ingersoll, 1991), different stakeholders may vie for influence over instructional tasks, if they hold a viewpoint contrary to what is actually happening. Viewpoints on how learning happens, the varying ways in which educational outcomes can be measured, and the influence of curricular and methodological innovations all impact the instructional tasks within a classroom. If building-level and district-level administrators seek input from teachers, it is typically on tasks that fall under the instructional umbrella. According to Ingersoll’s research (2003), teachers have a considerable amount of influence over establishing grading standards, choosing objectives, assigning homework, and selecting course texts. One could argue, then, that distributed leadership has empirical power (Harris and Spillane, 2008). If there is more leadership distributed in this arena than any other, there is a positive impact on organizational outcomes and student learning.

Although the effect is not as great, like in the social realm, teacher turnover is also effected by the level of influence in the instructional realm. In schools with a low level of teacher

influence, the turnover rate is one in nine (11%). On the other hand, in schools with a high level of teacher influence in the instructional realm, teacher turnover was lower – one in fourteen (7%).

Control Variable Effects

According to Table 4, Model 1, distributed leadership has no effect on the difference between teachers' ideal and actual influence on administrative tasks. In this realm, however, there are two notable findings. Male educators and educators with higher degrees, have a greater discrepancy between their perceived actual influence and their desired amount of influence, despite to what degree they perceive they currently hold. Both desire more influence than they currently have.

In addition, looking at Table 4, Model 5, distributed leadership has an insignificant effect on the difference between teachers' ideal and actual influence on instructional tasks. There are also no subgroups that have an effect, positive or negative, on the difference between ideal or actual influence. As discussed earlier, distributed leadership had a significant effect only upon social tasks. Within the social realm, according to Table 4, Model 3, being white or Caucasian also has a significant effect upon a teacher's desire for more influence over social tasks.

The analysis of this study showed that if a teacher is male, they desire more influence in administrative tasks (defined by Ingersoll). One reason this may be is that lower education is a female dominated profession, and America is a male dominated society. It makes sense that males in the field of education would have a desire to have more "executive responsibility" like their counterparts in other fields. Another reason males desire more influence in the area of

administrative tasks, may be related to the ratio of male to female administrators being higher than the ratio of male to female teachers. There may be entitlement issues involved in these results as well. If a male teacher sees a male in the same field with responsibilities they don't currently have, just because they are male, they are entitled to those same decision-making powers. A third factor may be that many males in the field are currently working toward, or intend to pursue, a higher degree in administration.

In addition to males desiring more influence over administrative tasks, this study showed that teachers with higher degrees also desired an increased amount of influence in administrative tasks. One reason for this is that those with higher degrees have a broader view of education than just their classroom. Teachers who hold a higher degree have learned more about specific areas of education. With more knowledge, comes the desire to be more involved in these specialized areas of interest, resulting in a desire for more influence. Many educators with higher degrees obtain those degrees in educational administration. Those specifically who hold administration degrees have a deeper understanding of the workings of administration. This deeper understanding of tasks outside of the classroom can create a desire to make a change (or at least have a say in) administrative functions. Also, a higher degree typically equates to higher pay. Higher pay means more responsibility. It is not the norm for people to expect their responsibilities to lessen when they earn an advanced degree. With the hard work of earning the degree, teachers feel a sense of entitlement in the sense that they feel they have earned the right to have more of a say in their work (even if the work isn't outlined in their job description).

Finally, the last control variable that had a significant effect was being white or Caucasian. This study showed that if a teacher is white or Caucasian, he or she desires more

influence than they perceive they have in the area of social tasks. However, based on the sample, this should not be considered a significant finding. Of the 322 participants, 245 (76%) reported being white or Caucasian, another 71 participants (22%) chose not to identify their racial/ethnic background, and only 6 participants (2%) reported their ethnicity to be anything other than white or Caucasian. Therefore, with respect to this study, it should be noted that no clear conclusions can be drawn based on race/ethnicity.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 General Discussion

In review, the objective of this study is to determine the receptiveness of teachers to leadership tasks distributed across various aspects of their work. Are teachers equally receptive to distributed leadership in all areas of their work, or are there areas where teachers want more or less influence? Current literature on distributed leadership focuses only on the leader's perspective. There is little to no literature that addresses teachers' (followers') perspective or preference. In order for the practice of distributed leadership to be effective, both leaders and followers need to be considered. This study addresses the previously ignored perspective of the followers.

Literature Contribution

This study contributes to the growing body of distributed leadership literature led by James P. Spillane. Specifically, this study builds upon the topics of how leadership tasks are distributed amongst members of the school community, the impact of varying forms of distributed leadership on the school community, and barriers to distributed leadership success. In addition, this study makes a contribution to situational leadership literature.

