

The Relationship Between Building Teacher Leadership Capacity and Campus Culture

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The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed methods research study was to explore the relationship between building teacher leadership capacity and campus culture in a suburban East Texas school district. Developing teacher leaders by building leadership capacity depends on administrators' abilities to develop leaders from within the existing staff and to shape campus culture. Results of this mixed methods study yielded findings that identified a statistically significant relationship between teacher leadership capacity and campus culture. Leaders play a role in the culture of corporate and academic organizations, and culture is at the forefront of exemplary performance of both entities. Therefore, administrator and teacher leaders must view culture as a priority and understand that culture is a product of school leadership.

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Transforming good corporate organizations to great ones, requires strong, solid cultures that solicit the engagement of many organizational actors rather than relying solely on one leader for success (Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). This same transformation can be applied to schools. A common, shared purpose between campus administrators and staff can contribute to establishing a positive organizational culture that is built on collaborative problem solving and shared decision making to improve the school (Marzano, R., Waters, T., & McNulty, B., 2005). Cultural patterns shape and affect all aspects of a school (Bolman & Deal, 2008); therefore, administrators and teacher leaders should view culture as a priority in the school and understand it is a product of leadership (Schein, 2010).

Indicators of school culture include teacher collaboration, school vision, and an unified effort of fulfilling short and long-term goals; however, the most predictive element in developing school culture is its leadership (Kelley, Thornton, & Daugherty, 2005; Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; MacNeil, Prater, & Busch, 2009; Sahin, 2011). According to Fullan (2011), building teachers' leadership capacity is a precursor for collective leadership responsibility, specifically during times of organizational change or reform. A shared vision between teachers and administrators should center on the purpose of crafting positive change in the school system by building teacher leadership capacity (Eyal & Roth, 2011).

Various researchers have cited the concept of teacher leadership capacity as a major contributor to school improvement (Aladjem, D. K., Birman, B. F., Orland, M., Harr-Robins, J., Heredia, A., Parrish, T. B., & Ruffini, S. J., 2010, 2010; Bassi & McMurrer, 2007; Lambert, 1998, 2003, 2006; Murphy, 2011; Senge, 1990). To ensure effective systematic changes in a school organization, school leaders should adhere to best practices for school improvement that allows for and supports collaboration among all actors in an organization. One such model that supports this type of collaboration is the S.M.A.R.T goal school improvement model. The S.M.A.R.T. (S = specific, M = measurable, A = attainable, R = results-based, T = time bound) goal school improvement model integrates research-based components to build teacher leadership capacity through focus, reflection, and collaboration (Conzemius & Morganti-Fisher, 2012; O'Neill & Conzemius, 2006; Schmoker, 2006).

Statement of the Problem

For several decades, there has been little debate over the role leaders play in the culture of successful organizations (Bolman & Deal, 1997; Fullan, 2011, 2014; Schein, 2010). Conversely, an ongoing debate among educational researchers and practitioners questions whether leaders affect culture or whether they are affected by culture. Notwithstanding the merits of this debate, a fact that has been well substantiated in the empirical research is that school leaders' influence on school culture is considered a major contributing factor in school performance (Aladjem et al., 2010; Fullan, 2001, 2014; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Roby, 2011). Researchers have also noted that both teacher leadership and positive campus cultures are indicators of successful schools (Bolman & Deal, 2008; MacNeil et al., 2009; Marzano et al., 2005; Turan & Bektas, 2013; Wilhelm, 2013).

Even though evidence exists of factors leading to school improvement, a gap remains in understanding the relationship between teacher leadership capacity and campus culture within a school organization. More specifically, gaps exist in the current literature as to how schools build teacher leadership capacity in daily routines and how administrators create conditions to improve

cultural aspects related to teacher capacity building efforts (Bain, Walker, & Chan, 2011; Berry, 2014; Conzemius & Morganti-Fisher, 2012; Lambert, 1998, 2003, 2006). Additionally, minimal research exists that has explored teacher leadership in schools and campus cultures that support building teacher leadership capacity to maintain school improvement efforts (Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Bain et al., 2011; Berry, 2014; Blankstein, 2004; Collins, 2001; Fullan, 2005; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009; Marzano et al., 2005; Muijs & Harris, 2007; Preskill & Torres, 1999; Schein, 2010; Short, Greer, & Melvin, 1997).

Developing teacher leaders by building leadership capacity depends on administrators' abilities to develop leaders from existing school-level staff (Bell, Thacker, & Schargel, 2011) and to shape campus culture (Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011; Yost, Vogel, & Rosenberg, 2009). Neither the effects of teacher leadership capacity on campus culture nor the relationship between the two is explicitly documented in empirical research. However, it is evident that many returns exist in adopting the teacher leadership development mindset in school organizations despite teachers' experience levels (Jackson et al., 2010). For example, Harris and Muijs (2004) noted that teacher leadership correlates with both overall school improvement and the total effectiveness of teachers themselves. It has been noted in numerous empirical research studies that teachers desire opportunities to take on leadership roles, even novice teachers, particularly when they are provided with ongoing support (Harris & Muijs, 2004).

The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed methods research study was to explore the relationship between building teacher leadership capacity and campus culture. Research for this study was guided by the following questions:

1. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions of campus culture for teachers and administrators with varying levels of experience? 1-5 years of experience (a); 6-16 years of experience (b) and 17+ years of experience (c) respectively?
2. What are teachers' and administrators' perceptions of campus culture?
3. What are teachers' and administrators' perceptions of building teacher leadership capacity?

Methods

This study was conducted in two phases to explore the relationship between building teacher leadership capacity and campus culture. Phase I of this study aimed to address Research Question 1 using the Leadership Capacity School Survey (LCSS) and School Climate Assessment Instrument (SCAI) surveys. The LCSS is a self-assessment instrument of leadership dispositions, knowledge, and skills necessary to build teacher leadership capacity in school organizations (Lambert, 1998). The LCSS contains 30 questions clustered into six dimensions that are rated on a 5-point Likert scale. The six dimensions are (1) broad-based skillful participation in the work of leadership; (2) shared vision results in program coherence; (3) inquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practice; (4) roles and actions reflect broad involvement, collaboration, and collective responsibility; (5) reflective practice consistently leads to innovation; and (6) high or steadily improving student achievement and development. The reliability of the LCSS yielded a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.97 (Pierce, 2007).

The SCAI was designed to measure school climate, including its health, function, and performance (Shindler, J., Jones, A., Williams, A. D., Taylor, C., & Cardenas, H., 2009). The SCAI includes eight dimensions: (1) appearance and physical plant, (2) faculty relations, (3) student interactions, (4) leadership/decision making, (5) learning environment, (6) discipline

environment, (7) attitude and culture, and (8) school-community relations. Only three dimensions of the SCAI were used for this research: faculty relations, leadership/decision-making, attitude and culture. The three chosen SCAI dimensions were a better fit to address the research questions and were more aligned to the constructs of the S.M.A.R.T. goal school framework. The questions on the selected SCAI dimensions were rated on a 5-point Likert scale. The SCAI reliability, as measured by the Cronbach's Alpha, was 0.97 (Alliance for the Study of School Climate, 2011).

