NEW TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHER LEADERS: TRUST IN THE EDUCATIONAL SETTING

by

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Abstract

In the era of increased accountability in education, there has been a specific movement by school systems to increase the professional development opportunities for new teachers in an attempt to support and retain them. Schools have put a strong focus on the use of teacher leaders as a method to support the needs of new teachers. Understanding the relationship between the use of formal teacher leaders and new teacher development will assist schools in meeting higher standards. This study considered the role of trust in the relationship between new teachers and their teacher leaders. Specifically, this study aimed to explore how the role of trust affected the perceptions new teachers hold for their teacher leaders.

Using a qualitative case study design, the researcher gathered and analyzed data from the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), the Teacher Leadership School Survey (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005), along with interviews and focus groups to eight new teachers in two Pre-K-8 schools. The researcher identified those characteristics that new teachers found most beneficial in their teacher leaders and how the presence or absence of trust affected their perceptions.

Study findings support the proposition that trust has an effect on the relationships new teachers build with their teacher leaders, the support new teachers seek from their teacher leaders, as well as the benefit of teacher leadership roles for new teacher development. The researcher begins to advance a theoretical framework that describes the need to improve the methods in which teacher leadership programs influence new teacher professional development within schools.

Keywords: academic coach, mentor, new teacher, new teacher job satisfaction, new teacher retention, new teacher skills, new teacher knowledge, teacher leader, trust
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Chapter I: Introduction

A significant number of research studies show that student achievement is affected by retention of well-prepared teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Teachers new to the field of education need time and support to build their skills as it takes years to build their capacities (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Teacher effectiveness has been found to increase during the first three years of teaching (Kain & Singleton, 1996). Alarmingly, statistics show that the first few years of a new teacher’s career are the most crucial in determining whether or not a teacher will remain in the profession (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2015). Turnover rates of the new teacher are relatively high compared to those of many other occupations (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). These rates include teachers who leave teaching altogether as well as those who move from one school to another (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2015). Teachers report that their choice to leave teaching or to teach in a different school or system is directly correlated to resources, leadership support, and input into decision making (Ingersoll & Smith, 2011). High teacher turnover rates can hurt students’ performance and disrupt school reform efforts (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Steep attrition rates force schools to recruit, hire, and train replacement teaching staff and impose high costs on school districts (Darling-Hammond, 2003; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2015). Therefore, school systems find it difficult to reap the long-term benefits from new teachers in whom they invest (Darling-Hammond, 2003).

Increasingly, policy makers as well as educators recognize the need to help new teachers become more effective in their repertoire of teaching skills to help increase retention rates (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Darling-Hammond (2003) supports the need for well-designed teacher support structures within the schools to support the need of new
teachers. As a result, the popularity of formal programs with teacher leaders at the helm have become “the in thing” (Bullough, 2012, p. 57) in creating highly effective teachers as well as reducing leaving the profession at the end of the first year (Bullough, 2012; Crasborn, Hennissen, Brouwer, Korthagen, Bergen, 2011, p. 320; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004, pp. 690, 702).

According to the National Center for Education Statistics Institute of Education Sciences (IES), effects of mentorship on attrition rates of new teachers who have access to peer mentoring leave the profession at a much lower rate than those who do not. It was concluded that after the first year in the profession, 92 percent of new teachers working with mentors were still teaching, compared with 84 percent without mentors. Furthermore, after five years of teaching in the profession, 86 percent of new teachers who had worked with mentors in their first year were still teaching, compared to 71 percent without mentors.

School systems make demands of beginning teachers without offering any means of support to accomplish these tasks, setting the beginning teacher up to fail (Gagen & Bowie, 2005, p. 40). Conversely, in response to teacher retention concerns, policy makers in many school systems are using the expertise of teacher leaders to support the specific teaching and learning needs of teachers (Berry, Johnson, & Montgomery, 2005). Teacher leaders such as mentors and coaches have been shown to be successful at providing additional training, support and monitoring during the beginning years of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2003). In a book entitled, *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers Develop as Leaders*, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) discuss the critical role of teacher leaders and the sustaining of teacher leadership relationships between adults in the school. Kram (1985) suggests the importance of policy makers’ understanding of how the developmental relationships between teacher leaders
and new teachers support new teacher development and their retention in the early stages of their profession. Furthermore, current research reveals that success of these formal relationships between teacher leaders and new teachers depends heavily on trust between the two (Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005; Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

Statement of the Problem

A number of researchers continue to identify gaps in the research based on the perception of new teachers’ relationships with their teacher leaders (Allen, Eby & Lentz, 2006; Hallam, Cho, Hit and Hite, 2012). The extent of involvement in teacher leadership varies as determined by the context of the school (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). The degree to which these formal teacher leaders are successful at supporting new teachers varies (Hallam et al., 2012).

According to Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009), important elements of teacher leadership include support of the teacher, developing teachers, recognizing teachers’ abilities, establishing a supportive culture, and influencing others toward school change. There is agreement that the facets of trust including benevolence, honesty, openness, reliability, and competence are directly related to the needs of teachers and teacher leaders (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). There are limited sources for understanding how trust plays a role between teacher leaders and teachers. For example, Bryk and Schneider (2003) emphasize that having trust in other colleagues who work in one’s school is crucial for school improvement. Norman and Feiman-Nemser (2005) find that although many factors affect the development of the new teacher, trust in a relationship with teacher leaders has been found to greatly contribute to how new teachers view their success. However, there is a lack of research investigating factors that lead to the development of trust between teacher leaders and new teachers. Nor is there substantial research that indicates with any precision how trust develops between teacher leaders and new teachers.
Consequently, there is a need to shed light on how trust plays a role in the relationship between teacher leaders and new teachers. Research in this area may have implications for policy makers who seek to find ways to develop supportive and nurturing environments in which new teachers can learn from their colleagues as they flourish and grow, which will influence the decision to commit to a school system.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this qualitative study aimed to explore how trust affected new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders.

**Proposition**

The theoretical proposition (Yin, 2014) of this research study examined school support of new teachers that is substantiated by teacher leadership involvement. Specifically, the theoretical proposition (See Figure 1) in this study explored how trust affected new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders.

**Research Question**

How does trust affect new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders?

**Significance of the Study**

This study has the potential to contribute to the ongoing inquiry into the issue of new teacher retention by increasing understanding of the relationship between teacher leaders and new teachers. Teacher leaders have an important stake in supporting the school system as they help to increase retention rates of new teachers. School policy makers and leaders responsible for developing new teacher programs and teacher leaders may gain useful information as they design and evaluate programs to support new teacher retention during the initial years of teaching. Therefore, it is important to understand how the developmental relationship between
teacher leaders and new teachers supports new teachers (Kram, 1985) and encourages them to keep teaching in public schools.

This study helps to identify the ways in which principals and other leaders in schools can support new teachers and teacher leadership involvement. School administrators and teacher leaders may gain information regarding strategies that can support teacher leadership involvement with new teachers. In fact, according to Darling-Hammond (2003), by leveraging trust, teacher leaders can help create a collaborative environment in which new teachers are willing to commit to their profession, which has been shown to greatly improve student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Additionally, Creswell (2013) suggests that the study of a common phenomenon such as trust between individuals would be important to understand in order to develop practices and policies. Since Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) posit that school leaders are looking to teacher leaders as the missing link in school improvement and Bryk and Schneider (2003) state that strong relational trust makes it more likely that teachers will want to commit and learn from one another to create successful school reform, the results of this research study will assist school leaders, especially teacher leaders in that endeavor. Thus, exploring the role of trust and how it develops between teacher leaders and new teachers should be considered as it has the potential to make a significant contribution in the exploration of new teacher commitment as a means to increase retention rates.

**Theoretical Perspective**

In order to examine how new teachers construct the meaning of teacher leadership and its association to trust, the researcher draws upon trust theory (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) and teacher leadership dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Trust theory is examined to explore its relationship to the construct of how teachers perceive teacher leaders. As
assumptions of trusting relationships between new teachers and their teacher leaders are investigated, Lewicki and Tomlinson’s (2003), Bryk and Schneider’s (2003), and Hoy and Tschannen-Moran’s (2003) theories of trust helped guide the understanding and development of this inquiry. It was theorized that the elements of trust and the concept of trust in relationships was supported by the analysis that such dyads require trust on the new teacher’s part in order to perceive effectiveness of the teacher leader (Wang & Fulton, 2012). The use of these theories also helped to clarify how trust develops over time. More specifically, the use of trust theories helped to examine the proposition of trust as a mitigating factor of the perceived effectiveness of the teacher leaders by new teachers.

Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2009) seven dimensions of teacher leaders were explored. Teacher leaders, as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009), are ones who “lead within and beyond the classroom; identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders; influence others toward improved educational practice; and accept responsibility for achieving the outcomes of their leadership” (p. 6). Katzenmeyer and Katzenmeyer (2005) developed a survey that measures how schools support teacher leadership based on the seven dimensions. According to Katzenmeyer and Katzenmeyer (2005), the elements of teacher leadership include developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment.

*Developmental focus* refers to the engagement of teachers in learning new skills and the knowledge and ability to encourage others to learn. With respect to this dimension, teachers are supported, assisted, guided and/or coached in order to help them gain the necessary knowledge and skills. Supportive learning opportunities for all staff help teachers support each other personally and professionally (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).
Recognition as a dimension refers to teachers being recognized for their roles as well as the contributions they make to students, other teachers, the school, and community. Recognition by other teachers and leaders indicates that they place value and respect on one’s skills and knowledge as well as on their work (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Autonomy refers to teachers being encouraged to take initiatives and become active participants in creating schools’ visions for the future. Resources are found and barriers are removed in order to support teachers’ efforts (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Collegiality as a dimension encourages collaboration among teachers when they focus on student and instructional centered issues. Teachers who value this dimension place value on discussing teaching and learning, solving academic and behavioral problems related to the classroom setting, and engaging in positive conversations with other leaders (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Participation as a dimension is encouraged when teachers are actively involved in the decision making process in the school. Teachers assist with important matters in the school as leaders seek opinions from teachers to help make the best decisions for the school (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Open communication as a dimension of teacher leadership encourages teachers to communicate in open and honest ways to better serve the students and families in the community. When things go wrong, teachers are not blamed, but instead are engaged in problem solving to help resolve issues or improve future events (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

A positive environment is supported when teachers feel respected by others in the organization. Teachers are viewed as educational professionals and treated with respect in ways that show this belief. Teachers perceive the environment to have strong leadership. Teachers
work along with leaders as partners, have satisfaction in their work, respect others in the organization, and work as a team (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

The following concept map (See Figure 1) was created to conceptualize the theoretical proposition (Yin, 2014) from which this research was explored. As defined by Sutton and Straw (1995), a proposition is “a [hypothetical] story about why acts, events, structure, and thoughts occur” (p. 378). Yin (2014) states that when the researcher is forced to state a proposition, an important theoretical issue is reflected upon and begins to tell the researcher where to look for relevant evidence (Yin, 2014).

The theoretical proposition (See Figure 1) in this study explored how trust affected new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders. Specifically, as new teachers perceived their teacher leaders to have the Teacher Leadership Dimensions defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009), new teachers developed trust in their teacher leaders. What resulted was enhanced job satisfaction and commitment of the new teacher.

![Figure 1. Theoretical proposition of this study.](image)

**Key Terms**

**Autonomy:** Teachers are encouraged to take initiatives, and become active participants in creating schools’ visions for the future. Resources are found and barriers are removed in order to support teachers’ efforts (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).
Benevolence: The “confidence that one’s well-being or something one cares about will be protected by the trusted person or group” (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999, p. 187).

Coach: A “support from a qualified and knowledgeable individual who models research-based strategies and explores with teachers how to increase these practices using the teacher’s own students (Sailors & Shanklin, 2010, p.1).

Collaboration: Extent to which school stakeholders work collectively to make decisions about school processes (Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Collegiality: Collaboration on instructional and student related issues such as discussion of teaching strategies, observation of peer teaching, and sharing materials (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment peer: Teachers who are proximal to and teach the same subject as the new or transitioning teacher whose focus is to provide firsthand, accurate knowledge of the subject curriculum and support instructional excellence in the implementation of that curriculum.

Developmental focus: Learning new knowledge and skills, and helping others learn by sharing ideas and strategies (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Distributed leadership: Method used to incorporate the leadership activities of many members of the school community who work at educating and guiding other teachers as a means to initiate instructional change (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004).

Efficacy: Referenced from Bandura’s (1986) definition of self-efficacy: “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (p. 391).

Mentor: Experienced professional who is personally involved in the career development of a junior professional or mentee (Chao, 2009).

New teacher: Certified teachers entering their initial three years of a teaching position.

Omnibus T-Scale Survey: A short operational measure of three subsets of perceived trust which includes Faculty Trust in the Principal, Faculty Trust for Clients, and Faculty Trust for Colleagues (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

Open communication: Opportunity to engage in two-way, open and honest conversations, being informed, and engaged in problem solving on school related issues (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Participation: Active involvement in the decision making process, and the engagement and the freedom to make choices on teaching related issues (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Positive environment: Perception by teachers that the school supports them through leadership and they are generally satisfied with their work environment (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Professional Development Points: Educational credits given in awarded to teachers in exchange for ongoing participation in job embedded activities (e.g. mentoring/coaching, professional learning communities/PLC's; (2) participation in a series of short-term activities in a given topic (e.g., workshops, seminars) and (3) long-term activities (e.g., university courses). (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015).

Recognition: Being recognized, valued and respected by peers and administrators for leadership and contributions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).
**Teacher leaders:** Teachers that “lead within and beyond the classroom; identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders; influence others toward improved educational practice; and accept responsibility for achieving the outcomes of their leadership” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 6).

**Teacher Leadership School Survey:** Study that consists of seven dimensions to measure attempts by teacher leaders to support collegiality with other teachers (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

**Transactional leadership:** Leadership style in which one person invests in the initiative to make contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things (Burns, 1978).

**Transformational leadership:** Leadership practice which “occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (Burns, 1978, p. 20).

**Trust:** “Confident, positive expectations regarding another’s’ conduct” (Lewicki et al., p. 439., 1998).

**Vulnerability:** Placing of one’s interest in the hands of another party, who can potentially harm them (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998).
Chapter II: Literature Review

The following literature review documents studies on teacher leadership and trust in schools. First, the research begins with a historical overview of teacher leadership, the history of the role of trust in schools, and the connection between the role of trust and the new teacher-teacher leader connection. Second, the research is positioned as it related to Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2009) seven dimensions of teacher leadership. Developmental focus, recognition, collegiality, participation, open communication, autonomy and positive environment as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) are supported by the literature. The third part of the literature review is based on current research on trust in schools. As the research on trust in schools was analyzed, school reform efforts, teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction, role expectations of teacher leaders, degree of teacher professionalism, bureaucratic orientation of school design, and professional norms were all related to the degree to which trust played a factor in the school environment.

Historical Overview

Teacher Leadership

Almost a century ago, John Dewey, in his book Democracy in Education (1977), argued that public education should be organized so that “every teacher had some regular and representative way to register judgment upon matters of educational importance, with assurance that this judgment would somehow affect the school system” (p. 231). Historically, in the United States, contrary to Dewey’s opinion, the principal has been the primary leader of schools (Fullan, 1994; Wasley, 1991). Recently, educational reform efforts support a widespread interest in developing teacher leadership roles. Teacher leadership was spawned by a study in 1983 to examine the quality of education in the United States. A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for
Educational Reform paid particular attention to many factors in our educational system including 1) assessing the quality of teaching in private and public schools, colleges and universities; 2) comparing American schools to those of other successful nations 3) studying the relationship between high school student achievement and college admission requirements; 4) assessing student achievement as it relates to the social and educational changes in the last quarter century; 5) noting the educational programs of student success; and 6) defining problems that must be addressed to pursue the course of excellence in education (NCEE, 1983, p. 1). This study became a change agent for what was to become a new way of thinking about teacher leadership reform.

Three years later the Carnegie Report on Teaching, A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century (1986) was spawned out of the demands to prepare teachers for the future. Considered one of education’s most important documents, its major focus magnified the importance of the teaching profession. It called upon Americans:

- to assert education as a primary factor of economic growth, equal opportunity and a shared national vision
- to reiterate that the best hope for our nation to establish our values of excellence, continues to be with is the teaching profession, and
- to point out that the next decade provides a very special “window of opportunity” for education reform.

The report argued that key to improving our educational system was to create a well-educated professional pool of teachers able to assume the ever-changing demands and responsibilities of reform efforts. The report additionally proposed a different stratification of teachers in which teacher leadership positions were created to assume supervisory duties, instructional consulting with teachers, and advanced curriculum development. Teacher leaders would have to demonstrate instructional excellence, receive an educational specialist degree or
doctorate, and pass an exam by a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (Carnegie Task Force on Teaching, 1986).

The task force supported teacher leadership and recommended that principals not be the sole leader in a school as they envisioned that teachers would run schools of the future. They supported a collaborative effort in which lead teachers would take on leadership roles as a more efficient method to run a school. More recent attempts to create teacher leadership positions have emerged as teachers take on roles that separate them from stereotypical roles. Teachers have become developers of curriculum, team leaders, and designers of instructional materials. Still, the perception of the strength of top-down leadership and the weakness of teacher leadership continues due to the perception that these roles need to be micromanaged (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

**Contemporary Teacher Leadership**

Currently, teacher leadership is a label for those who engage colleagues in various activities designed to enhance school climate and student performance. As distributed leadership becomes ever more popular in schools, the demand for teacher leaders has begun to exceed the supply. Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2004) state that distributed leadership is a way to include the leadership capacities of the many members of the school community who work at educating and guiding other teachers as a means to initiate instructional change. Sergiovanni (2004) shares a similar view of distributed leadership in schools. Members are important stakeholders in the success of a school as they are highly involved with work, trusted, and participate in decision-making practices.

Wasley (1991) defines teacher leaders as those who mentor others, engage in school-wide decision-making and provide professional growth to other members of the organization.
Because the current focus of teacher leadership is based on procedural efforts and not necessarily positional roles, articulating the aspects of effective teacher leadership is difficult. Lieberman (2011) postulates that teacher leaders should possess skills that are classified as follows:

- Building trust, skills, rapport and confidence in others
- Dealing with the process of school change
- Managing work and using resources

Still, Muijs and Harris (2007) define teacher leaders as those who focus upon improving learning that is based on collaboration, development and growth. They contend that teacher leadership involves:

- Mentoring, coaching and leading working groups
- Developing tasks to support learning and teaching
- Leading and modeling best practices of teaching

Furthermore, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) assessment of teacher leadership readiness has been suggested. They posit that characteristics of potential teacher leaders include competency, credibility, and approachability.

Teacher leadership has become a more familiar term as it has been recognized by the growth of instructional teacher leadership positions, evaluations based on teacher leadership roles, state-wide collaboration on teacher leader licensure, and teacher leadership literature. Teachers need additional support, as one-shot professional development does not change teachers’ behavior. Additional follow through with support from coaches, mentors, or lead teachers provides the support necessary to help influence teacher learning (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).
Developing a career-based system in which promoting teachers to assist and lead colleagues and teams with the needs of schools in mind is said to be in the best interest for school districts (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fullan, 2001). Thus, leadership can be represented by teachers’ needs to go above and beyond their self-interest to help guide and shape the interests and needs of the organization (Burns, 1975).

An immense movement in educational leadership theory has brought about the need for teachers to assume more active leadership roles to support reform at all levels of the school system (Smylie & Denny, 1990). The literature on teacher leadership suggests there is a need to develop teacher leadership roles and processes through research and practice as many teacher leaders are seen as transformational. York-Barr and Duke (2004) point out that teacher leadership is the “…process by which teachers, individually or collectively, influence their colleagues, principals, and other members of the school community” (p. 274). This refers to teacher leadership as a role that improves teaching as well as the learning practices within the school that strive to improve student learning.

Much of the success of school leaders depends on how well they interact with the larger social and organizational context (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris & Hopkins, 2006). Hallinger and Heck (1996) explain that successful leaders practice with specific purpose, identify key people, and work in formal structures. Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) categorize these practices as being able to set direction, develop people and help to redesign the organization. These types of leadership categories reflect a transformational approach.

The goal of transformational leadership is to develop and encourage higher levels of commitment in members of an organization as visions and goals are shared among those constituents. This type of leadership is attributed to the member’s aspiration and commitment to
inspiring the collective aspirations for the organization along with the desires for personal mastery and growth (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999).