In Ingersoll's 2003 book, *Who Controls Teachers Work: Power and Accountability in America's Schools*, through an analysis of a wide variety of schools across the United States, he defines three types of decisions made in schools – administrative, social, and instructional. Not

only does Ingersoll define the types of decisions made, he also finds out how much influence teachers have over varying tasks within each decision-making type. Ingersoll's work seemed to spur on my study. The Schools and Staffing Survey that Ingersoll used for his research was adapted to address the follower gap in this study. Like Ingersoll, this study analyzed followers' perception of their current level of influence over specific tasks within the domains of administrative, social, and instructional decisions. Building on Ingersoll's work, this study went on to analyze followers' preference toward their ideal level of influence on the same specific tasks within each of those same domains. Because of this study, the impact of distributed leadership on followers' satisfaction within the three task domains is better understood.

The impact of varying forms of distributed leadership on the school community is another topic this study addresses and serves to further develop the current body of literature. As discussed in the literature review, the effectiveness of distributed leadership is difficult to determine. It is not simply a matter of attributing any one measure of a school's success directly to the use of distributed leadership. However, through this study, a correlation between the level of distributed leadership and the level of follower satisfaction within administrative, social, and instructional tasks is able to be made. This is an important contribution to current literature, since the follower has essentially been ignored to this point.

Throughout distributed leadership literature, barriers to success are outlined. One of those barriers addressed by this study is that distributed leadership may create more work for the leader. Mayrowitz (2008) argues that even when teachers are given leadership over a particular area, they may not indeed be effective leaders. However, previous studies did not address follower preference. When given leadership over a desired task, one may very well be more

effective than if given leadership over a less desirable task. This study more clearly defines where teachers want more influence over their work.

Another body of research this study adds to is situational leadership. Currently, situational leadership is one of the few theories of leadership that considers the follower in any way. According to Blanchard & Hersey (1996), the degree and type of control given to followers is related to the readiness level of the follower along with a matching leadership. Could it be that a follower's readiness level might correlate with their preference for influence within a certain domain or even specific task?

In summary, this study contributes to one major body of literature – distributed leadership. Within that body of research, this study adds to the topics of how leadership tasks are distributed amongst members of the school community, the impact of varying forms of distributed leadership on the school community, and barriers to distributed leadership success. In addition, this study adds to the body of situational leadership literature.

5.2 Major Findings and Implications for Practice

This study sought to determine whether teachers (followers) are equally receptive to leadership tasks being distributed in the various aspects of their work. Teachers' work has been broken down into three types of tasks by Ingersoll (2003) – administrative, social, and instructional. According to this study, distributed leadership does provide followers with the influence they think they need in the social tasks, but this is not the case within administrative or instructional tasks.

Administrative tasks include the following: allocating non-teaching duties, allocating school space, selecting administrators, hiring teachers, determining school schedule, determining class sizes, allocating discretionary funds, deciding teacher assignments, and establishing salary schedules. The administrative realm is not a place where giving more distributed leadership is needed. In general, followers should not have more influence in these tasks. It's not that followers don't desire more influence in this area. More influence over tasks in the administrative realm does not close the satisfaction gap.

There are two exceptions: those with a higher degree, and males. Within those two control groups, having more influence over administrative tasks did close the satisfaction gap. Although this study does not address why this might be, many educators with higher degrees do pursue higher degrees in educational administration. With this increased knowledge in the field, a desire for more influence is likely. In addition, males fill more administrative positions in education than they fill classroom teaching positions (by ratio). This may explain why giving males more influence over administrative tasks helps to close the satisfaction gap between perceived and ideal influence.

More distributed leadership also does not need to be given in the instructional tasks. These tasks include: establishing school curriculum, making educational innovations, selecting course texts, establishing grading standards, establishing course objectives, determining homework levels, selecting classroom concepts, and selecting teaching techniques. Although, according to this study, followers report to desire more influence in this arena, giving more influence is not needed. Giving more distributed leadership over instructional tasks does not close the gap between perceived and ideal influence. Traditionally, teachers do have the most influence over

these aspects of their work. There is no need to give more influence on these tasks – teachers already have it.

However, what this study did find, is that giving more distributed leadership over social functions does close the gap between perceived and ideal influence. Social tasks include: evaluating administrators, determining student expulsion, deciding to add/drop students, evaluating teachers, determining student tracking policy, determining faculty in-service, establishing classroom attendance policy, and determining rules for teachers' behavior. When given distributed leadership in these tasks, followers are most satisfied. These types of tasks help set norms for the building and closely affect teachers' work. Even though followers desire the least amount of influence in this domain, giving more influence does close the satisfaction gap.