In Phase II, qualitative data were collected from two focus group interviews to address Research Questions 2 and 3. A semi-structured interview design for the teacher and administrator focus groups was used to gather participants' perceptions of teacher leadership capacity, campus culture, and the relationship between teacher leadership capacity and campus culture. Sixteen open-ended focus group questions were developed for use with teachers and administrators to elicit their perceptions of teacher leadership capacity and campus culture based on the overarching concepts found on the LCSS and SCAI survey dimensions, S.M.A.R.T. goal school improvement model, and the literature. Questions were grounded in the two theoretical frameworks of teacher leadership capacity and campus culture that allowed participants to draw on their personal experiences and share their perceptions of the two phenomena.

The qualitative data provided a greater depth of knowledge related to participants' perceptions and opinions of teacher leadership capacity and campus culture that could not be ascertained from closed ended responses asked on the quantitative surveys. Focus groups with teachers and administrators were conducted separately to understand, compare, and contrast the perceptions of teachers and administrators. The teachers were not included in the focus group with the administrators and vice versa. This design allowed teachers and administrators an opportunity to feel comfortable among their own peer groups to share more authentic detailed responses without fear of retribution or alienation.

The insights obtained from the focus group interviews produced a comprehensive narrative of teachers' and administrators' perceptions of teacher leadership capacity and campus culture in this district. Axial coding was used to disaggregate core themes from the focus group transcriptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Observed patterns, similarities, and differences in participants' responses were noted, categorized and grouped into interrelated and subordinate themes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008; Shank, 2006; Yin, 2009). Codes were developed that included teacher leadership capacity and campus culture. These codes were assigned to chunks of transcribed focus group data that included words, phrases, and sentences extracted from the transcripts. All codes were relative to the theoretical frameworks of culture and teacher leadership capacity.

Coded data were then recorded on a matrix developed by the researchers. The matrix design was created from the S.M.A.R.T. goal framework components and the dimensions of the SCAI and LCSS. The matrix bin labels for the rows and columns gave the researchers a visual representation of the coded themes to help better understand the data to answer Research Questions 2 and 3. The themes that emerged from participants' responses provided rich textual insight that helped to explain the quantitative results of the LCSS and SCAI data. Figure 1 provides a visual map of the methodological design of this mixed methods study.

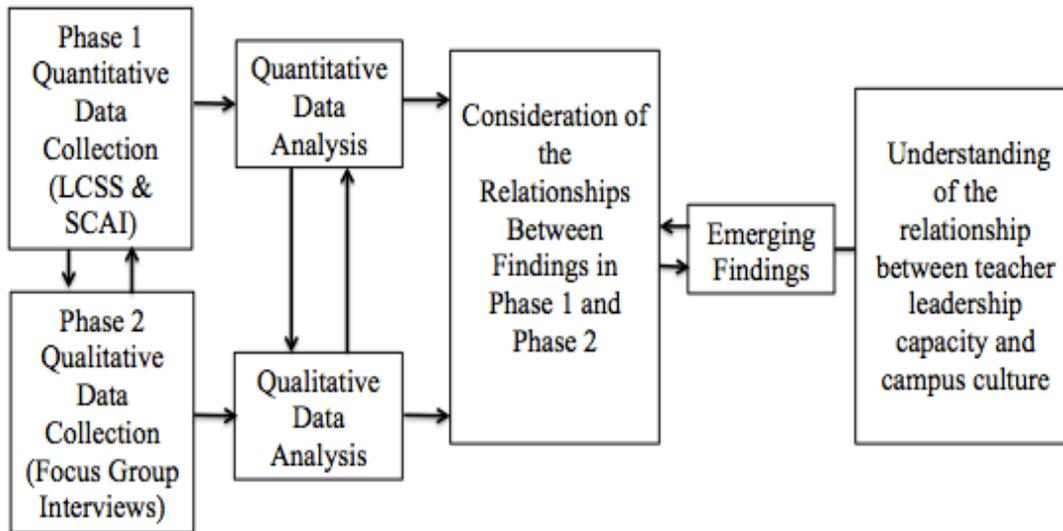


Figure 1. Flow chart depicting the explanatory sequential mixed methods research design (adapted from Castro et al., 2011).

Selection of Sample

A suburban Texas school district was selected as the site for this research whose mission was to foster teacher leadership capacity; to create a culture of trust, respect, and dignity where the staff feel valued; and to retain current staff and attract experienced staff. Specifically, this school district's mission was driven by the S.M.A.R.T. (S = specific, M = measurable, A = attainable, R = results-based, T = time bound) goal school improvement model.

This school district employed approximately 200 teachers and 12 campus administrators. The district is comprised of four Title I campuses (elementary PK-4, intermediate 5-6, junior high 7-8, and high school 9-12) that serve approximately 2,500 students.

The sample in the quantitative data collection Phase I included 98 teachers and six administrators for a total of 104 participants, which resulted in a survey return rate of 49%.

A purposeful random sampling was used for the qualitative phase of the study. The qualitative focus groups consisted of six teachers and five administrators. The qualitative sample in the sequential data collection was generated from teacher and administrator participants who completed the quantitative phase of the study and who indicated their interest in participating in the focus group interviews (teacher or administrator).

Related Literature

Building leadership capacity among teachers depends on the principal (Louis et al., 2010; Wilhelm, 2010). Capacity building allows teacher leaders to assume ownership in changing and enriching a campus culture to include continuous learning for all students and staff members (Roby, 2011). The individual role of administrators and teacher leaders cannot undervalue their collective role in determining campus culture (Roby, 2011).

Teachers and administrators who share in a common value system and purpose can facilitate the evolution of a culture of excellence within the school organization (McKinney, Labat, & Labat, 2015). A school improvement model, such as the S.M.A.R.T. (S = specific, M =

measurable, A = attainable, R = results-based, T = time bound) goal school framework, is a valuable tool to develop and sustain teacher leaders and to promote a positive school culture (Lambert, 2002; O'Neill & Conzemius, 2006).

S.M.A.R.T. Goal Framework for Building Teacher Leadership Capacity

The concept of S.M.A.R.T. goals was first identified in the management of business organizations (Doran, 1981) and was subsequently refined to meet the needs of school organizations. This school improvement model is a comprehensive and practical educational model for continuous improvement to compel change within the school system (Conzemius & Morganti-Fisher, 2012; O'Neill & Conzemius, 2006; Schmoker, 2006). The S.M.A.R.T. goal framework plays a significant role in shaping teacher leadership capacity.

Within the S.M.A.R.T. goal framework, teacher leaders emerge through their participation in organized professional learning designs. Principals use the S.M.A.R.T. goal framework to support and implement professional learning and shared decision making. Further, teachers become leaders by actively participating in decision-making processes. Through teacher empowerment, natural and nurtured leaders rise to the surface (Conzemius & Morganti-Fisher, 2012; O'Neill & Conzemius, 2006). Teacher leadership capacity in the sense of the S.M.A.R.T. goals framework focuses on skill development that empowers teachers to be purposeful and operative during the school day. Roby (2011) noted that teachers who are leaders become advocates of the school organization and, in turn, their own efficacy increases. A safe environment dedicated to developing teacher leaders is part of the S.M.A.R.T. goal school improvement process.