Transformational leadership theory (Burns, 1978) has been an antecedent of many research studies in the field of organizational leadership over the past three decades. In his seminal book *Leadership* (1978), James MacGregor Burns was first to identify two types of leadership models called transactional and transformational. Within Maslow’s (1943) context of hierarchy of needs, transactional leadership is said to work at the basic levels of need satisfaction. Leaders stress specific task performance and in exchange, rewards are given for good work and positive outcomes. Conversely, leaders using the transactional leadership style punish those whose performance is poor until the problem is resolved.

Transactional leaders can be effective in getting employees to accomplish tasks by managing each part of a task individually. Studies found (Mayo, 1945) that although rigorous demands are placed on teachers to perform to higher standards, if there is success it cannot be sustained without continuous and excessive monitoring and enforcement efforts (Landsberger, 1958). These efforts, as they relate to student performance and teacher approval have not been successful (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Theorists (Crowther & Olsen, 1997) indicate that effective teacher leaders exhibit the qualities of transformational leadership styles as opposed to transactional leadership styles. Whereas transformational leaders are seen to be more inspirational and proactive, transactional leaders are seen to be passive and lack the leadership qualities seen as beneficial to new teachers (Hallam et al., 2012). Motivating and collaborating with team members at all levels of the educational organization to create meaningful change is a goal of transformational leaders. Transformational leadership takes into account the ways in which leaders, followers, and the
organization benefit from a charismatic leader. Transformational leaders bring together leaders and their followers, creating an environment of empowerment as they maintain collaborative cultures (Burns, 1978). Leaders coax followers to perform at higher levels and provide staff with support structures necessary for personal and professional growth (Burns, 1978). Additionally, Burns (1978) maintains that teacher leaders can inspire followers to great commitment through shared purpose. These qualities are reflected in such teacher leader strategies as professional learning communities, mentoring, instructional coaching, teacher-initiated curriculum, and staff led support teams.

In 1978, Burns introduced four components of transformational leadership known as Performance Beyond Expectations that describe the building blocks for yielding significant results of performance. Figure 2 depicts how the attributes of idealized influence (attributes and behaviors), individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation are valuable to the transformation process of teacher development as they relate to the perceived abilities of teacher leaders. When teachers perceive their teacher leaders as having these components of leadership, transformation will occur as teacher leaders achieve system’s goals beyond expectations (Hallam et al., 2012).
Figure 2. The Additive Effect of Transformational Leadership (Hallam et al., 2012).

All components are important to become a transformational leader. The process begins with a vision of idealized influence that inspires teachers to follow the teacher leader. This is accomplished by instilling pride, gaining respect, trust and increasing optimism in other teachers. This step can be measured by the extent to which a new teacher shows admiration and respect for the teacher leader (Bass, 1975).

The teacher leader acts as an inspirational motivator or role model for new teachers in the next stage of the conceptualization of transformational leadership. Teacher leaders are seen as setting a vision and focusing efforts on this vision. This characteristic can be measured by the confidence a new teacher has in the teacher leader’s vision and values (Bass, 1975).

Coaching and mentoring provide the continuous feedback new teachers need to become more skilled in their craft (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Transformational teacher leaders consider new teachers’ individual strengths, talents and skills. Individual consideration towards new teachers is a measure of the extent to which teacher leaders are willing to show concern for
the developmental needs of the new teacher. Transformational teacher leaders are capable of motivating teachers to rethink and reconstruct non-effective methods of teaching. This allows the intimacy necessary to share thoughts and ideas in a trusting environment (Bass, 1975). Thus, teacher leaders who practice effective principles of transformational leadership can willingly create change within their organization. They are capable of motivating others through critical social interactions: ones that highlight confidence and trust within the school.

**History of Trust in School Organizations**

**Trust in Teacher Leaders.** Researchers have studied the concept and significance of trust in leadership for at least four decades. Early work by Deustch (1958), Likert (1967), and empirical articles by Kram and Isabella (1985) have played an important part in building leadership theoretical frameworks. For example, Bass (1975) concludes that within an organization, followers contribute to leadership effectiveness. Bryk and Schneider (2003) and Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) have measured the impact on trust in areas of philosophy, psychology, and education and have found that trust is an important part of these organizations’ cultures. In fact, trust in schools leads to successful school reform, healthy work environments, teacher morale (Bryk & Schneider, 2003), and effective leader-follower relationships (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003).

Trust in colleagues positively affects a sense of empowerment that has positive results for an organization. When teachers feel valued as participants in their schools’ community and are empowered to make decisions in their best interest, they pass this empowerment on to their students and give them the skills they need to be effective in the future (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Results of a present study highlight the positive role of teachers’ trust in colleagues for their participation in decision making as well as their professional growth and impact on other
A study 1646 teachers by Yim, Lee, Jin and Zhang (2013) explored the impact of teachers’ perception of trust in colleagues on their sense of empowerment. The study indicated that a significant predictor to teacher empowerment was the level of trust one has in colleagues. To be specific, trust in colleagues significantly improved one’s self-efficacy, and this self-efficacy influenced one’s sense of empowerment. An increased sense of empowerment positively affected personal growth and one’s willingness to participate in decision making.

Educational researchers Bryk and Schneider (2003) find that trust is gained by the deliberate act to make another feel less vulnerable. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) contend that without the expression of vulnerability there would be no trust. When one is vulnerable, the act of seeking guidance is not enough. In order for the support of a guiding figure to have an effect, it is suggested that new teachers expect four characteristics in their teacher leaders: competencies in teaching abilities and responsibilities, genuine listening skills, personal regard and willingness to extend oneself, and an ethical commitment to education (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). According to Bryk & Schneider, (2003) relationships are built on the understanding that each member has role obligations as well as expectations about the obligations and expectations of the other. Accordingly, a judgment or attempt to read another’s motivations or intentions is basic to interpersonal exchange. Within the dependencies of new teachers seeking guidance from teacher leaders, trust is necessary to achieve desired outcomes. Therefore, when a member of the relationship deliberately acts in a way to reduce a sense of vulnerability in the other, it builds trust in the relationship (Bryk & Schneider, 2003).

Bryk and Schneider (2003) found that schools with high levels of trust also had marked improvements in student learning and a collective decision making process. The researchers found that when there was a broad teacher buy-in resulting from high rates of trust among its
staff, reform efforts could be diffused among constituents. Schools deemed to have high trust levels possessed an environment conducive to risk-taking and positive social exchange efforts. Conversely, these researchers found schools with low levels of trust had little or no improvement in reading or math achievement.

Researchers have examined how the role of trust changes over time as a method to understand how it may impact the relationships among people (Kram & Isabella, 1985). Trust theorists Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) explain that trust is able to grow to higher levels and changes in character as it becomes stronger and more resilient. They too outline the elements necessary to strengthen another’s trust in them. Performance and predictability, communication, shared values, goals and decision making, concern for others, and proximity have been shown to be the tenets of building trust over time. Figure 3 represents the trust theories of Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) and Bryk and Schneider (2003).

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*Figure 3.* Adaptation of Lewicki and Tomlinson’s (2003) and Bryk and Schneider’s (2003) theories of trust.

**Barriers to Trust and Rebuilding Trust.** Researchers recognize that distrust and suspicion in many organizations is common (Sitkin & Roth, 2008). Distrust can be defined as “confident negative expectations regarding another's conduct.” (Lewicki, et al., 1998, p. 439). Suspicion has been found to be central to the distrust of another (Deustch, 1958). Trust can be
witnessed as the perception of genuineness of another’s motives. Additionally, research by Kramer (1999) identified factors that increase individual’s distrust and suspicion which included dispositional and situational factors that influenced an individual’s perception of being scrutinized by one’s organization.

Sharing control and decision making has been shown to increase trust. Acting with respect and refraining from engaging in behaviors that are thought of as being in the interest of the self or detrimental to others will increase trust within the relationship. When control is not shared, others may feel that they are not trusted. Acting to benefit ones’ own self-interest may be seen as a violation of trust. When trust has not been developed, one will divert his attention to his self-interest as well. This creates more conflict between the parties (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003).

When teachers spend little time with one another or their proximity to each other is limited, it can lead to an increase in prejudices and false stereotypes one holds for the other. It can be said that creating co-locations or having proximity to another helps to break down the barriers between people as they witness more commonalities than differences (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003). According to Wang and Fulton (2012) teachers seek support and build dependency on teacher leaders as the frequency of the interactions increase. These interactions have a positive effect not only on building trust but also on building professional knowledge and skills (Wang & Fulton, 2012). The teacher learns to trust or mistrust through repeated interactions as the awareness of shared visions and goals are established.

Although school structures may establish collaborative decision making to try to solve complex issues, these structures depend on trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Distrust can lead to a breakdown of relationships that foster cooperation, information sharing, and exert negative
effects on teacher behaviors, job performance, turnover, and profits (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003). Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) explain that a violation in trust develops when the trustor’s (i.e., the victim’s) confidence in expectations of the trustee’s (i.e., the offender) behaviors are disconfirmed. If a violation in trust is a minor offense, it may simply result in a reduced level of trust. The victim may avoid transactions with the offender, and withhold support and cooperation. If a relationship in this situation is one that cannot be terminated and the parties have to continue to work together, a façade-like relationship will exist. The victim may feel anger, disappointment, and frustration and blame the victim for the costs associated with the offense. The victim may continue the relationship with superficial cooperation or interact with the other in a tightly controlled manner. Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) consider this level of trust to be a passive approach to managing a relationship in that the victim simply interacts with the other based on necessity, not want.

When the severity of the offense is greater, the result is that the victim has stronger negative feelings towards the offender. This can result in rapid distrust, retribution, escalating conflict, and complete destruction of the relationship or even termination of the relationship (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003).

Even while teacher leaders strive to build a common vision for the organizations with teachers, Scott, Cortina, and Carlisle (2012) provide evidence that without trust, cooperation does not occur and with a continued lack of trust, mutual support and sharing of information is minimized. This has negative effects on behaviors throughout the school. Additionally, without trust, teacher leaders do not inspire teachers to seek out instructional or pedagogical guidance. Hallam et al. (2012) notes that teachers need trust to cope with the stress of the ever-changing demands of accountability and expectations placed on them. Thus trust has been shown to create
conditions that are beneficial for teacher relationships to reach higher levels of commitment (Tarter, Bliss, & Hoy, 1989) and school reform efforts (Bryk & Schneider, 2003).

Rebuilding and repairing trust is necessary to resolve conflicts and rebuild fractured relationships and requires the commitment and effort by both individuals involved. As rebuilding trust is considered to be a labor-intensive process, there are steps the offender can take to increase the chance that the victim may reconcile and further the trust rebuilding process to enhance the relationship. Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) state that either person in the relationship needs to take steps to minimize the risk that the other will act untrustworthy or to minimize those actions to ensure being perceived as trustworthy. Sharing goals and interests and placing value on the relationship can help to reestablish a connection or emotional attachment for the other party. Additionally, in order to regain credibility in the relationship, by demonstrating clear sacrifices, one must prove to the other that self-interest is not a top priority (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003).

**Trust and the New Teacher-Teacher Leader Connection.** Trust has been shown to create conditions that are conducive for individuals to initiate and sustain higher levels of engagement (Tarter et al., 1989) and reform (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). Within a relationship, the presence or absence of trust can affect new teachers’ behaviors such as accepting support and sharing information with teacher leaders. For example, Tschannen-Moran (2009) found that when teacher leaders are trusted, an atmosphere of shared commitment ensues within an organization, while Scott et al. (2012) provide evidence that without trust, cooperation between members of the dyad does not occur. Hallam et al. (2012) notes that teachers need trust to cope with the stress of the ever-changing demands of accountability and expectations placed on them. Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) assert that when there is a rapid growth of distrust in the
relationship, retribution, escalating conflict and termination of the relationship can occur. Furthermore, the authors posit that lack of trust in a relationship can result in leaving the job altogether (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003). Thus, trust in the relationship between teacher leaders and new teachers is an important factor to consider as it has the potential to develop supportive work cultures which can lead to increased commitment of the new teacher.

**Teacher Leadership Dimensions**

In a book entitled, *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers Develop as Leaders*, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) discuss the critical role of teacher leaders and the sustaining of their relationships between other adults in the school. Katzenmeyer and Katzenmeyer (2005) developed a survey called the Teacher Leadership School Survey (TLSS) that measured and supported teacher leadership as a role based on seven dimensions. In their study of over 5,000 teacher leaders, the authors state that teacher leadership is sustained through *developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment*.

*Developmental focus* refers to the engagement of teachers in learning new skills and knowledge and the ability to encourage others to learn. With respect to this dimension, teachers are supported, assisted and guided and/or coached in order to help faculty gain the necessary knowledge and skills to be successful teachers. Supportive learning opportunities for all staff help teachers to support each other personally and professionally (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

*Recognition* as a dimension refers to teachers being recognized for their roles and contributions to students, other teachers, and the school. Recognition by other teachers and leaders indicates that they place value and respect on one’s skills and knowledge as well as on their work (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).
*Autonomy* as a dimension refers to teachers being recognized as they take initiatives and become active participants in creating visions for the future of the school (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

*Collegiality* as a dimension encourages collaboration among teachers as they focus on student and instructional centered issues. Teachers who value this dimension take value in discussing teaching and learning, solving academic and behavioral problems related to the classroom setting, and engaging in positive conversations with other leaders (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

*Participation* as a dimension is encouraged as teachers are actively involved in the decision-making process in the school. Teachers assist with important matters in the school as leaders seek opinions from teachers to help make the best decisions for the school (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

*Open communication* as a dimension of teacher leadership encourages teachers to communicate in open and honest ways to better serve the students and families in the community. When things go wrong, teachers are not blamed, but instead are engaged in problem solving to help resolve issues or improve future events (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

*A positive environment* is supported when teachers feel respected by others in the organization. Teachers are viewed as educational professionals and treated respectfully in ways that are demonstrated by this belief and perceive their schools’ community to have strong leadership. Teachers work along with leaders as partners, have satisfaction in their work, respect others in the organization, and work as a team (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).
Dimensions of Teacher Leadership

**Developmental focus.** Aimed at improving school reform efforts, there are competing models of teacher leadership programs with varied methods and types of support. Using a non-probability clustering sampling strategy, a study by Hallam, et al. (2012) found that there was confusion and frustration with other teachers about the objectives and goals of the teacher leadership positions. The researchers of this three-year study of first year teachers collected qualitative and quantitative data using a comparative case study method. Through interview and survey methods, the researchers sought to compare and contrast two mentoring models that were to contribute to teacher retention. The sample consisted of new teachers from two school districts in the same state and followed these same teachers over their first three years of service.

The Dane school system enrolled about 64,000 students in their 46 elementary schools, whereas the Asher School District enrolled about 28,000 students in their 26 elementary schools. Both of these districts’ schools used the PLC model and allocated time for colleagues to collaborate during team meetings to analyze student data and share ideas on coursework. Both districts employed mentors who worked proximally to the new teachers and received financial incentives. Asher mentors were paid more than their Dane counterparts. Unique to the Dane District were teacher leader coaches assigned to provide support to 10-12 first year teachers. These coaches had no teaching assignments, were not familiar with the schools’ culture, and were limited in time to spend supporting the new teachers. Coaches visited and observed new teacher classes and provided monthly in-service training. At the end of the first year of the research study, Dane School System eliminated the coaching positions and transitioned to mentor positions only. Mentors in both districts taught in the same grade band (K-3, or 4-6) but
not necessarily the same grade. These mentors helped model teaching techniques and support a collaborative structure.

Using semi-structured, face-to-face interviews during their first year of teaching, it was reported by new teachers that they were reluctant to seek guidance from the instructional coaches in the school but not the mentors. New teachers perceived the instructional coaches as not having the expertise and authority in pedagogy and content knowledge and thus, found them to lack long-term effectiveness for helping to develop teaching skills. Hallam et al. (2012) indicated that the lack of developing a personal relationship with instructional coaches might have contributed to new teachers not being empowered to seek out guidance.

Conversely, Hallam et al. (2012) found that the new teacher-mentors had been valuable for development of skills and knowledge of the new teacher. In fact, the Asher School District that employed only mentors and not instructional coaches to assist new teachers’ development had a higher retention rate. By the end of year three, the Dane School System that employed coaches had a 42% retention rate, while the Asher School District that employed the mentors had a 64% retention rate.

In the same study by Hallam et al. (2012), it was found that pedagogical skills and knowledge used by teacher leaders were critical factors in establishing and sustaining school improvement. Teacher leaders played an important role in motivating and developing teaching staff to aid the development of the educational system. When the new teacher perceived teacher leaders as effective in school improvement policies and procedures, they were more likely to support and be engaged in that improvement effort (Hallam et al., 2012). New teachers’ trust was developed and sustained when they perceived mentors or coaches to possess the necessary knowledge and skills to help with their personal development. When the new teacher perceived
that the mentor or coach did not have these skills to meet their needs, the relationship was not appreciated and the new teacher withdrew from the relationship. New teachers preferred when mentors helped them assess their skills and knowledge versus when the coach tried to guide the new teacher (Hallam et al., 2012). As a result, it was suggested that the delivery of the methods used to guide new teachers is crucial in shaping pedagogical skills and increasing new teacher knowledge.

In addition, it has been found that teacher leaders are involved in providing assistance to other teachers by developing curriculum knowledge, as well as managing in-service training. In a study conducted by Grant, Gardner, Kajee, Moodley and Somaroo (2010), the perceptions of teachers on their understanding and experiences of teacher leadership were explored. The researchers gained data from 1,055 teachers who worked in schools of diverse settings using a survey and questionnaire. They found that while teachers supported the concept of shared leadership, the concept of teacher leadership was limited. The data showed 19% of teacher leaders claimed to provide in-service training for teachers, 32% of teacher leaders led curriculum development training for their colleagues, while 47% of teacher leaders participated in extra activities in their schools. The results point to restricted forms of teacher leadership as the results show a lack of opportunities for authentic leadership and teacher empowerment. As there was minimal collaboration, the results suggested that teacher leadership is understood as an isolated activity.

Teacher leadership has an impact on school reform initiatives (Robinson, 2009). In the qualitative research by Robinson (2009), a case study was performed to understand the nature of teacher leadership of a school-district reform initiative in Kentucky, the Bluegrass County Accelerating Student Achievement Project. This initiative was unique to the district and was
directed towards improving scores on standardized tests. Through this project, teacher leaders were identified at the middle school and high school to further develop the schools’ curricular and instructional practices for the purpose of improving student achievement. In this participant observation study, observations and interviews of the teachers and administrators at the secondary level were conducted. During the nine-month data collection, the researcher spent time interviewing and observing project participants as well as attending district and school level student-achievement team meetings. Factors associated with effective teacher leadership practices and barriers to change were explored.

The findings show that teachers respected these teacher leaders for focusing on instruction and curriculum. Those teacher leaders who stood out as positive leaders used the transactional leadership approach and contributed to providing a positive support structure for work to be completed. Additionally, they exhibited a high sense of self-efficacy and confidence in their abilities as teacher leaders. The teacher leaders were clear about goals but valued the other teachers’ participation. Teacher leaders working as peer coaches and mentors were found to have success in the reform efforts in their organizations.

**Positive environment.** Teachers’ perceptions of teacher leaders emerge as being supportive in nature. In a study conducted by Pitman (2008) it was found that teachers identified a number of central beliefs regarding effective teacher leadership actions. Sixteen teachers were interviewed for this qualitative study, which explored leadership practices that developed and sustained a professional learning community within the school. Teachers responded with an emphasis on being supportive, taking risks, and taking a stand standing on those issues of importance. Additionally, teacher leaders were described as being approachable and open minded. Teachers interviewed stated that teacher leaders exercised clear communication skills.
Teachers also stated that they were able to seek input from stakeholders prior to making decisions. Tied to that expertise, teachers reported that teacher leaders have the ability to develop skills in specific areas and take on roles where they provide examples of their practice. Teachers’ perceptions indicated that teacher leaders are willing to provide help and guidance to others in a given area.