A couple implications for practice can be determined from the findings of this study. As leaders decided which types of tasks to delegate (or at least provide more influence over), less focus should be on administrative and instructional tasks. More focus should be on giving more influence to followers in social tasks. Leaders should keep this in mind, even as they look at perceptual data they collect from their particular operating core. Based on this study, even though followers reported a desire for more influence over all three task types, giving them more influence does not close the satisfaction gap in administrative and instructional tasks. However, giving them more distributed leadership in social tasks does lessen the gap between ideal and perceived influence over social tasks. In addition to providing more influence in the social arena, leaders may consider providing more influence to those with higher degrees and males in administrative tasks. Providing leadership in administrative tasks to those with higher degrees, as

well, as males, also closes the gap between perceived actual influence and the desired level of influence.

Practically speaking, building leaders could conduct this survey with their staff each year. By doing so, principals could determine the preferences of their teachers. This study showed that teachers are not equally receptive to distributed leadership in all aspects of their work. Remember, distributed leadership assumes that teachers desire the influence they have. This is not necessarily true. For a building leader to gain the most positive effects from the utilization of distributed leadership, he or she needs to take into account followers' preferences. By using this survey as a tool, leaders could distribute leadership tasks where that increase in influence would make a real difference.

5.3 Key Limitations as Guideposts for Future Research

This study began to scratch the surface of analyzing the follower within the leadership/followership dynamic. However, there are some limitations to this study. The sample in this study is local, only taken from suburban settings, and fairly homogeneous. As discussed in chapter 3, the participants in this study are from two suburban school districts just south of Kansas City. The participants in the study are mostly Caucasian females (from those who reported). These are limitations because those within urban or rural districts, those from varied ethnic backgrounds, or those outside of this geographic region, may have responded differently to the survey questions. As further research is done, a larger, more heterogeneous sample should be considered and analyzed – urban, suburban, and rural districts from across the United States, with a wide variety of teacher composition.

Although several key control variables were taken into account, there are other measures that could have been included in this study. For example, instead of analyzing the sample as a whole, I could have analyzed the sample by grade level (elementary, middle, and high school). There may be perceptual differences depending on the level at which a person teaches. That was not analyzed. As this issue continues to be researched, one could ask, “Are teachers equally receptive to distributed leadership in all areas of their work at the elementary level? Middle school? High school?” Performance indicators could have been factored into the analysis as well. “Are there differences in preference between those who teach in high-performing schools and those who teach in low-performing schools?” In addition, I was unable to correlate teacher responses to their respective school. If I had, individual school effects could have been analyzed. Future research could incorporate individual school effects into their analysis. Along with that, a mixed-methods study could be employed – interviewing teachers along with the survey.

Finally, the key measures in this study are subjective. All of the data obtained is perceptual. There are no counterfactual controls, or schools without distributed leadership. This study is not longitudinal. It cannot test the effect of distributed leadership over time – although it does provide a basis for longitudinal study. This study was not designed to study an initiative. Future research on this topic could include some way to make the study more cross-sectional or objective – a means to control for variability between schools.

5.4 Summary

Although distributed leadership is a widely discussed topic in educational literature, the body of literature and study is incomplete. This study addresses one of the major gaps in

distributed leadership literature – the follower. The purpose of this study was to determine whether teachers are equally receptive to distributed leadership in all aspects of their work.

Followers report their desire for more influence over all three domains of their work – administrative, social, and instructional. However, as the study digs deeper, giving more distributed leadership in all three areas does not necessarily always matter. Giving more distributed leadership over administrative or instructional tasks does not have the desired effect of closing the satisfaction gap between perceived and ideal influence. The area where giving more distributed leadership has the most significant impact is within the social realm. In conclusion, studying the follower, who had previously been ignored, has provided new insight into making distributed leadership more effective.

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Appendix A

Survey

1. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

2. What is your racial/ethnic background? (Optional)

- African American
- Alaska Native
- Asian
- Hispanic
- Latino
- Native American
- Puerto Rican
- White Caucasian
- Other (please specify) _____

3. Which subject(s) do you teach this school year? (Select all that apply)

- Elective
- Language Arts
- Math
- Science
- Special Education
- Social Studies
- Other (please specify) _____

4. List your current non-teaching duties (i.e., committee involvement, mentor teacher, etc.).

5. Which grade(s) are you teaching this school year? (Select all that apply)

- K-2
- 3-4
- 5-6
- 7-8
- 9-10
- 11-12
- Other (please specify)

6. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-19
- 20+

7. How many years have you been employed at your current school?

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-19
- 20+

8. How many years have you held your current position?

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-19
- 20+

9. Which degree(s) have you acquired? (Select all that apply)

- Bachelor’s Degree
- Master’s Degree
- Specialist Degree
- Doctoral Degree

10. Which certification(s) do you have? (Select all that apply)

- Administrative certification
- National Board certification
- Probationary certification
- Regular or standard state certification
- Other (please specify) _____

11. Which grade level endorsement(s) do you have? (Select all that apply)

- Elementary
- Middle School
- High School
- Other (please specify)

12. Which subject endorsement(s) do you have? (Select all that apply)

	Language Arts	Math	Social Studies	History	Science	Elective	Other
Elementary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Middle	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High School	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

13. In this section, we inquire about the leadership dynamics at your schools. Use the scale of 1-5 where 1 means “Not at All” and 5 mean “A Lot”.