School Culture

School culture can be a roadblock or a catalyst in the evolution of building teacher leadership capacity (Mullen & Jones, 2008). Organizational change agents have recognized that leaders influence culture, whether in a business or school setting. In fact, Fullan (2001) identified a correlation between school leaders and the culture of the schools they led.

Culture is the nucleus of the school for all staff members, students, and parents, and the school leaders are responsible for the culture being positive or negative (Fullan, 2014). While leaders play a role in shaping school culture, school culture also shapes the staff (DuFour et al., 2008). Schools leaders, whether established or emerging, influence the culture of learning and the commitment of ongoing professional growth (Giancola & Hutchinson, 2005; Harris, 2011). Every school has a culture, and leaders must often drive cultural shifts. DuFour et al. (2008) suggested that meaningful, productive, and sustainable change would only come to fruition if it were fortified in the school culture.

Building Teacher Leadership Capacity

The act of building leadership capacity is not a new idea even though its implementation in schools is only beginning to emerge (Dinham & Crowther, 2011). The benefits of building teacher leadership capacity is noted in empirical research (Conzemius & O'Neill, 2006; Gray & Bishop, 2009; Lambert, 1998, 2002, 2003, 2006; Mullen & Jones, 2008; Schein, 2010; Wilhelm, 2010). The thoughtful support and pre-determined training a principal offers teachers with the potential to become leaders strengthens the entire campus and leads to meaningful organizational change. Recently, the campus principal has assumed the role of instructional leader; however, it is

recommended that the principal become a leadership developer as well to build teacher leadership capacity (Kurtz, 2009).

Teacher leadership capacity is defined as an opportunity for teachers to solve problems through observation and active participation (Gray & Bishop, 2009). Principals lead their campuses by assuming many roles. Thus, investing in the development of teacher leaders on a campus translates into principals' relinquishment of some control and trusting the skills and knowledge of their teachers. Principals can create systems that build teacher leader capacity, and principals can make conscious efforts to ensure that professional development is purposeful and intentional in building teacher leaders. As such, the principal's role in school leadership has evolved and changed to include building leaders. These new responsibilities require principals to implement diverse methods to groom teacher leaders (Slater, 2008).

Classroom teachers typically are not trained to lead unless an intentional focus is placed on building leadership capacity. Mullen and Jones (2008) confirmed in a qualitative case study that building leadership capacity contributes to the growth of teachers as leaders and affords them a sense of empowerment. Teachers do not normally take on leadership roles without the support and encouragement of their principals. Williams (2009) noted that both administrators and teachers must commit to sustain meaningful change. Thus, a teacher's acceptance and the principal's relinquishment of leadership responsibility is a transformation of traditional school practice. The educational literature points to the importance of dedication and commitment to the teacher leadership building process as a vital component of capacity building (Lambert, 1998, 2002, 2003, 2006; Louis et al., 2010; Schein, 2010; Wilhelm, 2010).

In general, education is an enterprise that centers on human dimensions and the expansion of human capacity, specifically leadership capacity. Teacher leadership is one facet that principals should place as a priority. According to Hallinger and Murphy (2013), "It has been increasingly clear that leadership at all levels of the system is the key lever for reform, especially for a leader who focuses on capacity building and the developing of other leaders who can carry on" (p. 16). A campus leader's devotion to building teacher leadership capacity among the staff is a means to achieve higher student performance and enable others to grow professionally through teacher leadership roles (Mullen & Jones, 2008).

Leadership involves many things, but ultimately, leadership is about learning (Lambert 1998, 2003). Through carefully designed professional development, the principal can refine teacher leaders' skills and increase the knowledge base of emerging leaders. Leadership skills demonstrated in PLCs, such as leading others, learning, and sharing alongside other professionals are critical components of building and sustaining teacher leadership capacity (Rezaei, Salehi, Shfie, & Sabet, 2012).

To build teacher leadership capacity that supports continual school improvement efforts, dynamic dialogue, and even uncomfortable discourse among professional leaders is inevitable. The social workings of professional development to build teacher leadership capacity must be done together, not in isolation. Professional learning capitalizes on the social components of learning for teacher leaders and the transformational leadership behaviors of principals, which amplify the development of teacher leadership capacity.

Sustaining Teacher Leadership Capacity Building

An administrator's approach to sustain teacher leadership capacity depends on the specific leadership opportunities granted to teachers, such as grade-level leader or department chair, which

are appointed roles in school districts. In addition, administrators must acknowledge the contribution of teachers who create leadership opportunities and lead without official titles to accompany their leadership acts (Lambert, 2000; Mullen & Jones, 2008). Informal teacher leadership opportunities stray from the traditional top-down hierarchy of leadership and build collective responsibility (Lambert, 2000). These informal teacher leadership opportunities can also serve to build sustainable leadership capacity within the school. Once systems and processes are in place, teacher leadership capacity becomes institutionalized in the culture (Abplanalp, 2007).

The teacher leader building commitment should put the needs of the school, students, and teachers at the forefront. School district leaders and campus principals should strategically emphasize the leadership capacities of individuals within established teams and the development of leadership skills during PLCs with teams of leaders. Gray and Bishop (2009) noted, “Teachers in leadership teams can create opportunities to engage a broader constituency in the work of improving a school” (p. 29). The collective efforts of administrators and teachers in the school improvement process will enhance the cycle of building and sustaining teacher leadership capacity.

Dinham and Crowther (2011) supports building teacher leadership capacity. The researchers recommend that administrators and teachers commit and participate in building, implementing, and sustaining leadership capacity so that meaningful change can occur. Developing teacher leadership capacity benefits everyone in the school system and does not exclusively lay in the hands of the principal to develop, implement, and sustain (Williams, 2009). Dinham and Crowther defined the core business of developing teacher leadership capacity as relating to the teacher’s direct teaching and learning that results not only in an investment to building leadership capacity, but also in sustaining that capacity within the school.

School leaders can create a platform in their respective schools where professional learning is supported and where a multitude of skill sets (e.g., leading change, focusing interventions, managing resources, improving instruction, and analyzing results) are developed and mastered (Gray & Bishop, 2009). The S.M.A.R.T. goal school improvement model outlines sustaining teacher leadership capacity and focusing on the skill development to empower teachers to be purposeful and operative in their leading. Teacher leaders focus on goals by participating in PLCs, supporting the school mission and beliefs, collaborating by sharing ideas, and reflecting on the goals that have been developed collaboratively. The communal vision held by all administrators and teacher leaders enhances the sustainment of teacher leadership capacity.

Conzemius and Morganti-Fisher (2012) identified five critical attributes that have a prevalent bearing on forming successful teams of teachers and administrators. First, team members must acknowledge that they share accountability equally for the success or failures they may encounter. Next, members commit to the agreed upon vision and hold that vision as the focus of all decision-making. Then, teachers and administrators build trust in each other. Administrators must share leadership with teachers, and teachers must accept leadership opportunities. Finally, professional learning must be a priority, and administrators and teachers must commit to learn continually through the S.M.A.R.T. goal process to build teacher leadership capacity.