Research has been conducted in schools in more recent years to investigate the relationship between trust and other variables including school organizational cultures. Hoy, Smith, and Sweetland (2003) explored the construct of faculty trust and organizational climate. The sample of the study included 97 high schools in Ohio, all from diverse areas in the state. The researcher developed an instrument to measure the organizational climate of high schools called the Organizational Climate Index. This instrument consisted of a 27-item Likert scale that measured four general dimensions of school community domains. The domains included teacher-teacher (professional behavior) and teacher-principal (collegial leadership). The reliabilities were high, .87, .94, .88, and .92 respectively. That the alpha-coefficient reliability were high (value ranges from 0 to 1) suggests that the results are not different from what was expected. The instrument in this case is reliable and valid. If the alpha coefficient reliability were low (0.05) or very different from each other, the results would not be valid or reliable. The results demonstrated the reliability and validity of the measure of school climate.

This research showed a considerable relationship between school climate and faculty trust. Hoy and Tschannen-Moran’s (1999) definition of trust and trust scales measured the tenets of trust including trust in the principal and trust in teachers. Collegial leadership and professional teacher behavior were related to faculty trust in colleagues (r=.27, p<.05; r=.44, p.01 respectively). Investigators in this study concluded that professional teacher behaviors included
being open, supportive, and cooperative with each other. These characteristics were found to be most significant in developing trust in colleagues. These findings are important as they show the significance in supportive teacher behaviors as having impact on the development of trust between new teachers and teacher leaders.

In a study mentioned previously, Hallam et al., (2012) found proximity was important to building positive relationships. This study used a non-probability clustering sampling strategy of 23 new teachers over a three year period. The researchers conducted a comparative qualitative and quantitative case study using semi-structured, face-to-face interviews during the new teachers’ first three years of teaching. The researchers found that new teachers’ perceptions of their relationships with their teacher leaders became stronger over time. Additionally, it was posited that new teachers’ empowerment may have increased when their mentors taught in the same grade. In fact, 80% of new teachers expressed the desire for increased collaboration and proximity as they experienced effective collaborative meetings when all parties were physically located in the same building.

**Autonomy.** The literature also reveals that understanding the power and influence structure within the school district impacts the main factors of the change process (Reichert, 2010). A study completed by Reichert (2010) involved gathering data on the political inner-workings of a school district as the school developed teacher leadership programs. As this was a phenomenological study, personal experiences were documented and analyzed for the purpose of gaining rich descriptions of the incidents involved. In this research, an Elementary Advisory Group was created from five elementary Teacher Leading Teachers’ groups from across the Cedar Ridge Independent School district in Cedar Ridge, Texas. Each group was made up of teacher leaders that had been practicing teacher leadership skills formally and informally in the
district for a minimum of two years. Teaching experience among the five Teacher Leading Teachers ranged from three years to twenty-two years. The data collection method included teachers documenting incidents within the change process. Multiple forms of data were collected including surveys, feedback, observation and field notes and reflective journaling. The purpose of the research study was to analyze findings and uncover patterns in the research. Themes and underlying factors were uncovered to identify the essence of the change process. A vivid picture of the authors’ understanding and conceptualization of the change process related to the teacher leader profession was documented. The idea that the teacher leader had power to create change within the district was noted. The data found a lack of power among teacher leaders due to the political nature of the district. Factors that influenced the change process were roles in the organization, ability to communicate, personal motivation, and agenda and resource control. The ability to understand these four factors in the change process affected the results of the initiative.

**Open communication.** When communication patterns and dialogue techniques between mentors and new teachers were documented, Wang, Strong and Odell (2004) found that these discussions are dependent on the relationships built with mentors or coaches. Drawing on observations, this qualitative study collected data from two U.S. and two Chinese mentor-new teacher pairs during their initial new teacher training programs. This study explored the conversations new teachers had with their mentors about the delivery of their lessons. One new teacher lesson and one post lesson conversation from each of the four pair groups was videotaped, analyzed and coded for conversation topic and degree of specificity of speech acts.

The participants were chosen because of their similarities and differences in their profession. This offered the researchers the opportunity to relate their study questions regarding
communication to a cross-cultural comparison. The participants from both countries taught at the elementary level and were in their first year of teaching. In the United States the new teachers were expected to teach to the national standards but no mandates were in place to follow the set curriculum. In China, the new teachers had to strictly implement the national standards imposed by their country (Wang, Strong & Odell, 2004).

The mentors in the United States worked fulltime as teachers and had 12-15 years of experience in teaching before becoming a mentor and were required to meet weekly with their new teacher in which they were often observed delivering lessons and giving feedback to the new teachers. The mentors had years of experience as teachers who taught the same subjects at the same grade level in the same school as the new teacher they were training (Wang et al., 2004).

The researchers found that students were the main focus in both the U. S. and China mentor-new teacher conversations. However, the two U.S. mentor-new teacher pairs paid more attention to student issues as it related to students’ learning and thus had more opportunities to develop skills and knowledge related to student learning than their Chinese new teacher counterparts. Conversely, Chinese mentor-new teacher pairs utilized their time more wisely when developing and critiquing solutions to the skills of questioning and explaining (Wang et al., 2004).

The perceived effectiveness of the conversations by new teachers was high because they perceived the mentors as engaging in trusting behaviors during the conversations. Trusting conversations were ones in which the mentor was able to listen to new teachers and help them to critically reflect on their teaching. Because the mentors used these types of reflective dialogue techniques to help develop the new teachers’ skills and practice, new teachers felt comfortable in
the relationship. However, the researchers warn of contrived collegiality, where partnerships are imposed and structured. The researcher suggests that although it is presumed that given the time and opportunity for mentors to talk to new teachers about pedagogy, developing new teachers’ skills are dependent on a broader context of teaching and schooling (Wang et al., 2004).

The dimension of open communication as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) encourages teachers to problem solve in the effort to help resolve issues or improve future events. A case study conducted by Carver and Katz (2004) found that even though mentors were thought to be skilled in giving feedback to their new teachers, they had a “limited range of actions” (p. 458) from which to help guide the new teachers. By using a qualitative method of gathering data from shadowing three mentors and new teachers in a California site, the research shows the need to train teacher leaders in supervisory skills in order to develop the skills of new teachers. In completing this study to explore new teacher induction, the researchers interviewed and observed three mentors working with three new teachers and found that the mentors studied were reluctant to push the new teachers to think more critically about student learning. Although it was evident that the mentors could articulate the shortcomings of the new teachers they were advising, the strategies used were not sufficient and more training was necessary. The research thus found that the mentors’ need of training eventually contributed to the lack of progress in the new staff. A negative impact on student achievement was found when a teacher leader “misses critical learning opportunities that have a direct impact on the students in these classrooms” (Carver & Katz, 2004, p. 459).

In a study by Scott et al. (2012), research indicated that communication about teaching experiences helped guide new teachers to develop skills. This quantitative mixed methods study examined instructional coaching during the inception of Michigan's literacy coaching program.
The researchers investigated instructional coaches’ professional training and knowledge, coach/teacher interactions, and teachers' perceptions of the factors related to instructional coaches’ effectiveness.

Data were collected in the 2004-2005 school year from 105 predominately white, female, Master’s degree coaches with a range of teaching experiences who were employed as literacy coaches. Only 40 of 105 (38.1%) of the coaches were certified reading specialist. Data was also collected from 1,135 teachers (94.7% of teaching staff) for the fall, 1,129 teachers (94.8% of teaching staff) for the winter, and 1,103 teachers (92.8% of teaching staff) for the spring.

The researchers relied on four sources of data. A questionnaire asked coaches 10 Likert-scale questions related to their teaching knowledge that ranged from ‘no knowledge’ to ‘expert’ Answers were collected into a single Knowledge Competency Rating scale. ‘Expert’ coaches had a rating of 90. Additionally, the researchers used a Knowledge Survey from the Florida Center for Reading Research. The survey asked 28 multiple choice questions designed to assess a coach’s knowledge about early reading instruction. Thirty-seven coaches used coaching logs to document their interactions with teachers throughout the day. Finally, participating teachers completed a researcher-designed survey documenting reading instruction, satisfaction with their work, and their attitude toward teaching and experiences working with their coaches.

The data found that when coaches made it a priority to help develop an understanding of the assessment survey they were given, teachers were more satisfied with the coaches’ work. Teachers appreciated feedback about their teaching, demonstrating value in teacher leaders’ knowledge of teaching practices and curriculum. The findings also suggested that teachers' knowledge in skills and pedagogy influenced the content of coach-teacher interactions. It was found that when coaches were working with more knowledgeable teachers, these teachers were
more willing to collaborate on educational research studies. Conversely, it was found that coaches working with teachers who scored low on the survey were more likely to just model effective teaching practices. This suggests that coaches might need to be sensitive to teacher development and consider the ways in which coaches can support the various levels of teachers' development.

However, the authors found a negative regression weight on a teacher having a one-to-one meeting with the literacy coaches. It was found that new teachers do not value the one on one time with some teacher leaders. As teachers' perceptions of instructional coach’s effectiveness were explored, it was found that when new teachers discussed pedagogy and the improvement of teacher skills one-to-one with a coach, new teachers felt uncomfortable. The data collected from coaches found that new teachers felt coaches were trying to micromanage their teaching methods, which made them feel incompetent as a teacher. The results may indicate that although teachers value teacher leaders’ knowledge and skill, they were not comfortable allowing teacher leaders to dictate how they used the assessment results in their classes (Scott, et al., 2012).

Finally, the findings of this study have implications for coach training. While there was a wide range of competencies across coaches, a majority of coaches felt most comfortable about their knowledge of assessment, and then spent a considerable percentage of their daily work focused on assessment. The researchers indicated that if it is believed there are other aspects of coaches' work that are valued, for example, supporting teachers in implementing core instructional practices, then it is important that coaches are confident in their knowledge of these practices in order to help teachers focus on core practices in their work.
In a study by Lofstrom and Eisenschmidt (2009), new teachers' perceptions of their mentors, experiences of mentoring, and mentors' tasks were explored. The researchers found that mentors realized the importance of providing a model of being honest and open in responding reflectively with new teachers and not just giving feedback.

Using content analysis, the researchers found that the new teachers experienced support for feedback, personal development and professional knowledge development, collegiality, reciprocity of the relationship, mentor availability, and mutual trust as components of the mentor–new teacher relationship. Because the concept of mentoring was adopted in an attempt to attract new teachers to the profession only four and a half years prior to the survey, the researchers sought to find valuable information regarding development of such teacher leader programs.

Qualitative data was collected using semi-structured interviews from sixteen new volunteer teachers who were in the last half of their first year of teaching. The data indicated that although valuable in its supportive structures, there were areas of teacher leadership programs that needed to be developed: one such being the facilitation of reflection in dialogue. According to Lofstrom and Eisenschmidt, (2009), the use of reflective dialogue techniques was an important element used between teacher leaders and new teachers. This process helped to guide teacher leaders in giving new teachers the support they needed. These methods increased new teachers’ satisfaction and adaptability. According to this research, new teachers tended to favor a responsive relationship in which they were allowed to set goals by using techniques of reflective dialogue which permitted teacher leaders to act as a guide, aide, advisor, cheerleader, or resource (Lofstrom & Eisenschmidt, 2009).
In a study mentioned earlier conducted by Hallam et al. (2012), researchers showed that proximity allowed for teachers to share school norms and cultures. Evidence showed that when a teacher leader is assigned to the same school as a new teacher, they are better at sharing information regarding procedures and processes. This was found to be important to new teachers. Conversely, in the same study, it was found that a lack of proximity between teacher leader and new teachers hinders the relationship. New teachers reported that they did not have a close relationship with their teacher leaders when those teacher leaders were not assigned to the same school. These teacher leaders were reported as not being helpful as they could not allot time for frequent visits to new teachers. Therefore, 73% of new teachers reported that they found support elsewhere in the school (Hallam et al., 2012).

**Collegiality.** As collegiality is defined as one’s perception of another’s willingness to collaborate on educational issues (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009), a study done by Hawkins-Revis (2007) is reviewed. Hawkins-Revis (2007) suggests that 78% of teacher leaders perceive their position to be that of a leader and therefore give suggestions to teachers without being asked. In the study by Hawkins-Revis (2007), 43 questionnaire items were used to indicate social context, professional values, constructs and organizational structure of teacher leaders. Out of those 43 questions asked of teacher leaders, 34 questions indicated that these teacher leaders had a tendency towards openness and collaboration but nine items indicated that the traditional norms of leadership are evident in their practice. Data indicated that 80% of teacher leaders believed their status was equal to their teacher colleague and that they should not judge another teacher’s skills, but 78% of teacher leaders stated that they gave suggestions without being asked. This suggests that exchanging advice was acceptable to teacher leaders as long as judgments weren’t formed. Still, the data indicated that 51% of teacher leaders disagreed that
teaching is a profession of equals which suggested teacher leaders perceive varying skills, abilities, knowledge and expertise among colleagues. Sixty-two percent of those same teacher leaders also declared that teaching should be open to scrutiny.

Additionally, a study by Smith and Ingersoll (2004) illustrates the importance of collaborative efforts between teachers. Using the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) of 1999-2000, administered by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), the researchers found that when new teachers participated in a mentoring program, they were less likely to move to another school and less likely to leave the teaching profession after their first year. Data from the survey was collected from all new teachers during the years of 1999-2000 and included questions regarding the induction process, mentoring, and other supports available to teachers. Such supports included teaching loads, collaborative planning time, and the availability and use of support structures such as professional development, teacher aides and mentors.

The researchers used a two-stage process to analyze the data. The first stage represented data on new teacher development programs, mentoring and turnover rates. A multinomial logistic regression analysis was presented in the second stage to show the influence of mentoring and other activities on new teachers on the rate to which new teachers leave the profession within the first year.

The results suggested 65% of all new teachers surveyed participated in a formal mentoring program while 62% took part in collaborative planning time. The results showed that 81% of new teachers reported being involved in supportive relationships with other teachers. In public schools that had programs designed for collaboration between teachers, 11% were said to leave the teaching profession all together while 16% moved to a different school or different district. Having a mentor reduced the leave rate of a new teacher by 30%. These results had a
90% level of confidence \((\text{rrr}= 0.704, p= 0.084)\). Finally, new teachers who spent time with a department chair also were associated with reducing the probability of both leaving and moving although these effects were not statistically significant. Additionally, the authors found that collaborating with other teachers who taught in the same subject area or participating in pedagogical conversation with other teachers reduced the risk of leaving by about 43\% \((\text{rrr}=0.572, p<0.000)\) and the risk of moving by 25\% (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

**Recognition and participation.** As both teacher empowerment and participation in decision making are directly related to the dimensions of recognition and participation as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009), the following research by Yim, Lee, Jin and Zhan (2013) is discussed in this section. The researchers assessed teacher empowerment in relationship to trust in colleagues. Focused on teacher efficacy, the researchers indicated that trust was found to be an indicator of teacher empowerment. The researchers also found that trust in colleagues significantly improved other teachers’ self-efficacy which empowered them to participate in making decisions.

The researchers used a questionnaire survey to collect data from 1646 teachers from six municipalities and provinces in Mainland China. The questionnaire consisted of three scales and was scored on a 6-point Likert-scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). This scale, adapted from Short and Rinehart’s (1992) School Participation Empowerment Scale, used 14 items and three factors, i.e., professional growth, participation in decision-making, and perceived impact on colleagues. The instrument assessed teachers’ perception of trust in colleagues and contained five items derived from the scale of Faculty Trust in Schools developed by Hoy, Gage, and Tarter (2006). It measured five facets of trust: benevolence, reliability, honesty, and openness (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). The Teacher Efficacy Scale developed by
Tschannen-Moran, and Hoy (1998) was used to assess teachers’ sense of self-efficacy. The scale measures five general and five personal efficacy items (Yin et al., 2013).

The study highlighted the positive role of teachers’ trust in colleagues for their participation in decision-making as well as their perceptions of professional growth and impact on colleagues. Descriptive statistics for the subscales resulted in the following: teachers scored trust in colleagues most positively (M= 4.60, SD= 0.99) while participation in decision-making in teacher empowerment received one of the lowest scores (M= 3.22, SD= 1.32). Compared to the personal efficacy items (M=4.03, SD= 0.98), general efficacy items were relatively low (M=3.99, SD=1.09). Furthermore, teachers reported a statistically high rate of their professional growth (M= 4.21, SD= 1.18) and the perceived impact they had on their colleagues (M= 3.99, SD= 1.17); (Yin et al., 2013). This study provides empirical evidence that trust relationships among teachers facilitated teacher empowerment (Yin et al., 2013).

The Role of Trust in Schools

School Reform and Professional Norms

A growing body of research studies has identified social trust to be an attribute for meaningful school improvement (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). To realize their questions of “what is social trust, what shapes it and what are its benefits,” researchers Bryk and Schneider (2003) conducted an intensive case study research and longitudinal statistical analysis within a four year time period from over 400 Chicago elementary schools, representing 12 different school districts. They observed school related events and conducted interviews and focus groups with principals, teachers, parents, and community leaders. Their findings between two of their cases showed how the dynamics of trust in relationships in the schools’ community influence the schools’ reform efforts (Bryk & Schneider, 2003).
Additionally, the researchers explored the changing quality of relationships as well as the trends in student performance in math and reading achievement over a six-year period by using surveys to collect data from teachers, principals and students. The analysis documented the extent to which each school added to student achievement. The researchers called them ‘value-added’ measurements, which measured improvements in a school’s contribution to student learning and was a direct measure of the school’s changing academic productivity (Bryk & Schneider, 2003).

Data were linked from the schools’ academic productivity with the survey results of school trust over a period of time. This allowed the researchers to document how the role of trust among teachers played a vital role in school reform efforts. The researchers documented the role of relational trust to respect, personal regard, competencies in core role responsibilities, and personal integrity. Furthermore, the researchers documented the benefits of trust among teachers, and conditions that foster relational trust for successful school reform efforts (Bryk & Schneider, 2003).

Bryk and Schneider (2003) continued to state that genuine listening skill, extending oneself beyond role requirements, showing competency in professional ethics and skills of school staff, and having a commitment to a moral and ethical perspective of others, increased trust within the community of schools. Finally, the researchers pointed to the evidence that in schools in which relational trust was documented as improving over time, teachers characterized their colleagues as being committed, loyal and more eager to engage in practices that would help to increase student performance. Not surprisingly, the researchers found that in schools where high relational trust existed among teachers, there was a higher rate in student performance. These schools recorded an increase in student performance of 8% in reading and 20% in math.
Comparatively, schools that demonstrated low levels of relational trust showed a one-in-seven chance of indicating school improvement. Most significant to this study was that schools that demonstrated weak relational trust among teachers indicated no chance of improving student scores in math or reading (Bryk & Schneider, 2003).

**Teacher Professionalism and Bureaucratic Orientation**

Teacher professionalism and resisting bureaucratic orientation are characteristics which increase trust in a school community (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). In a quantitative study by Tschannen-Moran (2009), it was found that teachers’ perceptions of their colleagues' professionalism were strongly related to the position of authority by administrators along with faculty trust in the principal. Additionally, it was found that the degree of teacher professionalism in a school was related to the trust levels among others.

Using a survey model and gathering data from 2,355 teachers in 80 middle schools in a mid-Atlantic state, the researchers explored the relationship between teacher professionalism in a school and (a) faculty perceptions of the school leaders’ professional orientation and (b) the level of faculty trust in three important constituencies: the principal, teacher colleagues, and parents.

Using the Teacher Professionalism subscale of the School Climate Index (Tschannen-Moran, Parish, & DiPaola, 2006), teachers’ perceptions of their colleagues’ behavior were assessed. The eight item survey required participants to assess, on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=never, 5=very frequently), how frequently the statement is true of his or her school. The alpha coefficient of reliability for teacher professionalism was .94. Sample items include the following: “Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues” and “The interactions between faculty members are cooperative.”
Furthermore, teacher trust was assessed using the Faculty Trust Scales (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Survey results measured the trust level consistencies between teachers and their leaders, colleagues, parents and students. The Faculty Trust Scales consist of 26 items divided among three subscales. The first subscale, Faculty Trust in the Principal, included eight items. The alpha coefficient of reliability for this subscale was .98. Sample questions included the following: “The principal of this school typically acts with the best interest of the teachers in mind” and “Teachers in this school can rely on the principal.” Faculty Trust in Colleagues is the second subscale and included eight items. The alpha coefficient of reliability for this subscale was .87. The sample questions included: “Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues,” and “Even in difficult situations, teachers in this school can depend on each other.” Faculty Trust in Clients (students and parents) was the third subscale and included 10 items. The alpha coefficient of reliability for this subscale was .97. Sample items included the following: “Teachers in this school are suspicious of students” (reverse-scored) and “Teachers can count on parental support.”