To what extent does school leadership...

	Not at All				A Lot
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Ensure teachers have a major role in curricular development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Enable staff to work together to achieve school goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facilitate staff participation in processes to promote innovation in the school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide opportunities for parents to participate in important decisions about their child’s education through a variety of venues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ensure teachers can freely express input and concerns to the administrators	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide opportunities for teachers to make and plan school decisions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ensure adequate resources are available to the school to develop its educational programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide regular opportunities for all stakeholders to review the school’s vision and purpose	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide opportunities for stakeholders to evaluate needs for academic development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

In this section, you will be asked two questions about tasks that have been labeled as “administrative”. First, you will be asked to identify how much influence you think teachers in your building have in each area. Then, you will be asked to identify the ideal amount of influence you would like to have in each area.

For both actual influence and ideal influence, use the scale of 1-5 where 1 means “Little to no influence” and 5 means “A great deal of influence”.

14. Actual Influence: Allocating nonteaching duties	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Allocating nonteaching duties	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

15. Actual Influence: Allocating school space	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Allocating school space	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

16. Actual Influence: Selecting administrators	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Selecting administrators	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

17. Actual Influence: Hiring teachers	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Hiring teachers	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

18. Actual Influence: Determining school schedule	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Determining school schedule	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

19. Actual Influence: Determining class size	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Determining class size	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

20. Actual Influence: Allocating discretionary funds	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Allocating discretionary funds	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

21. Actual Influence: Deciding teacher assignments	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○
Preferred Influence: Deciding teacher assignments	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○

22. Actual Influence: Establishing salary schedules	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○
Preferred Influence: Establishing salary schedules	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○

In this section, you will be asked two questions pertaining to “setting social norms”. First, you will be asked to identify how much influence you think teachers in your building have in each area. Then, you will be asked to identify the ideal amount of influence you would like to have in each area.

For both actual influence and ideal influence, use the scale of 1-5 where 1 means “Little to no influence” and 5 means “A great deal of influence”.

23. Actual Influence: Evaluating administrators	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Evaluating administrators	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

24. Actual Influence: Determining student expulsion	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Determining student expulsion	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

25. Actual Influence: Deciding to add/drop students	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Deciding to add/drop students	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

26. Actual Influence: Evaluating teachers	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Evaluating teachers	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

27. Actual Influence: Determining student tracking policy	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Determining student tracking policy	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

28. Actual Influence: Determining faculty in-service	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Determining faculty in-service	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

29. Actual Influence: Setting school discipline policy	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Setting school discipline policy	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

30. Actual Influence: Establishing classroom attendance policy	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○
Preferred Influence: Establishing classroom attendance policy	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○

31. Actual Influence: Determining classroom discipline policy	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○
Preferred Influence: Determining classroom discipline policy	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○

32. Actual Influence: Determining rules for teachers' behavior	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○
Preferred Influence: Determining rules for teachers' behavior	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○

In this section, you will be asked two questions about each “instructional” facet of your work. First, you will be asked to identify how much influence you think teachers in your building have in each area. Then, you will be asked to identify the ideal amount of influence you would like to have in each area.

For both actual influence and ideal influence, use the scale of 1-5 where 1 means “Little to no influence” and 5 means “A great deal of influence”.

33. Actual Influence: Establishing school curriculum	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Establishing school curriculum	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

34. Actual Influence: Making educational innovations	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Making educational innovations	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

35. Actual Influence: Selecting course texts	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Selecting course texts	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

36. Actual Influence: Establishing grading standards	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Establishing grading standards	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

37. Actual Influence: Establishing objectives for each course	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Establishing objectives for each course	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

38. Actual Influence: Determining homework levels	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Determining homework levels	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

39. Actual Influence: Selecting classroom concepts taught	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>
Preferred Influence: Selecting classroom concepts taught	1 <input type="radio"/>	2 <input type="radio"/>	3 <input type="radio"/>	4 <input type="radio"/>	5 <input type="radio"/>

40. Actual Influence: Selecting classroom teaching techniques	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○
Preferred Influence: Selecting classroom teaching techniques	1 ○	2 ○	3 ○	4 ○	5 ○