Teacher Leaders

Teacher leaders lead within the realm of their classrooms and contribute to their school PLCs with the goal of continual school improvement at the forefront of their actions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Scholars have noted in the empirical research that teacher leadership enhances quality and teacher retention (Jackson, Burrus, Bassett, & Roberts, 2010). Teacher leaders who feel as though their voices are heard and who share in decision making will remain in their district.

Within the school improvement process, leaders need to be cognizant of the influence that initiatives, programs, and goals have on the school culture. Teacher leaders affect school culture; therefore, they should be engaged in the cultural shifts of their schools, and their contribution to the school culture should not be underestimated in comparison to the influence they have on instruction and student achievement (Roby, 2011).

Developing Teacher Leaders

Developing teacher leaders has emerged in the educational debates as a possible solution to support school improvement (Jackson et al., 2010). The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) and the Council for State School Officials recommended that teachers should be granted more leadership opportunities. Sharing responsibility requires leaders to include multiple leaders on a campus; however, teacher leaders must be supported and trained to lead and drive school improvement.

In 2008, an assembly of educators with the Center for Teacher Quality discussed strategies to recognize and promote teacher leadership. This gathering of teachers, administrators, policy organizations, higher education, and teacher unions resulted in the articulation of a philosophy that guided the development of standards for the Teacher Leader Model. These standards are comprised of broad domains that centralize the overarching dimensions of teacher leadership and describe the knowledge and skills that identify the characteristics of teacher leaders (Learning Forward, 2011).

To support the growth and advancement of teacher leaders, it is essential that administrators design, assign, and implement professional learning to allow teacher leaders to reflect on their respective leadership qualities (Conzemius & Morganti-Fisher, 2012). Desired professional learning should exist in job-embedded professional development arenas. According to Webster-Wright (2009), "To gain further insights to enhance support for professionals as they learn, there is a need to understand more about how professionals continue to learn through their working lives" (p. 75). Administrators and district officials can adopt the PLC philosophy and mold it to support teacher leadership development.

The paradigm shift of administrators accepting responsibility for creating more teacher leaders is becoming more commonplace. This shift encourages administrators to capitalize on teachers' strengths and rewards teachers for taking a proactive role in problem solving without being directed by their administrator (Kamarazuman, Kareem, Khuan, Awang, & Yunus, 2011). Furthermore, this shift in mindset and administrator practice supports a culture that values teachers' talents and recognizes the leadership potential in all teachers (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 3). The progressive mind shift and change of philosophy that administrators assume will help to solidify a partnership built on mutual respect (Blanchard, 2008).

Refining teacher leadership development will allow teachers to commit to the never-ending learning of leadership with the total school improvement process in mind (Fullan, 1994). As a result, the convention of developing teacher leaders requires a deeper understanding of the change process, greater responsibility of ownership of the decisions made, and confidence to challenge colleagues to take part in the same professional transformation. Similarly, as teachers evolve into leaders, they see a larger picture of the school improvement process and view outcomes differently because of the collaborative decision making process (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Principals can embrace the notion of building teacher leadership capacity by providing teachers who exhibit leadership potential with leadership opportunities (Senge, 2006).

Empowering teacher leaders enables principals to lead in a multi-dimensional fashion and positively affect continuous school-wide improvement (Byrne-Jimenez & Orr, 2012). Further, sharing leadership with teachers can result in school cultures that thrive as teachers are groomed to be leaders, afforded opportunities to build their own capacities and where principals foster safe environments for teacher capacity building (DuFour & Fullan, 2013; Wilhelm, 2013). To accomplish a school mission and meet school improvement goals, a teacher leadership culture must include the joint efforts of teachers and administrators.

Building teacher leadership capacity can be accomplished through several means, including structural, cultural, or relational approaches. Current literature lacks details on how school leaders build teacher leadership capacity and how they recognize the relationship of such leadership on campus culture (Bain et al., 2011; Berry, 2014; Conzemius & Morganti-Fisher, 2012; Lambert 1998, 2003, 2006). This lack of knowledge may be an indication of why teacher leadership opportunities are not prevalent in many school organizations (Berry, 2014) and why campus culture is often misunderstood.

Research Findings

The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed methods research study was to explore the relationship between building teacher leadership capacity and campus culture in a suburban Texas school district. This purpose was achieved by analyzing quantitative and qualitative data obtained sequentially in two phases from certified teachers and administrators in a suburban Texas school district. The school district adopted the S.M.A.R.T. (S = specific, M = measurable, A = attainable, R = results-based, T = time bound) goal school improvement model to build teacher leadership capacity and to promote a positive culture. One quantitative research question and two qualitative research questions guided this research.

Quantitative Phase I Findings

Mean scores and standard deviations for each of the three dimensions of the SCAI were calculated for both teachers and administrators. The SCAI consisted of 10 questions on faculty relations, 11 questions on leadership/decisions, and 10 questions on attitude and culture. All questions were answered using a Likert scale; anchors included 1 = *accidental actions*; 3 = *semi-intentional actions*; 5 = *intentional actions*.

SCAI

The faculty relations dimension yielded the highest mean score of 4.07 ($SD = .55$) for teachers and administrators combined and the highest mean score of 4.09 for teachers ($SD = 0.54$), but the lowest for administrators ($M = 3.80$; $SD = 0.73$). The highest mean score for administrators was attitude/culture ($M = 4.0$; $SD = 0.61$); however, this dimension was the lowest for teachers ($M = 3.59$; $SD = .51$). For teachers and administrators combined, the attitude/culture dimensions had a mean score of 3.61 ($SD = .53$). The leadership/decisions dimension for teachers was 3.98 ($SD = .57$), and the mean score for administrators was 3.97 ($SD = .67$). The combined mean score for teachers and administrators in the leadership/decision dimension was 3.98 ($SD = .57$).

LCSS

The LCSS uses a Likert scale of 1 = *We do not do this at our school*; 2 = *We are starting to move this direction*; 3 = *We are making good progress here*; 4 = *We have this condition well*

established; 5 = *We are refining our practice in this area*. The highest mean score for teachers on the six LCSS dimensions was 3.83 ($SD = .69$) for the inquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practice dimension. The lowest mean score for teachers was 3.47 ($SD = .70$) for reflective practices that consistently lead to innovation dimension. Teachers' scores on the LCSS reflected different perceptions from the administrators. Two different dimensions received the highest and the lowest mean scores for administrators' perceptions of building leadership capacity. Specifically, the highest mean score for administrators was 3.91 ($SD = .89$) for the broad based, which included skillful participation in the leadership dimension. The lowest mean score for administrators was 3.54 ($SD = .87$) in the dimension of shared vision resulting in program coherence.

RQ1. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions of campus culture?

The relationship between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions of campus culture was statistically significant. A canonical correlation analysis (CAA) was conducted using the six leadership capacity variables as predictors of the three campus culture variables to evaluate the multivariate shared relationship between the two variable sets (i.e., leadership capacity and campus culture). The analysis yielded three functions with squared canonical correlations (R^2_c) of .522, .060, and .022 for each successive function.