The evidence showed statistical significance in all question items ($p < .0001$ level). Teachers’ perceptions of their colleagues' professionalism were strongly related to a professional orientation in the exercise of authority by administrators as well as to faculty trust in the principal (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Faculty trust in colleagues was found to contribute to the trust teachers had in their principal as well as teacher professionalism while faculty trust in students and parents was found to play a less vital role. Their findings suggest that for schools to increase teacher professionalism, it is the school leader who plays a vital role. School leaders could increase teacher professionalism by not engaging in a bureaucratic method of leadership but by exercising methods that lead to strong relational trust among the schools’ constituents.
**Role Expectations of Teacher Leaders**

In a qualitative descriptive case study by Benedict (2009), it was found that leadership activities were crucial in building trust and professional norms. The researcher used the lens of social capital to illuminate how teacher leaders build trust and professional norms in the school’s culture. Purposeful sampling was used to choose formal teacher leaders at three different suburban high schools, working as department chairs and having the power to evaluate teachers. These original six participants were chosen by principals’ recommendations of those who built trust and contributed to the schools’ professional validity, but after Hoy and Tschannen-Moran’s (2003) Omnibus Trust Survey was used to determine teacher-to-teacher trust, and teacher-to-principal trust in these teacher leaders, the researcher chose only four leaders because they were deemed to have high levels of trust. However, after further analysis, all but one of the teacher leaders had supervisory status and had the ability to evaluate teachers. Therefore, the one department head without supervisory status was eliminated from the study. After the teacher leaders were chosen, the researcher conducted interviews, transcribed, and analyzed data with three sets of participants in each school: one department chair, three teachers within the chair’s department, and one school administrator. Two in-depth interviews with each department chair, one interview with each of the three teachers being supervised, and an administrator of both the department chair and teachers were conducted. Observations and documents were also collected in the individual schools to triangulate data (Benedict, 2009).

The teacher leaders identified three leadership activities that were critical in building trust and professional norms within the schools. Teacher leaders first used the hiring process to recruit teachers who believed in and valued practices that were critical to building professional communities such as collaboration and peer observations. Second, the teacher leaders modeled
behavior and attitudes that were congruent with trust and professional communities. Third, all three teacher leaders engaged in frequent conferences with their teachers. As the teacher leaders conducted their informal and formal conferences, they saw themselves as mentors. All three set and monitored expectations and nurtured the tenured and new teachers whom they guided. These attributes were seen to be vital to building a community of learners. Based on the data collected, the researcher argued that the role of department chair in building social trust in schools is a critical factor in building collaboration, reducing barriers between themselves and others, and embracing common teaching practices (Benedict, 2009).

**Teacher Self-efficacy**

Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that school trust is positively related to collective teacher efficacy (Peterson, 2008). In a study by Peterson (2008), data addressed which aspects of organizational trust are the best predictors of collective efficacy. Data were collected from teachers at 31 middle schools in south central Texas using the Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) that was designed to measure teachers’ collective perceptions of trust in the context of school. Additionally, the Collective Efficacy Scale was used to measure the extent to which the faculty believes it can influence its organization’s performance (Goddard, 2002). Participants were considered based on whether or not their school employed 25 or more faculty members. Out of 1,990 teachers, 1,923 completed the surveys. Half of the teachers completed The Omnibus T-Scale and the other half of teachers completed the Collective Efficacy Scale. Schools that participated in the study represented the entire range of socioeconomic status. The grade levels taught by the teachers spanned both 6-8 and grades 7-9 (Peterson, 2008).
A research team of five doctoral students help with the collection of data for Peterson (2008) over the course of two semesters. This team approach to the research study was utilized so a large number of schools could be used for the sample. All researchers used scripted instruction to provide consistency and maintain integrity. Correlation coefficients were calculated for each of the aspects of faculty trust and with collective teacher efficacy. Factor analyses were also performed on variables from the Omnibus T-Scale and the Collective Efficacy Scale.

The results of the Omnibus T-Scale, with 26 questions gauging three dimensions of faculty trust including trust in principals, trust in colleagues and trust in clients (students) revealed the three dimensions of trust had an alpha coefficient of reliability of .97, .98 and .97 respectfully. These strong results also accounted for 83.3% of the variance and the items loaded on the appropriate factors. The general hypothesis that school trust is positively related to collective teacher efficacy was sustained; however, a more refined analysis of the relationships indicated that faculty trust in students emerged as the best predictor of collective teacher efficacy. Furthermore, the instruments employed in this study were found to have solid factor structures comparable with their theoretical foundations. The results of the Collective Efficacy Scale (Goddard, 2002), explained 70.3% of the variance and the factor loadings varied from .698 to .919, thus showing construct validity for this research. The reliability was high at .95 (Peterson, 2008).

The linear relationships between collective teacher efficacy and aspects of faculty trust were computed. The results were statistically and significantly related to trust in clients ($r=.872$, $p<.01$) trust in colleagues ($r=.683$, $p<.01$), and trust in the principal ($r=.628$, $p<.01$). Because the finding using the scales mimicked previous findings of Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) and
Goddard (2002), the researcher hypothesized that trust in colleagues would make statistically significant contributions to the variance in collective efficacy (Peterson, 2008). However, the results did not entirely support the expectations of the researchers. Trust in students was the only variable that significantly predicted collective teacher efficacy (Peterson, 2008).

The researchers hypothesized that due to the fact that middle school teachers were participants, their perspectives of teamwork and trust in the workplace might be due to the students they serve. It was also hypothesized by the researcher why principal trust did not emerge as a factor of teacher efficacy. Peterson (2008) explained it could be due to the fact that there was a lack of teacher trust in colleagues. It was hypothesized that when teachers do not trust their colleagues, it is more likely they do not trust their principal. As evidenced by the results in this case, it is possible that teachers believe their collective efforts have a greater influence than the principal’s efforts on achievement as they put greater trust in their students than their leader (Peterson, 2008).

**Teacher Job Satisfaction**

In another recent study conducted by Van Maele and Van Houtte (2011) that related trust to teachers’ job satisfaction, teaching experience was explored as a mediator of the trust-job satisfaction relationship. In a multilevel analyses of data, it was shown that there was a positive relationship between teacher trust in colleagues and administrator satisfaction. Although this study did not see results of years of experience in teaching affecting job satisfaction, Van Maele and Van Houtte did find results matching the need to improve the quality of teachers’ social relationships in the workplace as it were found to enhance teacher job satisfaction (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2011).
Using an anonymous questionnaire, data were gathered using multistage sampling from 2091 teachers across 80 secondary schools in Flanders, Belgium during the 2004-2005 school year. Forty-eight schools were chosen by their size. Only large municipalities were chosen and the size was determined by the number of schools within a postal code. Only schools in which five teachers responded were considered. From those schools, all the third and/or fifth grade teachers were asked to complete the questionnaires. In all, 2104 teachers, yielding a 60% return rate, returned the questionnaires. Eventually 2091 teacher questionnaires were used for the study (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2011).

Teacher trust was measured by 29 items of the trust scales developed by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999). Items were rated using a Likert scale of absolutely disagree (1) to definitely agree (5) with the highest score indicating the highest trust level. It was found that teachers differentiate between trust in students, parents, colleagues or the principal and therefore further analyses differentiated among teacher trust (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2011).

The Job Description Index (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969) was used to measure teacher job satisfaction. The survey consisted of 18 items rated on a Likert scale from absolutely disagree (1) to definitely agree (5) with the highest score indicating the highest level of job satisfaction (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2011).

Teaching experiences were measured by the number of years a teacher had been working in their school. Measures related high to teacher age ($r= 0.85; p< .001$) and their previous teaching years ($r=1.00; p< .001$). These data indicated Flemish teachers that did not transfer between schools (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2011).

Teacher efficacy was also measured to help analyze teacher job satisfaction with the use of Tschannen-Moran’s (2001) Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale. This survey measured 12
items using a 9-point continuum scale. Questions within this survey asked participants to indicate the level to which teachers perceived themselves as capable of conducting a particular action successfully. Teacher socioeconomic status and school sector size were also measured for this study (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2011).

The results showed a bivariate correlation among teacher characteristics that demonstrated significant associations between teachers’ job satisfaction and their level of trust in each of the referent groups of school members. Furthermore, teachers’ job satisfaction correlated negatively with their years of experience (r= -0.23; p< .001) and positively with their sense of efficacy (r= 0.33; p< .001). Job satisfaction correlated between the subjects taught. This data showed that teachers who taught real-world courses expressed higher levels of trust than colleagues who taught theoretical classes (y=.12; p< .001). Additionally, years of service correlated to job satisfaction. Lower levels of satisfaction were reported by teachers that had been working at a school for a longer period of time (y= -.21; p< .001). Equally strong associations were found between job satisfaction and self-efficacy (y= 0.25; p< .001). That is to say, when teachers felt successful in their job, they were more likely to be satisfied with their work. Finally, contrary to the researchers’ beliefs, no interaction between the measurement of teacher trust and years of teaching experiences showed a significant association with teachers’ job satisfaction. Moreover, having less than five years of experience at a school versus having at least five years demonstrated the same results. The researchers’ findings suggested that the trust-job satisfaction relationship of newer teachers is as important to the more experienced teachers (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2011).

The researcher found that years of teaching experience had no impact on the importance of trust in developing teachers’ job satisfaction. Teacher satisfaction at work was fostered by
other members of the school. Therefore, the results of the study suggested that when teachers trust other school members, there is an increase feeling of being satisfied with their jobs. The researchers’ findings suggested the positive side of school members focusing on trust within relationships, such as mentors for new teachers, in order to increase job satisfaction as a means to promote optimal support in accomplishing teacher driven goals (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2011).

**Summary of Literature**

The literature review was comprised of detailed and timely data and information from researchers in the field of education. Data from researchers in the area of teacher leadership and the roles of trust in the school organization was analyzed for the discussion.

Specifically, results of the literature review on teacher leadership detailed the data from sources related to the history of teacher leadership. The literature review also reported on the areas of developmental focus, communication, collegiality, positive environment, recognition, and participation in the domain of teacher leadership attributes. Furthermore, the literature review revealed a correlation of trust in schools to building teacher job satisfaction, teacher self-efficacy, and teachers’ role expectations. Data from research in the area of trust in schools also revealed that leadership activities and social trust increased meaningful school reform efforts. Lastly, the literature review revealed that characteristics such as professionalism, collegiality, and listening skills had a positive effect on increasing trust in schools.

**Educational Contribution of this Study**

This study will contribute to the current understanding of the relationship between new teachers and their teacher leaders. As such, policy makers and school leaders will have access to insightful information that may be used to guide future new teacher development programs that
are meant to support, enhance and help retain new teachers. This study supported, enhanced, and
developed methods to support the new teacher and teacher leader relationship. Thus, the
exploration into the roles teacher leaders played in the development of trust in new teacher and
teacher leader relationships can make a significant contribution in the exploration of the new
teacher commitment and means to increase job satisfaction and retention rates of those new
teachers.
Chapter III: Methodology

This study is a qualitative case study to investigate new teachers’ perceptions of teacher leaders. According to Yin (2003), a case study should be considered when the focus of the study is to answer ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions and when the researcher wants to examine contextual conditions that are relevant to the phenomenon in the study. Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2014) stated a case study explores a phenomenon that occurs in a bounded text. Thus, this study qualitatively explored the perception of new teachers by examining their views on teacher leadership roles in their individual schools. By looking closely at what new teachers perceived as effective qualities and skills of teacher leadership and the commonalities or inconsistencies that exist among new teachers’ perceptions, we can begin to develop a sense of the “universal essence” (Creswell, 2013, p. 76) of the phenomenon of trust in the relationship between new teachers and teacher leaders.

This study explored the conceptualization of a theoretical proposition (Yin, 2014). A proposition is defined by Sutton and Straw (1995) as “a [hypothetical] story about why acts, events, structure, and thoughts occur” (p. 378). The theoretical proposition of this research study explored how trust affected new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders. Specifically, the study explored the proposition (Yin, 2014) that when new teachers perceived their teacher leaders to have the Teacher Leadership Dimensions outlined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009), trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) was perceived by new teachers between their teacher leaders and themselves, resulting in enhanced job satisfaction and commitment of the new teacher.

In this form of research it is important to understand several individuals’ common or shared experiences of the phenomenon of the role of trust (Creswell, 2013).
multiple interviews are typically conducted as well as the use of other methods to understand the common experiences of the participants (Creswell, 2013). Utilizing the methods of face-to-face interviews, focus group, the qualitative Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), and the qualitative Teacher Leadership School Survey (Katzenmeyer and Katzenmeyer, 2005) (TLSS) with new teachers, the researcher was able to draw conclusions to the proposed research question by relating levels of trust of new teachers to new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders.

The surveys, interviews and focus group combined with current research in the area, informed answers to the following question:

How does trust affect new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders?

**Scope of the Study**

This study was designed to explore the extent to which trust affects new teachers’ perceptions of teacher leaders. Of particular interest was exploring the dimensions of teacher leadership as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) that new teachers perceive to be supportive for job satisfaction. The sample included eight new teachers employed by one school district, and all had similar contact with teacher leaders.

**Participants**

The following explains the method of choosing the participants for the research. The selection process followed the general guidelines of purposive and convenience sampling and considered the participants, types of sampling, and the sample size (Creswell, 2013).

Because the research was interested in exploring how trust affects new teachers’ perceptions of teacher leaders, purposive and convenience sampling processes were used as a method of choosing the participants. The process of sampling included several steps. First the
selection of the new teachers was based on recommendations by the districts’ administrators. Specifically, the researcher asked the districts’ Superintendent for approval through the Informed Consent Form for Superintendent (See Appendix C). Then, principals of the individual school were contacted and asked approval through the Informed Consent Form for Principal (See Appendix D) and names of teachers who were in their first three years of service was requested. The participants that were named were given an Invitation to Participate request form (See Appendix A), an Informed Consent to Participate form (See Appendix B), a demographics questionnaire (See Appendix F), and the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (See Appendix G) through email. The author of the Omnibus T-Scale granted permission for it to be used for this research (See Appendix J). When a new teacher chose to participate, the new teacher was asked to return the signed Agreement to Participate, the Omnibus T-Scale survey, and a validation that they worked with mentors and coaches throughout the year, to the researcher through email.

The researcher narrowed the sample by new teachers affirming they wanted to participate in this study by submitting the completed survey and IRB forms. In its inception, it was difficult to estimate how many new teachers would volunteer to participate at a single school. Because there were only eight volunteers that submitted forms and fit the criteria of having worked with mentors and coaches throughout their years of service, the researcher chose all eight new teachers to participate. The researcher’s sample was four new teachers from one school and four from another, all teaching in the same district.

To increase validity, all participants were chosen based on the fact that they were new teachers in the first through three years of service, worked in the same school system and worked with students in Pre-K-8. Moreover, each participant had similar working conditions with teacher leaders. According to the educational system guidelines, all new teachers were certified
in their teaching assignment and were highly-qualified. In order to meet the definition for highly-qualified, a teacher was certified in the area in which they were teaching and demonstrated content mastery through one of several options: HOUSSE requirements (continuing learning units), Praxis or transcripts, or National Board Certification in the content/subject area taught.

The results of the study did in no way identify individual participants. Participant confidentiality and rights were protected. Pseudonyms were used for the school system, school, participants and all other names referenced. Educational background, gender, and years of service were recorded. All data collection processes were kept in a locked file cabinet located in the researcher’s home.

**Data Sources and Collection Process**

Creswell (2013) suggested the use of a “variety of sources of data” (p. 52) to conduct a qualitative study. Additionally, Yin (2014) explained that propositions would shape the data collection plan and process which would yield some analytic priorities. Therefore, the researcher’s theoretical proposition helped to organize relevant sources for gathering data. This study relied on four sources of data including two surveys (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005), interviews, and focus groups.

**Survey Methods**

The following two surveys were used to gather data from participants related to trust in colleagues (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and perceived levels of the Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) of teacher leaders by new teachers.

**Survey 1.** As a part of the process of gathering qualitative data related to the research question, the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (See Appendix G) by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003)
was utilized. The Omnibus T-Scale Survey was a short operational measure of three subscales of trust in elementary or secondary schools using 26 Likert items to measure these subscales. The design of this survey was well aligned to the conceptual framework of this study. Faculty trust in principals, teachers, and clients was measured with the reliabilities typically ranging from .90 to .98 (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Only the results for the subset of Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) were used to gather data for this study because these questions represented the theoretical framework from which this study was designed. Survey items were piloted by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) prior to their use in this research study. Factor analytic studies of the Omnibus T-Scale supported the construct and discriminant validity of the concepts of trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

The survey was administered to all new teachers responding to the researcher’s request to participate in this study. The researcher asked the new teachers to complete the survey and submit the results through email. Although the Omnibus T-Scale Survey was not used to gather quantitative data, it was operationally used to explore and measure perceived levels of the T-Scale of Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo). Data collected from the subset of TCo was computed individually for each of the eight new teachers in one school district. In analyzing the scores of each participant the researcher was able to draw conclusions about the significance of supportive teacher leaders’ behaviors as having impact on the development of trust between new teacher and teacher leaders.

Secondly, the researcher calculated the participants’ scores from the subset of TCo (See Appendix G) using the method described by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003). From the data analysis, the researcher was able to compare trust levels that new teachers had for teacher leaders between the two schools.
Additionally, the data from the survey guided the researcher in adapting previously formulated questions to use for interviews questions.

**Survey 2.** The Teacher Leadership School Survey (TLSS) (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) (See Appendix H) was used to explore new teachers’ perceptions of teacher leaders’ support. Katzenmeyer and Katzenmeyer (2005) developed a survey that measured how schools support teacher leadership based on seven dimensions. According to Katzenmeyer and Katzenmeyer (2005), the elements of teacher leadership included developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment.

According to Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009), the authors of *Awakening the Sleeping Giant*, they and a panel of individuals with teacher leadership expertise developed the survey items they believed would be useful in assessing teacher leadership dimensions based on developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment. Through this process, content validity was determined. The 49 Likert scale items in the survey were combined and examined by the members of the panel as some items were eliminated and a few were added by the collective members of the panel (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

The TLSS (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) was selected to measure perceived teacher leader support structures that promoted new teachers’ job satisfaction. The eight volunteers chosen for the study were asked to complete the survey before the face-to-face interview. Participants were given the survey through email and asked to return the survey to the researcher via email.
Although the TLSS (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) was not used to gather quantitative data, it was operationally used to explore and measure the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). First the participant surveys were analyzed individually. The results assisted the researcher in assessing new teachers’ perceptions as they related to the differences in new teachers’ perceptions of the teacher leaders’ dimensions as described by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). Second, the surveys’ data was summarized and used to compare perceptions of the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) as perceived by the participants at each of the two schools. Finally, the researcher used the data as a guide to adapt previously formulated questions to use for the focus group questions.

**Interview Process**

All eight new teachers selected to participate in the study were asked to participate in a face-to-face interview with the researcher. Using open ended interview questions (Creswell, 2013) the participants were asked questions related to the types of leadership roles and expectations they had for their teacher leaders in the building (See Appendix E). During the interviews, the researcher recorded all conversations between participants and the researcher using a Live Scribe pen. The in-depth interviews were conducted in face-to-face format, one participant at a time, in a designated area established in partnership between the researcher and interviewee. The participants were asked the questions verbally and were given the written questions for reference. The interviewer established a collaborative process to avoid asymmetry and to protect the natural responses of the interviewee. Any clarifications about the interview questions were made by the researcher at the time of the question.
**Focus Group**

All participants were asked to participate in a focus group discussion (See Appendix I) after they completed a personal interview. During the focus group, all participants were asked to share and compare answers to their individual Teacher Leadership School Survey (TLSS) (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) that was completed by the participants prior to the focus group session. Using the survey as a spring board for discussion guided the participants in assessing their own school contexts related to the school’s support structures from teacher leaders in the areas of developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment. Teachers shared their results, noted the similarities and differences, and discussed the practices in their schools as they drew upon their information. Additional questions were asked of the participants by the researcher (See Appendix I). The focus group provided the participants the opportunity to assess their perceptions of teacher leadership in their school district. These conversations assisted the researcher in the exploration of the research question guided by this study. As during the one-on-one interviews, all conversations and interactions during the focus group between the researcher and participants were recorded with Live Scribe Pen method and analyzed for patterns in responses.

**Data Analysis**

This study explored a theoretical proposition, one which did “enable the complete research design to provide surprisingly strong guidance in determining the data to collect and the strategies for analyzing the data” (Yin, 2014, p. 38). Hence, the data collection process for this study consisted of a series of interrelated activities including surveys, interviews and focus group participation all of which focused on answering the proposed research question, “how does trust
affect new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders?” Additionally, these activities included locating individuals to interview, gaining access and developing rapport with the interviewee, collecting data, recording information, resolving field issues and storing data.

In order to begin the coding process, the researcher used the provisional coding method (Miles et al., 2014) to analyze the participants’ scores from the surveys and statements from the interviews and focus groups. Miles et al., explains that this approach begins with a “‘start list’ of research-generated codes, based on what preparatory investigation suggests might appear in the data before they are collected and analyzed” (p. 77). This method was used as it allowed the researcher to corroborate the research results to previous investigations and research. Because the researcher was open to what the evidence had to say rather than “force fit” (Miles et al., 2014, p. 81) the data into provisional codes, the provisional codes were then extended in a method that Miles et al. (2014) describes as inductive coding. Inductive coding was used in this study to further investigate “common threads in participants’ accounts” (p. 87). The process allowed the researcher to compartmentalize the data into significant categories (Miles et al., 2014) based on the researcher’s theoretical proposition (See Figure 1).

Building on data from the survey results (See Tables 1-5), interviews and focus groups, the researcher analyzed scores, and highlighted statements, quotes, and sentences that provided an understanding of how the participants experienced the phenomenon of the role of trust as it affected their relationship with their teacher leaders. This required the researcher to show a relationship among the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) with Bryk and Schneider’s (2003) trust theory, Lewicki and Tomlinson’s (2003) trust and distrust theory, and Hoy and Tschannen-Moran’s (2003) trust theory as defined by the Omnibus T-Scale Survey. Subsequently, the researcher developed a table that compared terms used by
trust theorists Bryk and Schneider (2003), Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003), and Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) with Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2009) Dimensions of Teacher Leadership as outlined in Figure 4 and more thoroughly in Chapter four (See Table 6).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developmental focus</td>
<td>Performance/lack of Predictability/lack of</td>
<td>Competencies in teaching</td>
<td>Competent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive environment</td>
<td>Shared goals/lack of Shared values/lack of</td>
<td>Ethical commitment</td>
<td>Reliable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open communication</td>
<td>Shared decisions/lack of</td>
<td>Extending of oneself</td>
<td>Benevolent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collegiality</td>
<td></td>
<td>Social exchange and sharing</td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td></td>
<td>Listening skills</td>
<td>Honest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vulnerability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. Data gathering guide based on the components of the researcher's theoretical proposition.

Themes were created and used to write a description of what the participant experienced and the context or setting that influenced the participants to experience the phenomenon of the role of trust (Creswell, 2013) as perceived by new teachers of their teacher leaders. The researcher then wrote a composite from the structural and textural descriptions that represent the “essence” (Creswell, 2013) of the phenomenon of the role of trust as perceived by new teachers of their teacher leaders. The researcher presented the data based on the participants’ perspectives and partly based on the researchers’ interpretation while avoiding a personal judgment on the data. The researcher recognized the “interrelated process” (Creswell, 2013) of the use of interviews, focus group, and surveys and used the data to explore how trust played a role in new
teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders. The framework from which this research was originally explored continued to be developed and completed as the study progressed. From themes that emerged from the data collection, a final conceptual framework was formed. The software ATLAS.ti was used to code the data.

Communication of Findings

The results were transcribed in a single report that was accessible to all participants and Southern New Hampshire University. Multiple perspectives including contrary findings were reported. Pseudonyms were used for the school district, school names, participants’ names and any other mention of other individuals. The results may assist policy makers, leaders, and teacher leaders as they consider effective methods to train and retain new teachers.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations in qualitative studies included the relationship of this study to qualitative research, the quality of the process conducted during the research, the relationship with the participants, and the relationship to research integrity and data reporting (Miles et al., 2014). The process involved the analysis of this work into current research, the awareness of potential harm or risks to participants, assurance that the researcher provided informed consent, and lastly, confidentiality and privacy (Miles et al., 2014). The participants had full information regarding the study and were given an estimate of the time involved. This study did no harm and had no risks to the participants. The relationships established with the participants were based on honesty and trust. Participants interviewed were asked to ensure a location for privacy during the interview and focus group to ensure that the information was guarded. The identification of the individuals and the organizations studied are guarded. From an ethical perspective, it was important to check back with the participants as to how information gathered was represented in
the study and thus, the researcher allowed all parties involved to review all information gathered. Finally, the researcher recognized and specified the broad philosophical assumptions of a case study and therefore the researcher bracketed as much of her own experiences in the area of this study as possible.

**Potential Contributions**

This study will contribute to the investigation of new teacher job satisfaction, skills development, and retention by increasing the understanding of the relationship between new teachers and teacher leaders. School leaders, administrators, and teachers will gain information from this study regarding the barriers, challenges, and positive insights encountered by new teachers and teacher leaders that may facilitate or hinder development, job satisfaction, and retention of the new teacher. School leaders responsible for the design, implementation, and evaluation of new teacher programs to support new teachers will gain useful information from this study. Additionally, teacher leaders will gain insights that may benefit their role as they seek to explore how to improve their schools’ culture, new teacher development, and student achievement.

**Limitations**

This study has limited generalizability (Yin, 2014) because of the methods used by the researcher. First, the types and the extent of the professional development experienced by the participants, mentors, coaches, and CIAs may be a limitation to this study. Throughout the course of their education and experience, they all may have had different approaches and content in the areas of mentoring, coaching, mathematics, English language arts, or teaching skills training which may pose a threat to the validity of the study.
Subject characteristics are this study’s second limitation. Participants included two general education classroom teachers and six specialist teachers. General education and specialist teachers had different teaching responsibilities. The general academic teachers taught all classroom subjects including mathematics and English language arts, while specialist teachers taught specific subjects such as art, music, special education, and physical education.

A third limitation in this study was the sample size. Therefore, the results of this study have limited generalizability (Yin, 2014) to other new teacher populations.

A fourth limitation was location threat. Therefore, the study’s setting was a limitation. The participants worked at different schools and therefore worked with different academic coaches, mentors, and CIAs.

The fifth major limitation and possible threat to external validity would be generalizing the study results to all new teachers in their first three years of teaching in a different setting. Results of this study have limited generalizability (Yin, 2014) as they can only be generalized to settings with similar demographics.

The sixth limitation is related to the researcher’s bias towards the research. Because the researcher was fully aware of the proposition proposed and worked in a public school setting with teacher leaders and new teachers, there may have been bias towards the theoretical proposition of this research. To her best ability, the researcher limited all biases during the conducting, analysis and communication of findings of the research study. The researcher took care not to interpret events as more patterned and congruent than they really were, and did not leave out any data. Additionally, the researcher took care not to overweight information from participants that were perceived to be more articulate, well-informed, or representative of higher status teachers. Furthermore, the researcher took care not to assume a personal agenda which
would skew the ability to represent the data in a trustworthy manner. Finally, the researcher took care to bracket out any perceptions and explanations of local participants related to the research (Miles et al., 2014).

**Validity and Reliability**

According to Creswell (2013), validation of case study research refers to the notion that an idea is well grounded and well supported with accurate structural connections in the collected data driven materials. The researcher understood the tenets of case study and had a clear conception of identifying the role of ‘trust’ in new teachers of their teacher leaders while she stated a theoretical proposition for this case study.

Creswell (2013) suggests the use of a “variety of sources of data” (p. 52) to conduct a qualitative study. Additionally, Yin (2014) explains that propositions would shape the data collection plan and process which would yield some analytic priorities. The researcher’s theoretical proposition helped to organize relevant sources for gathering data. Subsequently, this study relied on four sources of information including a literature review, surveys, interviews, and two focus group sessions to increase the validity of the study.

The selection of participants for this study was completed with minimal influence from the researcher. After being granted permission by the superintendent of the school district, and two school principals within the school district, all participants were chosen based on the fact that they were new teachers in the first through three years of service, worked in the same school system and worked with students in Pre-K-8. Moreover, each participant had similar working conditions with teacher leaders. Each of the eight participants supported and contributed to the data collection process because they had all experienced the concept of teacher leadership (Creswell, 2013). Privacy, confidentiality, and autonomy were promised to all participants.
**Time Line**

The following was a summary of dates that the researcher proposed as an identifiable model for conducting and gathering data.

**Phase one: October-December, 2014**

- Select one school system to participate, send out invitational letters, and secure interviews.
- Collect Omnibus T-Scale Survey and choose participants.

**Phase two: December-March, 2015**

- Conduct interviews with all participants. Collect and analyze data.
- Conduct second survey. Collect and analyze data.
- Conduct focus group. Collect and analyze data.

**Phase three: April-September, 2015**

- Analyze data to identify patterns in new teachers’ perceptions of the teacher leader.

**Summary**

Policy makers as well as leaders in the educational organization recognize the need to support new teachers’ transition into the school culture as well as becoming more effective in their repertoire of teaching skills and classroom management. Research evidence suggests that guidance and support for novice teachers enables them to feel more competent and motivated which indicates they are more likely to remain in the teaching profession (Bullough, 2012; Crasborn et al., 2011; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). This research study explored the perceptions new teachers hold for their teacher leaders. Specifically, this qualitative research study examined to what extent trust affected the perception by new teachers of their teacher leaders. The development of the research question guided the process of the study which included
participants to reflect on their interactions with teacher leaders as they completed two surveys, one interview, and one focus group session.

The subjects of the study were new teachers, including all in their first through third year of teaching. The non-randomized sample population worked in the education field as full time teachers of students in grade Pre-K-8. They were recognized as highly qualified teachers by state guidelines and receive guidance, support and assistance from full time teacher leaders and those that work as teachers and work part time as teacher leaders in their school.

In closing, while previous researchers have provided data on the perceptions of new teachers on different roles of teacher leaders (Bullough, 2012; Crasborn et al., 2011; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004; Wilson, Dykstra, Watson, Boyd, & Crais, 2012) this research explored the extent to which trust in the teacher leaders impacted new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leader. For new teachers to be successful there is a greater need to clarify and document through research, how teacher leaders’ roles, responsibilities, and outcomes affect new teachers (Bullough, 2012).
Chapter IV

Results

In response to teacher retention, policy makers in many school systems are using the expertise of teacher leaders to support the specific teaching and learning needs of teachers (Berry et al., 2005). The degree to which these formal teacher leaders are successful at supporting new teachers varies (Hallam et al., 2012). Trust in a relationship with teacher leaders has been found to greatly contribute to how new teachers view their success (Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005). Even while teacher leaders strived to work collaboratively with new teachers, Scott et al. (2012) provided evidence that without trust, cooperation between members of a dyad does not occur and with a continued lack of trust, mutual support and sharing of information is minimized. Hallam et al. (2012) indicated that the lack of developing a personal relationship with teacher leaders might have contributed to new teachers not being empowered to seek out guidance, therefore limiting the development of the new teacher (Hallam et al., 2012). Conversely, Hallam et al. (2012) found that some teacher leaders were perceived by new teachers to be more valuable in the development of their skills and knowledge due the positive relationships that developed between the new teacher and teacher leader. The positive relationships led to increased retention rates of the new teachers.

This study proposed that trust would affect how new teachers perceived their teacher leaders. New teachers developed trust in those teacher leaders whom they perceived to possess Katzenmeyer and Moller’s Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). The following concept map (Figure 5) was created to conceptualize the theoretical proposition (Yin, 2014) from which this research was explored.
Figure 5. Theoretical proposition of this study.

Understanding new teachers’ perceptions and the impact they have on trust between a new teacher and a teacher leader may guide future actions taken by educational policy makers to help increase the job satisfaction of new teachers, thus increasing their overall retention rates. The question which guided this research was:

How does trust affect new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders?

This chapter presents a qualitative discussion of the two surveys administered and the interviews conducted between the researcher and eight new teachers in one school district. The Chapter is organized into five sections. Section I describes the selection process and demographics of the participants. Sections II through IV include the qualitative results of the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), the qualitative results of the Teacher Leadership School Survey (TLSS) (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005), results from the one-on-one interviews, and results from the focus groups. These reviews discuss the correlates of trust and teacher leaders’ dimensions as perceived by new teachers. They help promote the understanding of factors contributing to job satisfaction and retention of new teachers. Lastly, the findings from these instruments and their connections to each other are summarized.
Section I: Participants

Participants were chosen based on many factors: the willingness of the superintendent and principals to allow the participation of new teachers, willingness of new teachers to participate, years of service, and whether or not the new teachers received mentoring or coaching. After approval by the superintendent of a school system in one New England school district, letters via email went out to three of the four principals in that system requesting new teacher participation. Two of the three principals responded to the request to participate.

Next, a list of new teachers in years one through three was obtained from the principals of the two schools who responded to the request to participate. School 1 employed eighteen new teachers and School 2 employed five new teachers matching the researcher’s criteria. An electronic survey was sent to these new teachers in both schools requesting participation only if they received services from a formal mentor or an academic coach. They were asked to describe the discipline and grade level taught (See Appendix F) and to complete the first of two surveys, the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) (See Appendix G). In each of the two schools, the researcher received four responses from new teachers matching the researcher’s criteria which totaled eight participants.

Participants in each school ranged in years of service, grade level and discipline taught. School 1 included two teachers who taught at the Kindergarten through grade four levels, one music teacher who taught in grades five through eight, and one special education teacher who taught at the Kindergarten through grade four level. Two participants were male teachers and two were female teachers. Two participants were in their third year of teaching, and the others were in their first year. Of the four participants, all four stated they received guidance from
formal mentors while only three out of the four stated they received guidance from academic coaches that were employed by the school (See Table 1).

School 2 included one grade four teacher, one physical education teacher who taught in grades five through eight, two special education teachers who taught at the Pre-Kindergarten through grade four levels. Of those teachers, two were in their third year of teaching, one in their second and one in their first. One participant was a male teacher and three participants were female teachers. Of the four participants, three stated they received guidance from a mentor while three out of the four stated they received guidance from a coach (See Table 1).

Table 1 displays comparative data of the participants including the school at which they were employed, years of teaching, grade level, subject matter taught, and whether or not they received direct guidance from a formal mentor or an academic coach that was employed by the school.
Table 1

Comparative Data on Discipline, Years of Service and Guidance from a Formal Mentor and/or Academic Coach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 1: Participants</th>
<th>Years teaching</th>
<th>Grade level</th>
<th>Subject(s) taught</th>
<th>Receives guidance from mentor</th>
<th>Receives guidance from academic coach (ELL, SEI, Mathematics, etc.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steven</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5-8</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elise</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>*All elementary academic curriculum</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeremy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>K-4</td>
<td>Special Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>*All elementary academic curriculum</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 2: Participants</th>
<th>Years teaching</th>
<th>Grade level</th>
<th>Subject(s) taught</th>
<th>Receives guidance from mentor</th>
<th>Receives guidance from academic coach (ELL, SEI, Mathematics, etc.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danielle</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pre-K</td>
<td>Special Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassandra</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>*All elementary academic curriculum</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kira</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>K-4</td>
<td>Special Education</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jose</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5-8</td>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Elementary academic subjects taught by the teacher were mathematics, English language arts, social studies, and science.

Participating schools were similar in size, demographics, racial composition, and setting. School 1 enrolled 1,371 students: 48.5% white, 41.6% Hispanic, and 9.9% other. There were 89.6 teachers in the school with a student/teacher ratio of 15.3 to 1. Ninety nine percent of teachers were licensed in their teaching assignment. School 2 enrolled 1,352 students: 47.8% white, 42.9% Hispanic, and 9.3% other. There were 86.8 teachers in the school with a
Section II: Results of the Omnibus T-Scale Survey

Eight participants, four participants from School 1 and four participants from School 2 in one school district completed the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) (See Appendix G) via Google Forms. All eight participants were in years 1, 2 or 3 of teacher service. The Omnibus T-Scale Survey is a short operational measure of three subsets of perceived trust: Faculty Trust in the Principal, Faculty Trust for Clients, and Faculty Trust for Colleagues (TCo). Vulnerability, benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness characterize each of these dimensions of trust. The reliabilities of the three subscales typically range from .90 to .98. Survey items have been piloted by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) prior to their use in this research study. The survey results were used to qualitatively compare the normed data provided by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003). Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) conducted the survey in Ohio and this study standardized the participants’ scores against the normative data provided in the Ohio sample. Factor analytic studies of the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) support the construct and discriminant validity of the concept.

Each of the 26 items required participants to assess, on a 6-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 6=strongly agree) perceptions of trust in their personal teacher leaders (mentor and coaches), principals and students. Participants were told that the term ‘colleague’ used in the survey was to refer to their formal mentors and academic coaches that were both employed by the school. The researcher analyzed the results of the questions related only to new teachers’
perception of their colleagues (TCo). These eight survey questions directly aligned to the conceptual framework. However, from these questions other categories emerged and were used to advance the research.

Although the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) was not used to gather quantitative data, the survey was operationally used to measure the subset of trust new teachers had in their teacher leaders (TCo) and to inform the researcher’s one-on-one interview questions. The analysis of the data revealed a great deal of information to inform the researcher's interview questions as well as the trust participants had of their teacher leaders. Tables 2, 3, and 4 collate the information gathered from the survey based on the eight participants’ responses. The Tables are followed by a discussion of new teachers’ perceptions of trust of school-based teacher leaders.

**Part 1: Individual and school results.** Participants answered all 26 Likert scale questions on the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) related to three subsets of trust: Faculty Trust in the Principal, Faculty Trust for Clients, and Faculty Trust for Colleagues. Only the results for the subset of the T-Scale of Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) were used to gather data for this study because these questions represent the theoretical framework from which this study was designed. These questions were numbered 2, 5, 8, 12, 13, 16, 19 and 21 (See Table 2). To determine the subset of Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo), two processes were completed.

First, the results gathered from the participants were computed by adding the values for the items composing that scale. Next, the number was divided by the number of items. For example, Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) = scores for items 2, 5, 8, 12, 13, 16, 19, 21 are summed and then divided by eight. Number eight was reverse scored because it was a
negatively expressed question. As a result, the total trust levels for each participant varied. Therefore, the highest total score that could be obtained was a 48 and the lowest score that could be obtained was that of six. Additionally, after dividing the total scores by eight, the highest score that could be obtained was a 6.0 and the lowest could be a zero.

Table 2 shows participants’ answers based on the Likert scale and the individual trust levels of each participant. In analyzing the individual scores of each participant, scores ranged in totals from a 4.0 to a 5.85. It was evident by the high scores that new teachers had high levels of trust for their teacher leaders. Additionally, the researcher analyzed participants’ scores from each school. Comparative results suggested that trust levels were not significantly different as School 1 scored a 158 while School 2 scored a 159 in trust for their teacher leaders. These findings are important as they show the significance in supportive teacher leaders’ behaviors in School 1 and in School 2 as having impact on the development of trust between new teachers and teacher leaders.
### Table 2

**Comparative Data of Participants’ Trust Levels**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 2: Participant</th>
<th>2. Teachers in this school trust each other</th>
<th>5. Teachers in this school typically look out for each other</th>
<th>8. Teachers in this school are suspicious of each other (Reversed scored)</th>
<th>12. Even in difficult situations teachers in this school can depend on each other</th>
<th>13. Teacher leaders in this school do their job well</th>
<th>16. Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues</th>
<th>19. Teachers in this school are open with each other</th>
<th>21. When teachers in this school tell you something you can believe it</th>
<th>Total TCo score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steven</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3 (4)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>36/8=4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elise</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2(5)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>47/8=5.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeremy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2(5)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>41/8=5.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2(5)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35/8=4.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>159</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 2: Participant</th>
<th>2. Teachers in this school trust each other</th>
<th>5. Teachers in this school typically look out for each other</th>
<th>8. Teachers in this school are suspicious of each other (Reversed scored)</th>
<th>12. Even in difficult situations teachers in this school can depend on each other</th>
<th>13. Teacher leaders in this school do their job well</th>
<th>16. Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues</th>
<th>19. Teachers in this school are open with each other</th>
<th>21. When teachers in this school tell you something you can believe it</th>
<th>Total TCo score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danielle</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2(5)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40/8=5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassandra</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2(5)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>41/8=5.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kira</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3(4)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32/8=4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jose</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2(5)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>43/8=5.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>158</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Number eight was reverse scored because it was a negatively expressed question.
According to the researcher’s literature review, trust is a component that is directly related to the needs of new teachers and their teacher leaders (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). As teacher leaders are perceived to possess professional skills, trust is high among new teachers (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Respect, openness, and cooperation among teachers promote trust while trust among colleagues also tends to build openness and cooperation in the relationship (Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2003). When trust levels are high among teachers, there is broad teacher buy-in which results in an environment conducive to risk-taking and positive social exchange efforts (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). Additionally, the benefits of strong relational trust among staff members facilitates teacher empowerment (Yim et al., 2013) as well as makes it more likely that teachers will want to commit and learn from one another (Bryk & Schneider, 2003).