The full model across all functions was statistically significant using the Wilks's lambda (λ) = .439 criterion, $F(18, 269.2) = 5.05, p < .001$; 56% of the variance is shared between the two variable sets across all functions, which is a large effect size. The variables of shared vision, inquiry-based, and roles and actions were the primary contributors to the leadership capacity predictor synthetic variable. Leadership/decisions was determined to be the primary contributor to the campus culture synthetic variable. A significant relationship existed between the synthetic variables of teacher leadership capacity and campus culture as 56% of variance was captured by the first function of the CCA. Figure 2 illustrates the canonical solution for the synthetic variables for this research question.

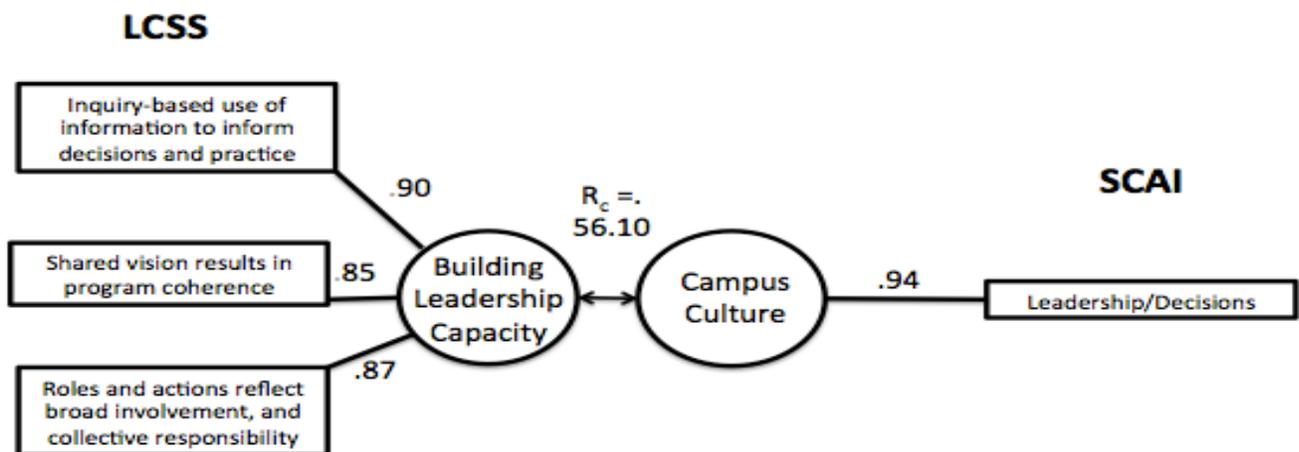


Figure 2. Canonical solution for building leadership capacity predicting campus culture.

RQ1a. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions of campus culture for teachers and administrators with 1-5 years of experience?

The relationship between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions for campus culture for teachers with 1-5 years of teaching experience was statistically significant. The analysis for Group 1 (1-5 years of teaching experience) yielded three functions with squared canonical correlations (R^2_c) of .488, .277, and .172 for each successive function. Collectively, the full model across all functions was statistically significant using the Wilks's lambda (λ) = .307, $F(18, 65.54) = 1.88, p = .033$. For the set of three canonical functions, the effect size was $1 - .307 = .693$; 69% of the variance in the two variable sets was shared across all functions, and the effect size was large (Cohen, 1988). The leadership/decisions variable was a primary contributor to the campus culture synthetic variable. A statistically significant relationship existed between the synthetic variables of leadership capacity and campus culture, as 69% of the variance was captured by the first function of the canonical correlation analysis (see Figure 3).

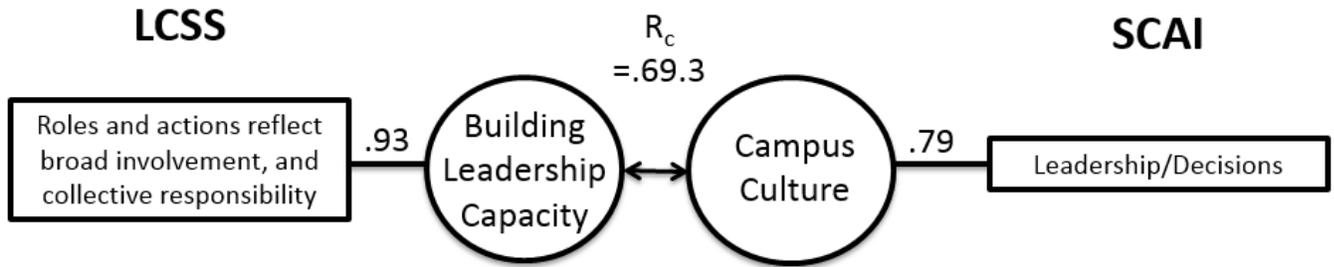


Figure 3. Canonical solution for building leadership capacity predicting campus culture for Group 1 = 1-5 years of teaching experience.

RQ1b. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions of campus culture for teachers and administrators with 6-16 years of experience?

The relationship between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions of campus culture for teachers with 6-16 years of teaching experience was statistically significant. The analysis for Group 2 (6-16 years of teaching experience) yielded three functions with squared canonical correlations (R^2_c) of .750, .268, and .065 for each successive function. Collectively, the full model was statistically significant across all functions using the Wilks's lambda (λ) = .171, $F(18, 88.17) = 4.24, p < .001$. For the set of three canonical functions, the effect size was $1 - .171 = .829$; 83% of the variance in the two variable sets was shared across all functions and yielded a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The leadership/decisions variable was the primary contributor to the campus culture synthetic variable. A statistically significant relationship existed between the synthetic variables of leadership capacity and campus culture as 83% of the variance was captured by the first function of the canonical correlation analysis (see Figure 4).

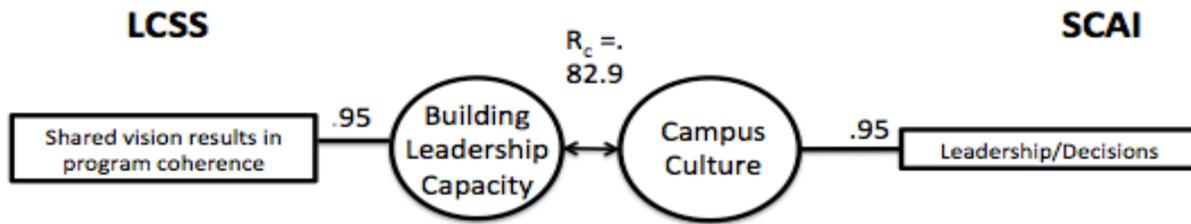


Figure 4. The canonical solution for building leadership capacity predicting campus culture for Group 2 = 6-16 years of teaching experience.

RQ1c. Does a statistically significant relationship exist between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions of campus culture for teachers and administrators with 17+ years of experience?

The relationship between the dimensions of teacher leadership capacity and the dimensions of campus culture for teachers with 17+ years of teaching experience was statistically significant. The analysis for Group 3 (17+ years of teaching experience) yielded three functions with squared canonical correlations (R^2_c) of .644, .076, and .032 for each successive function. Collectively, the full model across all functions was statistically significant using the Wilks's lambda (λ) = .318, $F(18, 65.54) = 1.49, p = .1.81$. For the set of three canonical functions, the effect size was $1 - .318 = .682$; 68% of the variance in the two variable sets was shared across all functions and yielded a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The full model (Functions 1 to 3) was statistically significant. Function 2 to 3, $F(10, 48) = 0.273, p = .984$, was not statistically significant. Function 3, which is the only function tested in isolation, did not explain a statistically significant amount of shared variance between the variable sets, $F(4, 25) = .205, p = .684$. The variables of roles/actions and broad-based were the primary contributors to the leadership capacity predictor synthetic variable. All three variables of leadership/decisions, faculty relations, and attitude and culture met the rule of thumb of $|.45|$ to be considered significant (Stevens, 2009). A statistically significant relationship existed between the synthetic variables of leadership capacity and campus culture for teachers and administrators with 17+ years of experience as 68% of the variance was captured by the first function of the CCA (see Figure 5).