**Part II: District results.** Secondly, the researcher standardized the participants’ scores from the subset of Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) from the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) (See Appendix G) using the method defined by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003). These scores were used for purposes of comparing trust levels against the normative data. The Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) score, as explained in Section 1, Part 1, was first used to determine the trust levels each new teacher had for their teacher leaders. The researcher then needed to convert the participants’ subtest scores to standardized scores with a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100 in order to align the scores against the normative data provided in the Ohio sample (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

The computation was completed by using the following formula: standard score for Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) = 100(TCo-4.46)/.443+500. The researcher first found the difference between school scores in Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) and the mean for the
normative sample (TCo-4.46). Then the researcher multiplied the difference by one hundred 
[100(TCo-4.46)]. The researcher then divided the product by the standard deviation of the 
normative sample (.443). Finally, the researcher added 500 to the result. These calculations 
allowed for a standardized score for Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) to be computed. 

The score of the combined sample ranked in the 98.73rd percentile, ranking the 
participants’ trust in colleagues in the top 1.27% compared to the normative sample (Hoy & 
Tschannen-Moran, 2003). It was evident the new teachers in this research study had high trust 
levels of their teacher leaders (See Table 3).
Table 3

*Results from the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 1: Participant</th>
<th>Mathematical explanation of participant scores as they were summed and then dividing by 8</th>
<th>Participant score</th>
<th>Standardized scores against the Ohio sample (Hoy &amp; Tschannen-Moran, 2003)</th>
<th>Probability or percentage of trust new teacher had for teacher leaders as compared to the Ohio sample</th>
<th>Percentile for trust from sampled population as compared to the Ohio sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steven</td>
<td>36/8 = 4.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>656.1997</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elise</td>
<td>47/8 = 5.85</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>873.5910</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeremy</td>
<td>41/8 = 5.125</td>
<td>5.125</td>
<td>756.8438</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>35/8 = 4.375</td>
<td>4.375</td>
<td>636.0709</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 2: Participant</th>
<th>Mathematical explanation of participant scores as they were summed and then dividing by 8</th>
<th>Participant Score</th>
<th>Standardized scores against the Ohio sample (Hoy &amp; Tschannen-Moran, 2003)</th>
<th>Probability or percentage of trust new teacher had for teacher leaders as compared to the Ohio sample</th>
<th>Percentile for trust from sampled population as compared to the Ohio sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danielle</td>
<td>40/8 = 5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>736.7150</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassandra</td>
<td>41/8 = 5.125</td>
<td>5.125</td>
<td>756.8438</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kira</td>
<td>32/8 = 4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>575.6844</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jose</td>
<td>43/8 = 5.375</td>
<td>5.375</td>
<td>797.1014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total from all participants’ scores</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.91875</strong></td>
<td><strong>723.6312</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.9873 or 98.73rd</strong> <em>Ranks as high trust</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0127 <em>Sample is in top 1.27% in trust</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* High trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) in sample was evident from data.
**Part III: Comparison between schools.** Next, the researcher computed the standardized scores for the T-Scale of Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) subset of the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) for purposes of comparison between the two schools. The Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) score, as explained in Section 1, Part 1, was first used to determine the trust levels for each participant. The researcher then used data from participants 1-4 (School 1) and then 5-8 (School 2) to determine standardized scores for the T-Scales for each of the schools. To do this, the researcher converted the participants’ subtest scores (participant 1-4 and 5-8) to standardized scores with a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100. The computation was completed by using the following formula: standard score for Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) = 100(TCo-4.46)/.443+500. The researcher first found the difference between school scores on Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) and the mean for the normative sample (TCo-4.46). Then the researcher multiplied the difference by one hundred [100(TCo-4.46)]. The researcher then divided the product by the standard deviation of the normative sample (.443). Finally, the researcher added 500 to the result. This computed a standardized score for Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) for each school.

It was determined that each school had high trust for colleagues as each of the two schools scored in the 98th percentile. The probability or percentage score for School 1 is a 0.9895, while the probability or percentage score for School 2 is a 0.9848. Therefore, trust levels for School 1 and School 2 are in the .01 percentile of trust as defined by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, (2003). As evidenced in the researcher’s literature review, strong trust levels are necessary for relationships between new teachers and teacher leaders to grow. Tschannen-Moran (2009) found that when teacher leaders are trusted, an atmosphere of shared commitment ensues within an organization, while Scott et al. (2012) provide evidence that without trust,
cooperation between the members of the dyad does not occur. Norman and Feiman-Nemser (2005) find that although many factors affect the development of the new teacher, trust in a relationship with teacher leaders has been found to greatly contribute to how new teachers view their success. Therefore, the results suggest that both schools within the school district would be successful in fostering new teacher and teacher leaders’ cooperation, and shared commitment which would ultimately strengthen new teachers’ success rates.

The data from the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) guided the researcher in formulating the questions for the personal interviews. The interview questions were developed to help the researcher determine the factors influencing: 1. the differences among participant scores; 2. the differences in perceptions among participants; and 3. the high scores of trust in both schools (See Appendix E).
Table 4
Comparative Data from the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) from Participants from School 1 and School 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 1: Participant</th>
<th>Mathematical explanation of participant scores as they were summed and then dividing by 8</th>
<th>Participant Score</th>
<th>Standardized score against the Ohio sample (Hoy &amp; Tschannen-Moran, 2003)</th>
<th>Probability or percentage of trust new teacher had for teacher leaders as compared to the Ohio State sample</th>
<th>Percentile for trust from sampled population as compared to the Ohio State sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steven</td>
<td>36/8=4.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>656.1997</td>
<td>0.9895</td>
<td>0.0105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elise</td>
<td>47/8=5.85</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>873.5910</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeremy</td>
<td>41/8=5.125</td>
<td>5.125</td>
<td>756.8438</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>35/8=4.375</td>
<td>4.375</td>
<td>636.0709</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Results:</td>
<td>730.6763</td>
<td>0.9895</td>
<td>*These participants have 98% trust compared to the Ohio State sample</td>
<td>*School is in .01 percentile compared to the Ohio State sample</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 2: Participant</th>
<th>Mathematical explanation of participant scores as they were summed and then dividing by 8</th>
<th>Participant Score</th>
<th>Standardized score against the Ohio sample (Hoy &amp; Tschannen-Moran, 2003)</th>
<th>Probability or percentage of trust new teacher had for teacher leaders as compared to the Ohio State sample</th>
<th>Percentile for trust from sampled population as compared to the Ohio State sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danielle</td>
<td>40/8 = 5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>736.7150</td>
<td><strong>0.9848</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.0152</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassandra</td>
<td>41/8=5.125</td>
<td>5.125</td>
<td>756.8438</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kira</td>
<td>32/8=4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>575.6844</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jose</td>
<td>43/8=5.375</td>
<td>5.375</td>
<td>797.1014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results:</td>
<td>4.91875=</td>
<td>716.5862</td>
<td>0.9848</td>
<td>*These participants have 98% trust compared to the Ohio State sample</td>
<td>*School is in .01 percentile compared to the Ohio State sample</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Each school ranks high in trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) according to the data.
Section III: Results of the Teacher Leadership School Survey

Each participant also completed the Teacher Leadership School Survey via Google Forms. Although the Teacher Leadership School Survey (TLSS) (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) (See Appendix H) was not used to gather quantitative data, it was operationally used to explore and measure the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). The survey’s questions measured new teachers’ perception of how their teacher leaders reflect these dimensions. According to the researcher’s literature review, the elements of teacher leadership include developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

Each of the 46 responses required participants to assess, on a 5 point Likert scale (1= never, 5= always) their perceptions of how their teacher leaders reflect the seven dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). The researcher asked the participants to respond to the questions based on perceptions of teacher leaders employed by their schools, specifically mentors and coaches. Participants’ surveys were analyzed individually. Questions were categorized by dimensions of teacher leadership: questions 1-7 determined perception of developmental focus, 8-14 determined perception of recognition, 15-21 determined autonomy, 22-28 determined collegiality, 29-35 determined participation, 36-42 determined open communication, and 43-49 determined positive environment. The categories of the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) were given a value score by summing the Likert scale answers. Receiving a total high score of 35 and a low score of zero for each dimension was possible. Each participant received seven scores, one for each of the seven dimensions.
The analysis of the data from the TLSS (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) revealed a great deal of information to inform the researcher's focus group questions as well as give measure to new teachers’ perceptions of how their teachers leaders reflect the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Table 5 summarized the information gathered from the survey based on the eight participants’ answers from the two schools. It is followed by discussion of new teachers’ perceptions of the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).
Table 5

*Results of the Teacher Leadership School Survey (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 1: Participant</th>
<th>Developmental Focus</th>
<th>Recognition</th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Positive Environment</th>
<th>Collegiality</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Open Communication</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steven</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elise</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeremy</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>595</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School 2: Participant</th>
<th>Developmental Focus</th>
<th>Recognition</th>
<th>Autonomy</th>
<th>Positive Environment</th>
<th>Collegiality</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Open Communication</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danielle</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cassandra</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kellie</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jose</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>752</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Scores based on 46 responses scored on a 5 point Likert scale (1=never, 5=always). Possible high score for each dimension was 35. Possible lowest score was zero. Scores determined perceptions of the seven teacher leadership dimensions new teachers hold for their formal mentors and academic coaches.
Individual participant scores varied. Accordingly, participants’ scores based on new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders as defined by the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) were considered to be average as scored by a 17 to 25, to high as scored by a 26-35.

Participants at School 1 had noticeably lower scores than School 2. Individual Teacher Leadership Dimension (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) scores from School 1 ranged from 17 to 35. These scores indicated a range from average to high as participants rated their perceptions of their teacher leaders based on the Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). The following represents a range of summed scores from the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) from participants at School 1. The scores from the dimension of developmental focus ranged from 22-24. The dimension of recognition scores ranged from 18-23. The dimension of autonomy scores from participants ranged from 17-21. The dimension of positive environment scores from participants ranged from 21-35. The dimension of collegiality scores from participants ranged from 18-22. The dimension of participation scores from participants ranged from 17-19. Finally, in the dimension of open communication, participants’ scores ranged from 20-24. Total scores per individual participant ranged from 137 to 158 which indicated varying perceptions of the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) among participants in the same school. School 1 had a combined participant score of 595.

Data showed that School 2 had higher regard for their teacher leaders as measured by the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Participant scores in School 2 ranged from 21 to 35. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) would suggest that the culture
in School 2 would be more satisfying for teachers and therefore teachers may achieve increased job satisfaction, collegiality and student performance.

The following represents a range of summed scores from the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) from participants at School 2. These scores indicated a range from average to high as participants rated their perceptions of their teacher leaders based on the Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). The scores from the participants in the dimension of developmental focus ranged from 23-35. The dimension of recognition scores from participants ranged from 21-29. The dimension of autonomy scores from participants ranged from 20-29. The dimension of positive environment scores from participants ranged from 27-30. The dimension of collegiality scores 26-31. The dimension of participation scores from participants ranged from 17-26. Finally, in the dimension of open communication, participant scores ranged from 25-32. Total scores per individual participant ranged from 168 to 199 which suggested varying perceptions of the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) among participants in the same school. School 2 had a combined participant total score of 752. Since the overall scores among participants at School 2 were higher than at School 1, these scores suggested that the teacher leaders at School 2 are perceived to have greater skill sets than those at School 1.

The data gathered from the TLSS (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) guided the researcher in formulating the questions for the focus group interviews (See Appendix I). The focus group questions were developed to help the researcher determine the factors influencing: 1. the differences among participant scores; 2. the differences in perceptions among participants; and 3. the higher scores of School 2.
Section IV: Results of the Interviews and Focus Groups

Participants were interviewed individually and then again with their peers at their respective schools to determine their perception of trust for teacher leaders (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and how their teacher leaders reflect the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005).

Part I: The coding process. The coding method explained in Chapter 3 required the researcher to correlate the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005), with Bryk and Schneider’s (2003) trust theory, Lewicki and Tomlinson’s (2003) trust and distrust theory, and Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) trust theory as defined by the Omnibus T-Scale. As outlined (See Table 6), new teachers perceived their teacher leaders to possess the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller 2009) when new teachers perceived their teacher leaders to possess any or all of the trust correlates. Additionally, Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) would argue that a new teacher needs to possess vulnerability in order to have trust in their teacher leaders. Although an open coding method was used, by correlating the terms used by these authors, it allowed the researcher to compartmentalize the qualitative interview results based on the researcher’s framework.
Table 6

Organizational Format for gathering Data based on the Components of the Researcher's Theoretical Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer &amp; Moller, 2009)</th>
<th>Trust and Distrust (Lewicki &amp; Tomlinson, 2003)</th>
<th>Trust (Bryk &amp; Schneider, 2003)</th>
<th>Trust (Hoy &amp; Tschannen-Moran, 2003) *New teacher vulnerability needs to be present in order to trust</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developmental Focus</td>
<td>Performance/Lack of</td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predictability/Lack of</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Competencies in teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Performance/Lack of</td>
<td>Benevolence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Predictability/Lack of</td>
<td>Reliable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ethical commitment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collegiality</td>
<td>Shared goals/Lack of</td>
<td>Open</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shared values/Lack of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shared decision making/Lack of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Extending oneself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social exchange/ Share</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6. *Continued*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>Performance/Lack of Competencies in Teaching</td>
<td>Competent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Communication</td>
<td>Communication/ Lack of</td>
<td>Listening skills</td>
<td>Honest/Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social exchange</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Environment</td>
<td>Concern for others/ Lack of</td>
<td></td>
<td>Open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proximity/Lack of</td>
<td>Social exchange</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part II: Representation of teacher leaders. In the individual and focus group interviews teachers discussed the trust they had in teacher leaders, how trust was reflected in the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) as well as how they perceived their teacher leaders to have the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions as described by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). In analyzing the interviews, key findings from this study revealed that all participants felt more competent and capable in their teaching because they accessed and received guidance from teacher leaders. However, after the interviews, it was evident that participants’ high scores from the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and the Teacher Leadership School Survey (TLSS) (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) did not compare with the perception new teachers had for formal mentors and academic coaches that were employed by the school.

Key findings suggested that the participants trusted, accessed, and received guidance from different teacher leaders in the school. These key findings were important in understanding how new teachers perceived their teacher leaders and therefore gained trust in their teacher leaders. As explained by the participants, both coaches and mentors in the participants’ schools were to provide guidance and support to new teachers. Each school employed a full-time mathematics, English language arts, and English language learner coach who were reported to guide the teachers in examining student data, coordinate coursework, and share ideas on pedagogy. These coaches did not have a classroom or teaching load. Each school also employed two mentors who were reported to provide curriculum guidance, instructional strategies, monthly planning meetings, and help answer any new teachers’ questions. Mentors received a minimal financial incentive for mentoring as their main position was that of full time classroom teacher.
Mentors did not always teach in the same grade level or the same discipline and were not always in close proximity to the new teachers.

After analyzing the data it was evident that there was confusion from the participants as to whom they perceived as formal teacher leaders. The results of the interviews suggested that new teachers gained the most support from other teachers. These teachers were not formal mentors or academic coaches, but professional peers who supported the needs of the new teacher. As a result, participants spoke to the high levels of trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) they had for their Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment peers (CIA) and their expertise as described by the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) and not solely of their formal mentors or academic coaches. Steven, for example, explained that when he was completing the survey, he “saw teacher leaders in a broader form of the word” and therefore responded to the survey differently than what was expected.

At the beginning of the school year, mentors requested that each first year teacher choose a CIA. These CIAs were classroom teachers, but did not hold the role of a formal mentor, did not receive compensation for the position, but taught similar curricula, grade level, or discipline as the new teacher. The CIAs’ role was to help the new teacher with the demands and struggles of being a new teacher as they provided curriculum guidance, instructional strategies, and data examination. Moreover, the CIAs, for most of the participants, were proximal to and taught the same subject and grade level as the new teacher.

Participants reported spending much time with their respective CIA. The data showed that all participants perceived their CIA to be part of the surveys. The results suggested that data from both surveys were not truly representative of the levels of trust new teachers had solely for their teacher leaders but indicators of new teachers’ perceptions of CIAs as well.
Although six of the eight participants stated on their initial survey they worked with a coach, these six participants stated in their interview that they did not consider their coaches when answering the survey questions. Although Steven had a higher trust score of 4.5 as defined by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) he illustrated the confusion of the survey questions by stating “Ah (pause), what kind of coaches? I almost couldn't tell you who they are.” Danielle also had a high trust score of 5.0 but when asked during her interview why she hadn’t mentioned trusting her coaches she stated “I don’t know who my coach would be,” and “I wouldn’t go to the coaches only because ….they aren’t useful to me.”

Similarly, seven of eight participants stated on their survey that they worked with a mentor, but when interviewed stated that they rarely or never meet or speak with them. Although Elise had a high trust score of 5.8, when asked to clarify her responses to the survey, stated:

I actually wasn’t even thinking of the other two. I was kind of answering the questions with her (CIA) in mind... I kind of felt that as a new teacher the only individual I can go to is my personal CIA.

Jose similarly had a high trust score of 5.3 and echoed Elise’s response: “I was talking about my CIA when I talked about my teacher leader. I never work with them (mentors, coaches). I don’t know them.”

The results also concluded that the CIAs offered more support to the new teachers, followed by mentors and coaches. Ironically, Jeremy had a high trust score of 5.1 but when asked about seeking guidance from his formal teacher leaders, he stated “I don’t depend on them at all. The way I view the coaches and mentors is if I need them I expect that they will be of some value...I haven’t...I don’t go for her to help.” Candy had a higher trust score of a 4.3 but
clarified who she sought out and trusted as a teacher leader as she stated: “I think of my CIA as my coach and Milka (mentor) as my mentor. So when I think about whether they (coaches) do their job well, I am not thinking of my coaches. I don’t think of them.”

Kellie had a low trust score of 3.2 which suggested she had limited trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) for her teacher leaders. When the researcher asked who she considered the teacher leaders in the school she stated:

Umm...there is one of the building mentors I talk to...I also have a CIA that I talk to a lot and...that is pretty much it...we have coaches. I may have gone to them before…but...I don’t have too many interactions with them.

Although the scores of the Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) were high among all participants, all participants spoke to the CIA position more often than to the perceptions they had for academic coaches or mentors. Key findings suggested that new teachers trusted, accessed, and gained more knowledge and skills from these CIAs who did not hold a professional teacher leader title but were chosen by the participants as an academic peer to help provide guidance and support. Specifically, CIAs were peers who taught the same subject and same grade level and were perceived to be most beneficial in helping to guide the new teachers throughout their first three years of service.

**Part III: Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment peers (CIA).** Hallam et al. (2012) reported that new teachers’ trust was developed and sustained when they perceived their teacher leaders to possess the necessary knowledge and skills to help with their personal professional development. Results revealed that new teachers demonstrated a desire to extend trust to colleagues who were competent, willing to communicate effort, inclined to commit to the
new teacher, and strive for student success. As such, results from this research suggested the CIAs were most instrumental for participants’ development as CIAs worked in conjunction with the new teachers in helping to shape their skills, develop knowledge, and create a supportive atmosphere. What follows is data that shows how CIAs were trusted by new teachers as they demonstrated all seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009).

**Developmental focus.** Results indicate that the similarity in grade level and discipline between the new teacher and the CIA increased the level of developmental focus a new teacher perceived of a teacher leader. Seven of eight participants chose their CIA because they taught in a similar grade level and had discipline expertise. As a result, for those seven participants, the CIA became most instrumental in developing new teacher skills, increasing knowledge, and guiding their decision making in matters related to curriculum and instruction.

Participants reported depending on their CIA for skills and knowledge they needed to be successful as a new teacher. They reported being able to ask the CIA specific questions related to grade level and discipline. Jose reported “If I have an issue she is there to guide me and answer the questions...I depend on her... She has great insight into how I should go about things. She is very informed.”

Furthermore, CIAs were able to provide the best guidance and therefore were able to build trusting relationships with the new teachers. These trusting relationships helped to build the skills and knowledge of the new teacher. Kellie stated that she trusted that her CIA gave her proper guidance and direction at any time she pursued her opinion. Kellie explained why she trusts her CIA: “because she is really knowledgeable about what we teach and I can go to her with anything for any questions and she can point me in any direction.”
However, when there was a difference in professional expertise between the new teacher and the CIA, the new teacher became untrusting of the CIA. Compared to the positive experiences of the other participants, Steven’s experiences with his CIA differed due to the fact that his CIA taught a different grade level. Consequently, Steven regularly sought out other teachers to help guide him in his professional work. Steven gave advice as to how to choose a CIA to best fit the needs of any new teachers:

I would tell the mentors to hook up a teacher with someone who is similar to them at the school…same sense of ideas and outlook, so as the years go on, they have someone to feel connected to.

Additionally, during the interviews, participants compared their administrators’ lack of skills and knowledge in specific discipline and grade level expertise to that of their CIA. New teachers felt their CIAs had more developmental focus (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2003) than administrators. Therefore, new teachers felt comfortable receiving information from the CIAs over the principals in the building. In an effort to acknowledge why a participant accessed a CIA over an administrator for skills and knowledge, Jeremy stated:

My CIA is more knowledgeable. My administrator didn’t teach what I teach. So in teaching you have similar things you look for in the classroom- discipline, how the kids behave. As far as teaching wise, there are different skills that he doesn’t have and knowledge that you need to have.

Kellie echoes this perception and stated:

There have been times I walked into an administrator and say ‘hey, this doesn’t make sense’ and ‘why not?’ and I explain it and they say ‘Oh, my, I had no idea!’ So to me,
there is a certain level of information that they need to hold on to and they can’t possibly know everything for everybody. So my CIA I go to for information.

New teachers were also aware of their administrators’ unfamiliarity with specific subject matter and therefore were more comfortable and trusting of their CIAs to guide best practices used in the classroom. Danielle stated that in her classroom her “CIA is more talented than (her) administrator.” Cassandra continues the theme and explains that the limited time administrators are in the classroom makes it difficult to trust their expertise in giving advice about teaching versus the greater knowledge of a CIA. She states:

It is typically a ten minute period time during the day. They don’t come in for long. They are getting a short glimpse. When the administration come in it is for a short time. I would take my CIAs advice more than an administrator that is in my room who has never taught in my grade or near my grade. I think my CIA is more knowledgeable and could help me with my teaching.

**Positive environment.** According to Hoy et al. (2003), professional teacher behaviors, including being open, supportive, and cooperative with each other are key to developing trust in colleagues. Trust theorists Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) assert that trust develops when there is a concern for others, and Bryk and Schneider (2003) suggest there needs to be a social exchange for a dyad to develop trust. Results of this study suggested that new teachers responded with an emphasis on CIAs’ supportive, approachable, and collaborative behaviors when they accomplished professional tasks. Therefore, within the relationship between the CIA and the new teacher, it was evidenced that trust affected new teachers’ perceptions of their CIA to respond in a way that reflects Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2009) definition of positive environment.
Supportive character traits allowed for new teachers to build positive relationships with their CIA and therefore were more satisfied with their work. From “warm and inviting” to “super positive,” the CIAs were perceived as being a peer that new teachers could easily approach. Jose spoke to the positive relationship he had with his CIA: “She seems super happy about things that I am bringing into the class and things that she does I like to see too.” Jose also noted that CIAs in the school make an impact on providing a positive environment within the school by keeping an upbeat professional attitude. Jose stated: “When you walk around everyone says hi. It is a nice positive atmosphere. It is definitely the CIAs who contribute more than the other mentors or teacher coaches.”

Trust in CIAs’ work ethic provided for a positive work environment allowing participants and CIAs to work collaboratively and be proactive in order to accomplish common tasks. Jeremy stated that he and his CIA “work strongly as a team and that they cover for each other.” Danielle explained the collaborative relationship she has with her CIA:

I think my CIA, if we have common issues within the building that need to be dealt with, she definitely would be proactive...we would work as a team in order to accomplish the task as best we could. We may not accomplish it, but we would work together.

Moreover, supportive structures provided by the CIA allowed participants to trust their CIA with information more so than any other teacher leader in the school. Jose stated “Any issue I have, I talk to her. (Smiling) If I am telling her about an issue, it’s not like she is going to go run around and tell.”

Proximity was a factor in building trust between the CIA and new teachers. According to Wang and Fulton (2012) teachers seek support and build dependency on teacher leaders as the frequency of the interactions increase. Because CIAs were proximal to the new teachers, the two
were able to spend much time together discussing and working on teacher related issues. As such, dependency on part of the new teacher occurred and thus trust (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) developed. Cassandra explained that her relationship with her CIA “is wonderful” because she is “right next door” and “easily accessible.” Cassandra explains having her CIA next door: “I think it is very convenient…from the first day we have been very close. She welcomed me when I was setting up the classroom. I think having her so close does makes a difference.” She continues:

I don’t turn to the coaches. I turn to my CIA more so and more quickly. Maybe because it is proximity. My CIA is next door to me so it is easier to open the door and say “Hey, the kids aren’t getting this concept and how would you teach it?” Otherwise, you would have to email, connect with them and track them down somehow and find them.

*Open communication.* Within the relationship between the two it was evident that the presence of trust affected new teachers’ being able to share information with teacher leaders through what Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) define as open communication. All participants had a relationship with their CIA in which they felt their conversations were trusted and therefore would openly communicate and confide in matters of importance. Jose stated “Anytime I had a question I would talk to (my CIA).” Kellie, during her one-on-one interview also elaborated on confiding to her CIA by stating:

I trust that she (CIA) has my best interest when she gives me an answer. She and I can share different experiences and talk about what is going on and she comes to me to ask questions. It is a mutual understanding.

Jeremy reiterated the ability to openly communicate with his CIA:
She has really in times gone out of her way to keep me abreast in areas I may have not understood as well or know to do or how to do something. Just giving me advice and asking me if I am familiar or what this is, or if we are going to have a meeting- why don't you come- we would love for you to come- and if you have questions let us know- just very open. (She is) someone I can go to if I had a question and she would give me a level straight answer. She is that kind of person and she helps me on things in school and non-academic things like charitable things for organizations. She is involved and cares about people. So...I know that I can go to her. There were times that I had a question...I know I can go to her and ask advice, or just to clarify, make sure I understand something correct.

Additionally, six of the eight participants formed friendships with their CIA not only at work but outside of the school environment. In fact, all participants discussed matters with their CIAs on a daily basis. Being in a location that was proximal to the CIA allowed for more interactions. The time spent with their CIAs created a trusting environment in which the dyad was able to be open and honest with each other. Cassandra explained her professional and friendship status with her CIA:

> We have become friends as well as coworkers. So she is there to support me. We text outside of school as well. My whole team has a friendship outside of the school so it makes it easier to come to school when you have friends as well as coworkers.

**Collegiality.** Results suggested that new teachers initiated collaborative efforts regarding student related matters and teaching strategies. CIAs participated in lesson planning, shared resources and collaborated on instructional matters. As trust has been shown to create conditions that are conducive for individuals to initiate and sustain higher levels of engagement (Tarter et al., 1989), it can be stated that new teachers trusted their CIAs.
New teachers reported that CIAs supported them through observations more than mentors or coaches. CIAs gave advice regarding teaching strategies after observing lessons. Because CIAs behaved in this manner, they were trusted and gained the respect by new teachers more than other teacher leaders. As described by Elise:

> I want them (coaches) to initially come into my room and say you did a great job with this and this but you need to work on this and this…I feel like we don't get a whole lot of that and I feel like it’s the trust factor. I trust (my CIA) more because she has done these things for me.”

Participants perceived their CIAs to be crucial to their professional career because they consistently shared grade level resources, ideas and information. Cassandra stated about her CIA:

> “She is constantly putting resources on my computer during the day. I don't know what I would have done without her this year.”

New teachers appreciated the guidance they received and readily accepted the information from their CIA. One participant explained that as a new teacher he was eager to do things “his way,” but after taking advice from his CIA after she observed one of his classes, his repertoire changed. Jose stated about his CIAs role in leading him to be a better educator: “Now she has changed me.”

**Recognition.** Trust theorists assert that when it is predicted (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) that one will perform to one’s capabilities, and it is perceived that one’s performance is reliable (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) trust between members in a dyad develops. Findings from this study suggested a correlation between new teachers’ high trust for their CIAs and recognition of the roles and the contributions they made to new teacher development. New teachers reported that CIAs were most instrumental in guiding the new teacher with the necessary skills and knowledge, support, structure, and friendship as they created an “open door
policy” where they welcomed a “pop in” by the new teachers to discuss any issues or concerns throughout their first three years of service.

Key to these findings is that the position of the CIA was similar to the job description, discipline and work responsibilities of the new teacher. Cassandra explained that she recognized the strength in the CIA position due to the “more specific stuff” her CIA provided. Kellie recognized her CIAs assets by stating that “she sees things from the perspective that I am usually coming from.”

Participants acknowledged and gave respect to the CIA position as being instrumental in job satisfaction and retention as well. For example, Cassandra questioned whether or not to stay in the profession after her first year of service. When asked what changed her mind about teaching she stated “I think it is the support, the knowledge and the resources that you have to go to. These people (CIAs) that know the profession and have been in the profession that can help you.” Cassandra continued to recognize her CIAs capabilities and explained how her CIA was recommended to her by her mentor:

My mentor knew me for a day and then paired me with whom she thinks would be good. My mentor knows her work ethic so I think she is a great second grade teacher. I was paired with her because she was knowledgeable…She has been phenomenal! It worked. I am sure I wasn’t paired with another in the second grade because maybe they don’t work as hard or are as knowledgeable as (my CIA).

Similarly, when asked what Jose would have done without the guidance of his CIA during the first years of service, he stated that “It would be tough to work every day.” He continued to discuss his respect for his CIA during his second year of service and stated “I think back to my
first and second year teaching. It was hard. We helped each other, but I think I would have struggled a lot more if I didn’t have her this year…She is very important.”

Ironically, although CIAs were instrumental in acclimating and supporting new teachers to the school environment, curricula, lesson plans and testing procedures, results indicate that CIAs were not well known for their work by other teachers in the building and therefore were not recognized for the benefits they provided to the new teacher. Kellie stated, the CIAs “fly under the radar. “ As a result, other teachers in the building did not know the relationship between the CIA and the new teacher nor its benefits and therefore did not recognize the need for the new teacher to spend time with the CIA. This resulted in a negatively perceived acknowledgement of the relationship by the new teacher. Cassandra stated the perceived negative remarks from other teachers as they witnessed her speaking with her CIA. She stated “what are they chit chatting about! Why are they hanging out together?”

All eight participants explained that the lack of acknowledgement of the CIAs’ position by others teachers is perceived as detrimental to the CIA-new teacher relationship. For example, because Kellie accessed her CIA almost on a daily basis, other teachers commented negatively about the two being together much of the time. Kellie insisted that she benefited from the knowledge of the CIA-new teacher relationship. These same eight participants thought that their CIA should receive more acknowledgement than their position allows. However, it was perceived that the CIAs did their job not for the recognition, but for fulfillment. According to Jose, “ It would be nice to give them (CIA) more recognition, but maybe they don’t want recognition and they just want to help and that is why they are teachers and not coaches.”

**Participation.** New teachers perceived the CIA to be actively involved in making
decisions and having input on important matters which correlated to Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2009) definition of the Teacher Leadership Dimension of participation. According to Lewicki and Tomlinson’s (2003) theory on trust, new teachers developed trust when they shared values, goals and similar struggles with their CIA. Therefore, results suggested that new teachers’ high trust in their CIAs resulted in the participants seeking out their CIAs, knowing they would find resolution to problems they shared as professionals. As Jose explained:

    My CIA and I have similar struggles, seemingly unresolved for extended periods of time. So just knowing that when something comes up related to that specific issue, and I go there, she knows exactly what I am talking about. She may end up down here in my room because we are dealing with the same issue and she wants to talk about the issue.

    Again, the theme of sharing a similar job description allowed trust to grow between the CIAs and the new teacher participants. Because the CIA and the new teacher share a job description, new teachers perceived the CIAs to be willing to work together to solve similar issues. As Danielle explained:

    The CIA does the same job you do so they can relate to the struggles you have and you can relate to them and their struggles...I think my CIA, if we have common issues within the building that need to be dealt with, she definitely would be proactive. We would work as a team in order to accomplish the task as best we could. We may not accomplish it, but we would work together.

**Autonomy.** CIAs were reported by participants to be autonomous in their position. In contrast to the well-defined positions of the mentors and coaches, the position of CIA had no strict guidelines as to how to guide the new teachers (See Appendix K). As a result, CIAs were perceived by the new teachers to be flexible, self-sufficient and able to make important decisions
that directed new teachers in the methods that best supported their needs. Additionally, new teachers’ perceptions of their CIAs followed along with what trust theorists Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) state to be important in building trust between individuals. Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) would contend that trust is built when another is perceived to be competent in making decisions of important matters. Thus, over the first few months of the new teachers’ careers, the relationship between the CIA and new teachers developed to a point where the new teacher trusted the CIAs opinions to make important decisions that would affect the new teachers’ professional career. Jose spoke to the autonomy of his CIA:

My (CIA) does have a voice. If anyone could make a change, she would be the one to go to the principal. She is the opposite of saying “don’t even bother.” If there is something that she wants to be done, she doesn’t care how loud she is in order to get things done. It is good. She is the first one out there to fight for what we need.

Although new teachers reported that they typically rely on their own efforts, judgment and intuition, participants perceived the CIAs to be able to provide leadership advice to the new teacher. New teachers reported that they asked for advice from their CIAs before asking advice of any other teacher leader and trusted the CIA to properly guide them throughout their first years of teaching. Jose specified his reasoning for seeking advice from his CIA and stated that “she has great insight into how I should go about things... She is very informed.” Additionally, Kellie spoke to how she made important decisions and placed trust in her CIA:

My CIA is very supportive if that needs to happen and usually I talk to her before I do it. If I asked her to come and have that conversation with me, she absolutely would. Because my program is specific, if I need something done, I take it on myself. But the support from my CIA is there. It is easier to go in and ask for something when you have already
had a constructive conversation about it and they tell you are not crazy. They (CIAs) tell you that you have all your ducks in a row before you have the opportunity to talk to the administration.

New teachers reported that their CIAs were able to remove barriers for the new teacher, as they helped them through some of their most challenging times. In this example, Elise, who had been very sick in the beginning of her first year, reported not knowing how to go about the procedure of asking to be relieved of her teaching duties to go home. Her CIA was instrumental as she guided Elise and made a decision that was in Elise’s best interest and not in the best interest of the principal:

I mentioned something to (my CIA). I was sick and I didn’t know what to do...sign out…or not. She instructed me to use my half day card. So I went to the office and when I went to the principal and said I need to sign out she took it in a negative way and she had said that those cards are only if needed. I said I need it today and my whole team noticed how sick I was. The principal said she couldn’t find coverage and that I should have called in sick. I told her I thought I could have made it through the day and if I had known how sick I was I wouldn’t have come in and I would have stayed home. When I went upstairs I was really discouraged and I didn’t think I should leave and should stay. I was going to call the principal and tell her I would stay. (My CIA) instructed me to leave and that it would all work out. So it was nice. I was glad she was there.

It was evident that the CIAs were trusted with valuable information as they provided the support that new teachers needed in their first three years of professional growth. As Cassandra stated “I think that when I talk to her I know what I say is going to stay between us. It means a lot.”
Summary. Key findings reflected high levels of perceived Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) by the participants of their CIAs. As such, results suggested that new teachers had trust in their CIAs and that a trusting relationship between members of the dyad existed. Data showed a spirit of mutual respect and caring that existed between new teachers and their CIAs. Respect for the CIA by the participants resulted in the CIA to be perceived as one who was supportive, approachable and collaborative. New teachers shared confidential information, asked input on important matters, and depended on their CIA to guide them in developing their skills and knowledge as it related to teaching and student success. New teachers pursued the guidance and support of the CIA because they were proximal, readily available and had specific discipline and grade level expertise. Finally, the results suggested that high levels of trust for the CIAs by the participants created relationships between the two that increased job satisfaction for the participants.

Part IV: Mentors. Results revealed that mentors were less likely than CIAs to gain trust by the new teacher. As evidenced in the researcher’s literature review, strong trust levels are necessary for relationships between new teachers and teacher leaders to grow. According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy’s (1998) theory on trust, if new teachers perceived themselves to be vulnerable, they would reach out to the mentors. Because the participants’ needs were met by their CIAs, the participants did not feel vulnerable and therefore did not have a need to build a strong relationship with their mentor. As such, results from this research suggested the mentors were perceived to be less effective in helping new teachers develop skills and knowledge, and creating a supportive atmosphere for new teachers. What follows is data that shows how mentors were trusted by new teachers as they demonstrated seven dimensions of teacher leadership.
**Developmental focus.** Key findings suggested that new teachers accessed their mentors more during their first year in their profession. Mentors were the first teacher leaders assigned to new teachers to assist them in the development of their skills and introduce them to their new surroundings. According to Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003), because the participants were new to their positions and were vulnerable, they perceived their mentors to be competent and therefore relied on them. Mentors became a vital resource for the participants in the beginning of their careers in regards to gaining knowledge about the policies and procedures of the organization as well as learning new skills necessary to be a skillful teacher. Jose stated of his mentor: “I think that if I did need something, she would be someone I would go to and ask an opinion.” Cassandra expressed how she perceived her mentor to be competent in her profession and therefore trusted her mentor as an asset to her professional development:

> I feel like there is somebody (mentor) who has been here for a long time, who you think has their act together, and you think, ‘Oh, gosh I don’t have my act together’...no, it’s not that I don’t have my act together it is just that nobody can get to this, or it is unattainable, or it is happening for everybody, or it isn’t just because I haven’t figured out the right method or have myself organized the right way. It isn’t just me.

Participants’ comments demonstrated that they perceived mentors to be eager to help guide the new teacher and, as Jose stated, “talk about what is working.” Kellie explained in more detail the type of assistance and guidance she received from her mentor:

> A lot of timelines, how to(s), where to get things, umm...a lot of the stuff I didn’t know that I didn’t know. For example, in the beginning of the year she came to me and said ‘here is a whole packet for you, here is what I want you to do to keep track of certain information and this is when I want it by.’ She would come and check on it. It is very
helpful to have someone in the building who knows the ins and outs of where to get something, the types of things I need help with…I got a lot of what I needed from her last year, the general need to know stuff. Now I am looking for the more specific stuff I need from the CIA.

Results also suggested that new teachers understood that the purpose of their mentor was to provide advice regarding teaching strategies. New teachers welcomed mentors’ advice on teacher skill-building especially during the first few months of their first year teaching. As Danielle explained:

Most of the time she (her mentor) would compare what we are doing to what she is doing. She can look at a lesson I am doing here and relate it to what she is teaching at a different level. She can give me an idea of something else I could do. She never really had any negative feedback. She may say ‘You can try this, or try using this, or use this book’ but nothing negative.

Additionally, participants demonstrated awareness of the difficulty in working with the mentors due to dissimilar teaching backgrounds. Six of the eight participants had mentors who were not assigned to teach the same discipline or the same grade level. New teachers perceived these mentors to lack the skills and knowledge necessary to trust their guidance in areas involving developmental focus. The differences in teaching backgrounds made the participants want to seek out others who had similar experiences in teaching. Jeremy, a special education teacher, stated that he “would go to people who are in (his) direct department more so for advice” because, he stated, “mentors are regular classroom teachers. Um...I mean this is a classroom, but it is a different program.” Steven expressed how he navigates the mentors’ recommendations even though they teach dissimilar curricula and grade levels. He stated he has
“to glean how they feel with their personal perspective and how it is really going to affect (him).”

The ability to encourage new teachers is a characteristic of developmental focus as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). Results suggested that mentors did encourage new teachers and therefore new teachers trusted and appreciated the advice. Steven stated that his mentor had a positive attitude and would say to him and the other new teachers “you can do a good job! You can have fun; I am sure, good luck. I hope that goes well for you.” Danielle also expressed her trust for her mentor as it related to received advice:

She isn’t afraid to tell you what we are good at and what we are not good at.