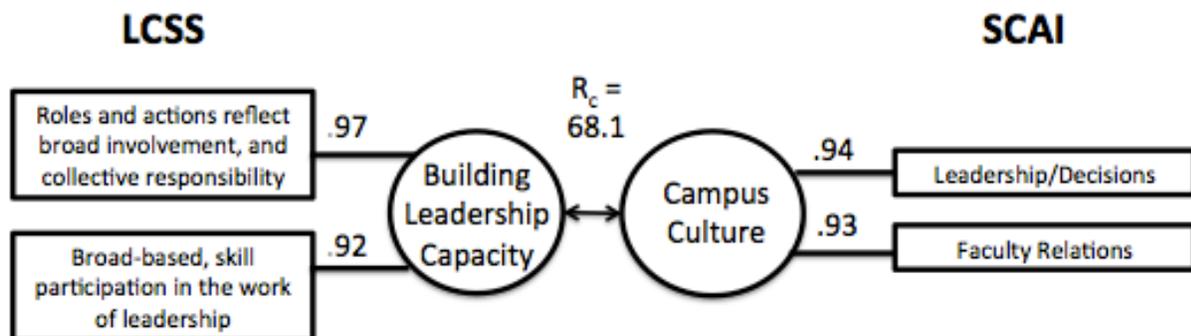


Figure 5. The canonical solution for building leadership capacity predicting campus culture for Group 3 = 17+ years of teaching experience.

Significant statistical relationships were found between the synthetic variables for leadership capacity and campus culture for each experience group. Table 1 details the LCSS and SCAI commonalities and differences in the squared structure coefficients (r_s^2) of the separate experience groups based on the statistical analyses for Research Questions 1(a-c).

Table 1
Significant Leadership Capacity and School Culture Variables for Experience: Groups 1-3

Instrument	Group 1: 1-5 Years	Group 2: 6-16 Years	Group 3: 17+Years
LCSS	Roles/Actions ($r_s^2 = 59.8\%$)	Shared Vision ($r_s^2 = 90.3\%$)	Roles/Actions ($r_s^2 = 93.7\%$)
			Broad-based ($r_s^2 = 85.0\%$)
SCAI	Leadership/Decisions ($r_s^2 = 61.9\%$)	Leadership/Decisions ($r_s^2 = 90.6\%$)	Leadership/Decisions ($r_s^2 = 88.7.6\%$)
			Faculty Relations ($r_s^2 = 85.5\%$)

Note. r_s^2 = squared structure coefficient.

Qualitative Phase II Findings

Common and subordinate themes were identified from the teacher and administrator focus group interviews that enriched and explained the quantitative data from the SCAI and LCSS surveys. Both the S.M.A.R.T. goal framework and participants' responses included shared vocabulary such as focus, collaboration, and reflection. These actions are specific to the goal of building teacher leadership capacity and improving the culture of the school organization.

Focus group responses from both teachers and administrators included the same vocabulary that is embedded in the SCAI and LCSS instruments. For example, focus, collaboration, trust, modeling, time, and voice resonated in participants' responses. In addition, participants' responses were aligned to the specific components of the school improvement model adopted by the district.

RQ2. What are teachers' and administrators' perceptions of their own campus culture?

The analysis of data from the focus group interviews resulted in the identification of two themes and five subordinate themes directly related to Research Question 2. The themes are reported in (see Table 2).

Table 1
Research Question 2 Themes and Subordinate Themes

Themes	Subordinate Themes
Administrative Leadership	Empowerment Modeling
Time	Collaboration Shared Focus Reflection

Administrative leadership. Data on teacher’s perceptions obtained from the SCAI revealed that different leadership styles fostered positive campus cultures. Participants’ were asked to expound on their beliefs about their administrators’ influence of campus culture. For example, one respondent stated:

The environment you walk into. You can feel the different cultures on campuses. It is because of who the leader is in charge and how they set the culture and the tone for that campus, but they all work and it is very interesting to see that.

Another respondent shared, “Each campus is different. You can feel the different cultures on each campus within the district.”

Administrative leadership emerged as a theme for both focus groups. All six teachers agreed that campus leadership contributed to campus culture. Each campus in the district has formal teacher leadership roles such as grade level facilitator, grade level leader, team leader, or department head appointed by the campus principal. According to one respondent, “Teacher leaders make a huge impact on campus culture.” Another respondent added, “I think by having teachers see other teachers as leaders, it helps build a culture, a positive culture.”

Subordinate: Empowerment and modeling. Participants were asked to think back over the past year that they had been employed by their district, and to share from their perspective how culture had been impacted by the empowerment of teacher leaders. One respondent referred to colleagues enabling new teachers to lead and stated, “Other teachers empowered a teacher to be that leader.” Another respondent mentioned the importance of modeling by administrators in the district, which empowers teacher leaders to assume leadership capacity roles on campus. According to these participants, the notion of empowerment affected the campus culture positively. All teachers agreed that administrative leadership, modeling, and empowering teachers to be leaders influenced the culture.

Time. Time gave rise to both subordinate themes. Both teachers and administrators indicated that without time, collaboration and focus would not have been as deliberate. Providing teachers and administrators time during the school day added to the campus culture and provided a purposeful opportunity to build teacher leaders.

Subordinate: Collaboration, focus, reflection. Teachers discussed the subordinate themes of collaboration and focus, while administrators discussed collaboration, focus, and reflection on a deeper level. During the administrator focus group interview, dedicating time for teachers was mentioned as it related to the chosen district. Every teacher was given a 50-minute block of time each day dedicated to collaboration and planning in addition to their conference period. An administrator acknowledged that reflection and collaboration would happen, but it

would not be as intentional if it were not for the built-in time during the school day. Reflection was associated with the time the district designated for collaboration. Reflection time for teachers promoted a culture supportive of their need to examine past mistakes to avoid repeating them or to celebrate successes so that they may be repeated in the school improvement process. Participants referred to a shared focus between all campuses in the district in relation to the S.M.A.R.T. goals school improvement model. A common focus was conducive to a positive culture and ensured everyone was committed to the goals set forth by the district. Administrators and teacher leaders who collaborated to develop the vision of both the campus and district took ownership and pride in the work required to accomplish the established goals.

RQ3. What are teachers' and administrators' perceptions of building teacher leadership capacity within their own district?

Main and subordinate themes resonated in the teacher and administrator focus group interviews that enriched and illuminated the quantitative data from the LCSS survey (see Table 3). The theme of leadership opportunities led to more specificity in the subordinate themes, which pinpointed the differences between formal and informal opportunities and the level of teacher experience regarding leadership roles. The subthemes of trust and relationships evolved from the theme of voice.

Table 2
Research Question 3 Themes and Subordinate Themes

Themes	Subordinate Themes
Leadership Opportunities	Formal Leadership Opportunities Informal Leadership Opportunities Experience of Teacher
Voice	Trust Relationships

Leadership opportunities. Leadership opportunities included the subordinate themes of formal leadership, informal leadership, and experience of teachers. Administrators and teachers had differing perceptions of leadership opportunities provided to teachers in the district. The teachers unanimously agreed that they did not feel the district provided many opportunities for teachers to lead in formal roles. They felt the district did not provide many opportunities for teachers to assume formal leadership roles, but there were an abundance of informal opportunities available. Participants identified formal roles as those roles with a title; however, they pointed out that those in informal leadership roles assumed just as much responsibility without the formal assignment. Teachers also discussed years of experience and the role of the administrator in developing leadership. Teachers believed that years of teaching experience should not be a deciding factor for an administrator when making decisions about leadership development and assigning a teacher as a formal leader.

Administrators discussed the themes of leadership opportunities and the subordinate themes of formal leadership opportunities, informal leadership opportunities, and the experience level of the teacher. These administrators conveyed differing perceptions about leadership opportunities compared to the teachers. All five administrators agreed that the district provided teachers

abundant opportunities to take on leadership roles, which was in sharp contrast to teachers' perceptions. All administrators agreed that teachers must be given opportunities, but they have to be accompanied by other things. Administrators distinguished between formal and informal leadership roles, and four of the five administrators mentioned these roles specifically.

Only one administrator mentioned formal leadership in terms of teacher experience, while years of experience was a focal point during the teacher focus group interview. Teachers believed that if teachers were on a term contract (3 years employed in the district or taught 5 of the last 8 years in a public school) that it made a difference in whether one was chosen to be in a leadership role, whereas administrators expressed that they did not exclude teachers with fewer years of experience.

Voice. The final theme was voice with subordinate themes of trust and relationships. During the administrator focus group discussion, the theme of voice morphed into the subordinate themes of trust and relationships for the remainder of the administrator focus group interview. Several administrators referenced the subordinate theme of relationships between teacher leaders and administrators. The relationship between the teacher leader and administrator cannot be empty, and conversations must be full of trust. Fostering a positive, supportive relationship may be a tool administrators use to overcome the difficulty of building teacher leadership capacity. Similarly, the theme of voice was brought to light early in the teacher focus group interview and it resonated throughout the focus group interview.

Discussion

Research Question 1 indicated a statistically significant relationship between the dimension of roles and actions that reflect the collective responsibility within the building leadership capacity variable in relation to the dimension of leadership and decision-making processes within the campus culture variable. Focus group responses from teachers and administrators validated these variables. Building teacher leadership capacity yielded a significant statistical relationship with campus culture, however this relationship fluctuated when examined through the various experience levels of teachers.

Teachers in the district who had the least amount of experience (Group 1: 1-5 Years) and those with the most experience (Group 3: 17+ Years) indicated the importance of having a cycle of information to support their decisions and reflecting and collaborating with others during a time devoted to dialogue. These two groups also indicated their need for collective responsibility, broad involvement of everyone, and plans that outlined the school vision. The shared priorities of these two experience groups indicated that, despite their difference in years of experience, they valued and desired to be a part of decision-making leadership teams. These groups of teachers did not require or request official leadership titles, but rather would serve as leaders alongside every teacher on the campus and accept responsibility together for successes or failures. Implementation of the school improvement framework (S.M.A.R.T. goals) indicated that teachers with the least and most teaching experience embraced the framework components of collaboration, focus, and reflection. District capacity building efforts for teachers who were new to the profession and those who are experienced offered evidence of the power of establishing teacher leaders regardless of teaching experience.

Teachers in Group 2 (6-16 years of experience) focused on the shared vision of not only the campus, but of the entire district. Establishing the campus vision, collective development of goals, and aligning standards outweighed the other dimensions of leadership capacity. Group 2 accounted for the largest participation group ($n = 40$), and their responses regarding teacher leadership

capacity and campus culture were clearly expressed in both the surveys and the focus group interviews. Four of the six teachers in the focus group interview had between 6-16 years of teaching experience. The priorities of Group 2 were detail-oriented and required modeling leadership from the top-down as well as empowering their own voices in decision making on the campus and within the district.

The perceptions of Groups 1, 2, and 3 were similar regarding the leadership/decisions dimension of campus culture. All three groups expressed their value of the campus leader, specifically the principal. These groups, despite their range of experience, looked upon the leader to model, empower, collaborate, and provide opportunities for growth of all teachers. Campus leadership is an indicator of campus culture. This shared perception was grounded in the capacity building efforts adopted by the district through its school improvement model.

Group 3 (17+ years of experience) indicated that faculty relations were important in establishing and sustaining a positive campus culture. This experience group had years of interactions with a sundry of diverse colleagues, teacher leaders, and administrators. Their perceptions of school culture were also fueled by relationships between teachers, collaboration between teachers and administrators, a high level of respect for each other and the profession, and an appreciation of a collective problem-solving approach.

For example, the first statement on the SCAI survey highlighted collaboration among faculty on a campus and the relationships they had with each other. Over half (51%) of all participants (teachers and administrators) ranked this statement as high. This positive acknowledgment of collaboration was also echoed in the subordinate theme of collaboration that emerged during the focus groups. The administrators also elaborated on the collaboration topic. One administrator pointed out that every campus had a schedule designed to support collaboration during the school day. An elementary administrator specifically referred to the collaboration component of the S.M.A.R.T. goal school improvement model. Time was also a major theme that emerged in both focus group interviews. A secondary administrator pointed out the intentionality of the use of time, while an elementary teacher stressed how time was valuable for collaboration to occur with colleagues and administrators.

Differences on the LCSS survey were confirmed during the focus group interviews. Teachers' and administrators' perceptions of leadership roles were vastly dissimilar as indicated by their responses: "How is leadership outside of an assigned leadership role encouraged?" One elementary teacher, who had the least amount of teaching experience, stated, "If given the opportunity for everyone to lead, maybe there wouldn't be a need for all the titles because we would all share the responsibility." The teachers felt as though formal leadership roles were limited in the district, but informal leadership roles provided more opportunities for them to lead. A secondary teacher noted that when one person is assigned the formal leadership role, others are then excluded from the opportunity to be teacher leaders. Administrators' perceptions did not align with the teachers regarding leadership opportunities within the district. Several administrators gave examples of how teachers were afforded opportunities to be teacher leaders within the district. One administrator said, "The one thing we have had is consistent leadership opportunities." Both focus groups drew attention to formal and informal leadership roles, and both groups agreed that they contributed to building leadership capacity on their campuses. These opposing perceptions and beliefs gave rise to the leadership opportunity theme and the subordinate themes of formal and informal leadership opportunities.

Conclusions

One quarter of U.S. school administrators resign their campus leadership positions each year. This temporary absence in leadership results in a hiatus of the school improvement process and culture changing schemas propelled by the departing administrators (School Leaders Network, 2014). The negative impact of this leadership void can be minimized by administrators embracing practices that build teacher leadership capacity. Findings from this research study yielded a statistically significant relationship between all teacher and administrator groups, regardless of experience levels, participants had different perceptions of experience regarding the relationship between teacher leadership capacity and campus culture. Specifically, teachers and administrators who had the most and least amount of experience (1-5 years and 17+ years) indicated a desire for leadership to be shared between all teachers and administrators on campus as well as a cycle of information to be communicated between all stakeholders to support understanding and decision making. Additionally, leader titles were not needed for teachers to perceive themselves as leaders on campus. Teachers and administrators also celebrated successes and found solutions to problems side-by-side. This collective acceptance of responsibility created cultures that valued all leadership and included everyone as a leader.

Teachers and administrators who had 6-16 years of experience focused on establishing a shared vision to include shared decision making. These participants wanted leadership roles, whether informal or formal, and they felt that modeling leadership skills was a vital component of building teacher leadership capacity. Those in the 6-16 years of experience group also wanted everyone's voice to be heard, and strong relationships forged among all administrators and teachers to promote positive campus cultures. Collectively, the school organizational structure, specifically, the master teaching schedule, substantiated the importance of building teacher leaders and contributed to the positive culture consisting of collaborative actions among all teachers and administrators. The master schedule on each campus includes a 50 minute collaboration period for every teacher. In addition, the data revealed that teachers valued opportunities to become leaders; however, teachers and administrators perceived the number of opportunities provided by the district differently.

Evidence from this study suggests that teachers and administrators value the same characteristics regarding leadership capacity and campus culture. Specifically, both stakeholders connect positive campus culture with campuses that value building teachers' leadership capacity. Developing teacher leaders and cultivating a positive school culture should be rooted in the school community and stated in the district mission (Lambert, 2002). The results of this research further support the idea that administrators can either be catalysts or obstacles to developing teacher leaders, as they are the key factors to establishing the campus culture (Kelley et al., 2005; Leithwood et al., 2004; MacNeil et al., 2009; Sahin, 2011).

Implications for Practice

This research study was designed to explore the relationship between building teacher leadership capacity and campus culture. The results of this mixed methods study led to several essential implications. School administrators, school board members, and teachers interested in the relationship between teacher leadership capacity and campus culture will find foundational information in this study.

The first implication from this research lies in sharing responsibility among all staff and administrators to intentionally create a collaborative team mindset and to include all teachers

without hierarchal barriers to overcome. The redistribution of responsibility supports the literature that has noted the required commitment of both administrators and teachers in the change process (Fullan, 2011). Further, the written vision of the district must match its practice. A school improvement model, such as the S.M.A.R.T. goal framework, to build teacher leadership capacity must be met with commitment, not compliance, of every stakeholder. As leadership multiplies, school culture evolves and becomes more unified toward a shared vision (Conzemius & Morganti-Fisher, 2012; O'Neill & Conzemius, 2006). This commitment demands the involvement of all teachers and administrators to improve campus culture.

The findings of this study further suggest that administrators should strive to understand the different leadership desires of teachers according to years of teaching experience. When building leadership capacity, administrators should be mindful of the leadership potential of all teachers, despite their years of experience (Quinn, C. L., Haggard, C. S., & Ford, B. A., 2006). This finding implies that administrators should hear the voice of all teachers, regardless of years of experience, and leadership roles should be based on teachers' leadership qualities. Administrators can enhance or stunt the professional growth of potential leaders by allocating leadership assignments based only on tenure (Balkar, 2015). Administrators should also understand that teacher leadership does not require a title; rather, administrators should recognize that leaders with titles are not the only opinions that should be considered in the decision-making process (Jackson, et al., 2010; Muijs & Harris, 2007).

In general, teachers' professional growth may occur in PLCs structured to protect and foster teacher learning. The PLC should be empowering and collaborative; therefore, the transformational leadership style could be conducive to administrators in developing teacher leaders (DuFour, 2014; Savage, 2009; Sosik & Dionne, 1997; Van Eden, R., Ciller, F., & van Deventer, V., 2008). This implication is nested in changing administrators' mindsets from only experienced teachers serving in leadership roles to all teachers, regardless of years of experience, becoming teacher leaders, which will influence campus culture.

The results of this research support the idea that school culture is the nucleus of the school for all staff members (Fullan, 2014). Taken together and in close connection to intentional PLC learning environments, the current findings implicate the justification and importance of a designated time for both teachers and administrators to collaborate, establish and sustain a shared focus, and reflect on the past. This protected time can promote a positive campus culture. Teacher empowerment that arises from new leadership opportunities can also promote a positive culture of collective responsibility and accountability (Balkar, 2015; Fullan, 2014; Kelley et al., 2005; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011; MacNeil et al., 2009; Sahin, 2011).

This research revealed that actions to build leadership capacity are communicated through the adopted S.M.A.R.T. goal school improvement model. Another implication of this research is the possibility that school districts that adopt a school improvement model concentrated on shared responsibility and capacity building of teacher leaders can change the campus culture. A district that is committed to implementing such a framework can create a unified vision that is not only documented in policy, but also witnessed in teacher and administrator practices. Business models that emphasize building capacity can be adapted to fit the school organization to build teacher leadership capacity (O'Neill & Conzemius, 2006). The world's most admired companies that build leaders from within ensure both the individual growth of the employee and the collective growth of the company (Dinham & Crowther, 2011; Murphy, 2011). Thus, such models can be transferred into the success of teachers and school organizations.

Recommendations for Further Study

Based on the findings from this research, further research is needed to clarify the relationship between teacher leadership capacity and campus culture of schools that have adopted the S.M.A.R.T. goal school improvement model. For example, this study could be replicated in urban or rural school districts that employ the S.M.A.R.T. goal school improvement model to encompass a larger sample with various demographics.

Another recommendation for future research would be the coupling of teachers' and administrators' perceptions of building leadership capacity after a full year of the new teacher evaluation instrument, Texas Teacher Evaluation Support System (T-TESS). T-TESS is a growth model evaluation instrument designed to provide ongoing feedback to teachers to ensure continuous professional growth. Building teacher leadership capacity requires a partnership between teachers and principals. This growth model aims to cultivate teacher leadership capacity (Texas Education Agency, 2014). Further, principals have to shape opportunities for teachers to act as teacher leaders within and outside of their schools. As such, teachers have to embrace leadership opportunities to be rated at the highest distinguished evaluative indicator on the T-TESS instrument. This format will be a new norm for both principals and teachers to share the goal of building teacher leadership, regardless of years of experience or current leadership role. Additionally, this teacher leadership indicator requires a mutual understanding of teacher leadership as defined in the T-TESS rubric. This level of teacher and administrator understanding could be assessed by replicating this study to gain a better understanding of the changed relationships between teacher leadership capacity and campus culture after T-TESS implementation.

The third recommendation would be to assess teachers' perceptions of campus culture before and one year after the T-TESS is implemented to explore the relationship between building teacher leadership and campus culture. These data could serve as the foundation for a collection of longitudinal data regarding the teacher leadership requirement of the T-TESS and its relationship to campus culture.

Lastly, separate bodies of research exist for building leadership capacity and campus culture in schools. A dire need exists for researchers to investigate the relationship between building teacher leadership and campus culture.

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