Someone that always tells you that everything is fantastic- nothing is always fantastic…

It’s not like she is mean. She is helpful.

However, four of the eight participants expressed their lack of trust for their mentor even though these mentors had positive attitudes towards the new teachers. Mentors were perceived to be working for the principal and not the new teacher. For this reason, new teachers were discrete with whom they shared information about themselves in fear of being exposed by the mentor. Regarding this point, Kellie stated “I am very cautious who I talk to for what and when.” Jose explained his caution when speaking to his mentor as well:

It wasn’t like I was giving her my deepest darkest secrets. It was like I just had conversations about what is working. She was more just there if I had a question about anything within the system.

Participants expressed that having a mentor available to guide the new teachers during a vulnerable time was, as Steven stated, “comforting.” However, it was well known by the participants that mentors received an extra stipend for their position and therefore the
relationship between the mentor and the new teacher was perceived by the new teacher as forced. Therefore, new teachers didn’t always trust that the mentors would provide the specific skill set or knowledge new teachers deemed necessary and beneficial. Steven stated:

In the past when I started with the mentor program I did depend on them for a lot of things. There were a lot of questions, but they were getting paid, so I knew it was in their job description.

Finally, new teachers perceived that minimal time was spent between them and their mentors during the first year. Participants stated that mentors would meet once a month and share ideas and information regarding general school policies and teaching issues. As such, all eight new teachers reported they accessed their CIA more than their mentor. As such, the limited amount of time the mentors spent with the new teachers reflected the trust new teachers had of their mentors in regard to skill building.

**Positive environment.** Perceptions of positive relationships between the mentor and principal were perceived to benefit the new teacher. New teachers requested guidance related to administrative policies and procedures and expected that their mentor would speak on behalf of the new teacher to the principal. Steven spoke to how he used the mentors during his first year in regard to helping him plan his concerts:

They helped me out with interpersonal relationships with administration and other teachers...I come out and say this is my situation...like when I need to get my kids together for a concert and I needed to see the kids together and the teachers are giving me a hard time, and the administration is backing the teachers up, but I need them. How far do I push? So the mentors told me, send an email with specifics, told me what I can get
away with. But if I push it too far I need to make sure I maintain a good relationship with everybody.

Participants also utilized mentors to gain information about decisions being made by their principals. Results suggested that new teachers trusted the mentor not to disclose questions they had about processes and procedures with administrators. Elise explained her perception of trust in this matter:

If I have a question about what is going on with administration, I would hope that she would keep that confidential, which she has in the past… I have said something to her in confidence and... I hope that she wouldn’t go running to them with what I said. I wouldn’t want them to get the wrong impression...If I say there is something I have an issue with or I don’t agree with (what) administration is doing, I will ask her about it and see if it is procedure and it is the way things work...I feel confident that she won’t go back and tell them that ‘oh she asked that.’

However, Elise also noted a genuine concern her principal had for her receiving guidance from her mentor. Elise noted of her principal: “He (principal) is really great at asking questions if (my mentor) is being helpful in any way...I think he (principal) is genuinely interested in it and wants to know things are running smoothly.” However, Elise questioned her principal’s motives when he asked Elise’s opinion of her mentor. She recognized that the relationship between the mentor and the principal wasn’t as strong as she assumed.

In some ways I feel it is a good thing because he is questioning me to get my opinion of it and in another way he doesn’t know if (my mentor) is being helpful. But I think he should know (laughter).
Mentors were perceived to complain about the school and their position which led new teachers to believe that they are not respected by administration. Participants stated that “the mentors are as jaded as any other teacher,” they don’t have “the happy fun perspective of teaching,” and mentors complained that “it was them against everything: the administration, the other teachers.” These perceptions limited the trust new teachers had in their mentors because mentors were “look(ing) out for themselves first.” Steven elaborated:

I can tell from their talk about how the administration treats them that they feel underwater. They just want to teach the kids and they don’t know how they are going to get through it. They felt like they were always messing up and one of them was looking for a new job...They were happy that I was in teaching. But if push comes to shove, they would back themselves up before helping me out. I can’t see a situation where they would say I did the right thing. But they would say I did mess up and maybe this was him and kind of pushing it off on someone else to protect themselves. It’s kind of the idea that people will make sure that they keep a job and they look good at the end of the day and if anything else around them goes awry, then they make sure that they are protected...When there is a fire, he will run for the door. No matter how much we practice. People are people, they are going to protect himself. I haven’t worked with many people, but a lot of the teachers everywhere are nice to you in the hallways, and they smile, but while I am here, don’t mess me up. They want to keep their job, so people are kind of scared and they react.

**Open communication.** According to trust theorists Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003), for there to be trust, one person needs to perceive that the other is open and honest. Without the perception of the other possessing these traits, trust does not exist. Results suggested that all
eight participants perceived that their mentors were honest and open when participating in sending and receiving information relevant to the effective function of the school. For example, Steven spoke of his trust for his mentors:

I thought they were actually really good about that. One of the things I liked about them was that they were open and honest and they weren't' callous and...they weren't too kind about things...kind of like. ‘I am not going to be a jerk to them, but I am not going to say everything you do is fantastic.’ They would say this is what is happening in the school. (My peers) and others in the same program with me, it was good, because every time we had a problem, and asked how we could deal with it, they were happy to help us.

Additionally, Candy explained how her mentor, after the first meeting of the school year with their principal, was vital in supporting the new teachers’ needs by being honest and open with the principal:

For a new teacher the message that was given at our opening segment by the principal was negative. We were open with her and she brought it to administration in a positive way. It is difficult for a new teacher to hear something like this just coming into the building. She brought it to our administrator and there were apologies. She is always looking out for us.

However, results suggested that lack of communication was a reason for participants to report the limitation of perceiving their mentors to be as open and honest. According to Lewicki & Tomlinson (2003), when there is a perception of lack of communication by one person, trust is limited. Jose reported that “there isn’t much communication with my mentor or coach. I mean we had a meeting in the beginning of the year, but nothing else,” and for these reasons he
wouldn’t go to his mentor unless it was for some “stupid things” like asking about sick days or procedures.

**Collegiality.** Results suggested that mentors were perceived by participants to collaborate on instructional methods, student related matters and strategies as the mentors shared materials and completed observations with the participants. According to Darling-Hammond (2003), by leveraging trust, the mentors helped create a collaborative environment in which new teachers were willing to commit to their profession and work with their mentor to achieve greater teaching skills and knowledge. Jeremy explained that his mentors “have gone out of their way at times to get the new teachers their materials that may be helpful” and that “they give us advice (and) demonstrate things.”

However, although new teachers were to be observed by mentors as part of their mentoring experience, interactions were few and as little as once during the first year of teaching. As a result, all eight participants indicated that the mentors provided less guidance and support as it related to student achievement than their CIA but more than that of the coach. Nonetheless, all participants but Steven welcomed the minimal advice of their mentor as they trusted that the mentors had the new teachers’ best interests in mind. New teachers stated they wanted to “grow” as a teacher and improve their teaching techniques. The minimal exposure they had with mentors in collaborating on teaching techniques was well received. Jeremy stated:

The mentor came in one time, and I didn’t ask for her help, but it was a scheduled event in the first month and she gave me one piece of feedback which I found valuable and something I was meaning to get to as I was aware of it. She put it in my head again and said that I need to make sure it is there. It was a daily goal. It pushed me to make it a priority. So that was fine.
**Recognition.** Results suggested that participants perceived that mentors performed well at their duties, were predictable (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003), reliable, benevolent (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), and showed commitment to their work (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). These traits, as defined by the theoretical framework of this study, allowed for the mentors to be trusted by the new teachers. Participants stated that their mentors did their job “very well,” and they “go beyond” what they needed to do to help new teachers excel. Results suggested that seven of eight participants recognized that their mentors were hard workers. The participants stated that they trusted the mentors and perceived their mentors to be “team” members working towards common goals. For example, when asked which teacher leader she trusted more, Danielle, a special education teacher, recognized her mentor first and then her CIA. Danielle explained that she trusted her mentor not because of her specific content area, but for her “global understanding of how the culture of the school works.” When asked to elaborate on which teacher leader she trusted, Danielle stated:

I guess with (my mentor) I trust her more. I trust her more for the overarching everything way whereas my peer across the hall I trust her for special ed. questions; more specific in a limited focus. I trust (my mentor) under the umbrella for everything. My CIA is the person I would go to for specific questions related to preschool. But if I had a building question I would ask my CIA too, but I would ask (my mentor) too.

Participants recognized their mentors’ predictability and reliability as teacher leaders. For new teachers, it was important that they had “someone you can go to” to support them on a consistent basis. Cassandra explains:

It is more known who the mentors are than the CIA because they have been more consistent and working in the system and she has been doing it for quite some time.
She was my CIAs mentor when she came in years ago. In the lower school the consistency matters.

Additionally, results suggested all eight participants trusted their mentors more than their coaches because mentors were perceived to possess all the traits of recognition as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). Statements such as “I think they (mentors) do a lot more than coaches” and “teachers say go talk to the mentor, you don’t hear them say go talk to the coaches” were commonly stated throughout the interview process. In fact, participants felt that mentors “don’t get much recognition” and that they would benefit from and “deserve more.”

**Participation.** Results suggested that four participants perceived the mentors to be actively involved in making decisions and having input on important matters which correlated to Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2009) definition of the Teacher Leadership Dimension of participation. Additionally, Lewicki and Tomlinson’s (2003) theory on trust asserts that new teachers developed trust when they shared values, goals, and similar struggles on important matters with their mentor. Interestingly, the results suggested a division in perception among participants in each school. Even though the new teachers shared the same mentors, two from each school perceived to share goals, decisions and values with their mentors, while two participants in the same school did not.

Participants expressed the ability of the mentors to listen, redirect and give honest answers when helping the new teacher to make decisions. These qualities were perceived to be necessary and important for the new teacher. Danielle stated of her mentor that she “can ask her anything” and that “she will give me an honest answer.” Candy discussed the trust she has for her mentor:
With (my mentor) you know...if you have any issue and you go to her with the issue and you want her to only be the listener that is where it ends. But if you want her to be a mediator...she will go between. She is great at doing that. Like when I need something done, and I can’t come out and say it myself. So if you are open with the idea, she would be that mediator. If not, and you just want to vent, you know you can trust her to listen.

However, the decision making capabilities of their mentors as described by other participants were not as positive. Working relationships were compared to those of their CIAs. Participants stated that because they did not work with their mentors on a regular basis, they perceived that goals, values, and decision making were not shared. Participants perceived that the mentors could be trusted with making decisions but they indicated that they would not access mentors for important matters. Cassandra elaborated when asked whether or not she relies on her mentors as much as her CIA:

I would say no. Because I don't know her as well. I talk to her not as much. I don't talk to her one a daily basis, but a weekly basis. I think she is a very trustworthy person, it’s not that I wouldn’t confide in her, it is just that I don’t.

Furthermore, Kira stated that she doesn’t recognize her mentors as someone who she is about to go to make important decisions. She elaborated:

Going to my mentor didn’t even cross my mind. This is going to sound bad but she is my housekeeping person. Who do I speak to for whatever, where do I get this, and what do I do. She is like an administrative assistant.

**Autonomy.** Norman and Feiman-Nemser (2005) found that although many factors affected the development of the new teacher, trust in a relationship with teacher leaders had been found to greatly contribute to how new teachers viewed their success. Results of this study
suggested that all eight participants perceived their mentors to have no autonomy and therefore lacked trust in the belief that their mentors had the power to remove the barriers that affected the new teacher.

Although all participants stated that their mentor was initially perceived to support the new teacher and connected with supportive resources, all eight participants perceived that their mentors had no voice in challenging school policy or being instrumental in creating the necessary changes new teachers perceived would be helpful to their success. Cassandra explained that when she needed help speaking to classroom teachers about her special education students, she was ill received. She commented that she would have appreciated “a bridge to the general ed. teachers” and that “it would be that my mentor could help (with) that piece.” However, her mentor didn’t support her with these issues as much as she would like and therefore she felt isolated and not in control of her students’ learning. Cassandra commented on the desire to build relationships with other teachers and her perception of limited support by her mentor to help with this specific issue:

I need it (relationships) to be successful. My success directly affects the kid’s success; just making things easy for kids. I don’t want others’ negative thoughts about me to be reflected upon the kids and I don’t’ know what to do about that. That is one of the difficult things about being a new teacher...some relationships come along and some do not. It is too bad the mentoring program didn’t help to build all that stuff.

Participants agreed that mentors, although they may have a good working relationship and are “definitely respected” by their principal, did not try to approach their principal to remove barriers that affected the new teacher. The mentors, as explained by Danielle “listened to my ideas and said ‘let’s talk to administration’, but the barriers aren’t removed. I think the mentors
don’t try to change things.” Danielle elaborated on her frustration with her mentor not being able to create change: “To be able to go to someone and have them as a resource is fine, but I wish I could have them to remove a barrier.”

Due to lack of autonomy, participants indicated they sought the advice of a mentor as they would a “housekeeping person” or a “cruise director.” For example, Kellie gave an example of what any mentor would say to a new teacher: “this is where you park, bathroom is down the hall, and you need to be here at this time.” Ironically, knowing they had no mentor to help remove barriers, new teachers learned to remove barriers for themselves within their own classroom. As stated by Cassandra, “You do what you can in your classroom and your environment. That is all you can do.”

Summary. Key findings reflected participants’ lower levels of trust as they perceived that their mentors did not possess many of the Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). Additionally, new teachers perceived that their mentors possessed fewer Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) than their CIAs. As such, results suggested that a strong trusting relationship between members of the dyad did not exist. However, data reflected a spirit of mutual respect and caring that existed between new teachers and their mentors typically during their first year of teaching. After that, participants minimally sought after their mentors for advice and guidance.

Mentors were perceived to be less than capable to provide continued support in areas of curriculum support and teaching techniques due to different teaching responsibilities. New teachers minimally shared confidential information, asked input on important matters, and depended on their mentor to guide them in developing their skills and knowledge as it related to teaching and student success. However, participants spoke to the high level of skills and
knowledge mentors had over the building principals. The results suggested that levels of trust for the mentors by the participants created relationships between the two that minimally increased job satisfaction for the participants.

Part V: Coach. According to Grovier (1994), distrust is defined as “lack of confidence in the other” and “a concern that the other…does not care about one’s welfare” (p. 240). Data from this research study suggested that all eight participants trusted their academic coaches that were employed by the school less than their CIAs or mentors because they perceived their academic coaches were not addressing or attending to their needs. Additionally, new teachers did not demonstrate the desire to extend trust to their coaches because coaches were perceived to be less than competent to provide specific academic support, lacked effort, or commitment to the new teacher, or didn’t share similar values or goals. Furthermore, according to Lewicki and Tomlinson’s (2003) theory on distrust, vulnerability needs to exist for these new teachers to trust in their coaches. Because the new teachers in this study had gained the support of and placed their trust in their CIA and mentor as the year progressed, they did not feel vulnerable and as such did not establish trusting relationships with their coaches. Therefore, these results suggested that coaches were not as instrumental in the professional development of the participants as the CIAs and mentors. What follows is data that specifies how academic coaches were not perceived to provide the necessary skills, knowledge and supportive atmosphere that were recognized as essential in developing trust between the coaches and the new teacher participants.

Developmental focus. Trust theorists (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) contend that without the perception of another’s competencies in performance or reliability, distrust exists. Key findings from this research
indicated that all eight participants perceived their coach did not provide all the academic support that new teachers wanted and considered necessary. Although participants perceived their coaches to be helpful if utilized, the trust new teachers had in their coaches to provide academic support was minimal.

Participants stated that their coaches did provide some necessary resources in the first few months of the school year. Resources consisted of students’ performance data, curricula support materials, and technical information. For example, Cassandra stated how her coaches supported her in her first year:

My ELL coach has helped me with my language and content objectives because it is completely new to me. My math coach has helped me set up different programs to help with fluency and set up the continental math league for the higher level students. The literacy coach had checked in and made sure I had all the materials I needed. I didn’t have any phonics books so she gave me a copy of that.

However, although accessible upon request, and helpful in providing some direction, materials and resources, participants noted that they needed more from their coaches in order for the coaches to be perceived as supportive. Participants compared the position of a coach to that of ‘just a resource’ or a ‘library’. As such, participants were perceived by the researcher to be dissatisfied at the ways in which the coaches were limited in providing support to them. Elise noted this about her coaches: “besides giving curriculum to everybody, they haven’t come in and done anything beneficial.” Candy, disappointed by the lack of coaching support stated:

I always thought that a coach was that, a coach. And I think the school has made the coach that job: more research based, something administration should be doing because they seem to do a lot of research on material...It’s not so much the materials we need.
Additionally, because academic coaches employed by the school did not have similar teaching backgrounds in discipline or grade level, the participants felt it difficult to obtain proper information regarding specific grade level or discipline information from the coaches. Furthermore, participants were discouraged that coaches were not teaching in a classroom and therefore were out of touch regarding skills and knowledge needed to successfully teach students. Therefore, new teachers “haven’t a need to go to them (coaches) so much” stated Jeremy. Cassandra compared the limitations of her coaches to the strengths of her CIA and mentor stating “I don't think they (coaches) have the skills that I need, whereas my mentor and CIA, who are at my grade level, have the skills and knowledge.” Additionally, participants expressed disappointment that coaches were assigned to assist all other teaching staff in English language arts, mathematics, and other relevant teaching strategies, and therefore did not have enough time to spend with the participants. The new teachers perceived that the coaches were incapable of supporting their needs because they had so many other responsibilities.

Participants stated that curricula support should have been one of the most important aspects of a coach’s job description and that coaches should had been helping the participants in curriculum content areas during the first three years of their careers. However, results suggested that six out of eight participants didn’t even know who was assigned as their coach and therefore didn’t know how to gain the support they wanted. Because there was no interaction between coaches and most of the participants, the participants couldn’t recognize the capabilities of their coaches. Furthermore, the participants didn’t rely on the coaches to provide support. Therefore, teachers weren’t supported, assisted and guided and/or coached in order to help gain the necessary knowledge and skills to be successful teachers (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). When
asked of participants if they trusted the coaches to provide the curricula support, Danielle stated: “I feel like they (coaches) may be good for everyone else, just not me.” Jose elaborated:

It is hard to say about coaches because I am not sure what they do in this school.

I assume that they help certain students in class, but it is so hard for me because I have never worked with them. I think they would be willing to do it and help me come up with my curricula writing prompts. As far as coming into a class, I don’t think they would fit in our setting as far as getting their insight.

Positive environment. Data from this study revealed that new teachers perceived their coaches to have no concern for their professional development because they did not work as a team member with the new teacher. As noted by trust theorists Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003), when new teachers perceive a lack of concern by coaches in the new teachers’ professional development, distrust between the new teacher and the coach occurred. Therefore, the Teacher Leadership Dimension of positive environment, as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) was not perceived by new teachers of a coach because of the lack of trust new teachers had of their coaches.

Unfortunately, all eight teachers responded that engagement with their coach was minimal. The lack of social exchange, as trust theorist (Bryk & Schneider, 2003) suggested, limited trust between members of the dyad. Participants stated that the professional environment created by the coaches didn’t contribute to their job satisfaction because of this lack of interaction. While Jeremy stated that his coach didn’t interact with him, Jose stated it was “a little weird” that he never saw his coaches and he felt that the coaches excluded him.

Participants’ results suggested that the four participants who taught specialty subjects of music, physical education and special education, perceived that the coaches interacted with them
the least amount of time compared to classroom teachers of core subjects. Their perceptions were that the coaches did not want to waste time on professional development or know how to guide the specialist teacher. Cassandra stated: “because I am a support person I don’t see the coaches,” while Danielle stated a reason for the limited interactions with her coaches was that “they (coaches) don’t know what to do with us.” Steven elaborated on the professional relationship with his coach as a specialist:

Other teachers who teach core subjects don’t typically interact with us. It is on a need basis. They (coaches) usually see teachers who teach core subjects as the real teachers, and see the specialist teachers as a prep time for students: a relax time. They (coaches) see it like ‘you do your thing, because I really don’t understand it. But we (coaches) are important so when we (coaches) need something to get done, we (coaches) are going to do it, and we (coaches) will take up more of your (specialist teacher) time, because it is a prep time for (specialist teachers)’.

However, specialist teachers felt they would benefit from guidance from their coaches even though they did not teach mathematics or English language arts. These four participants stated that because they worked with many more students than a classroom teacher, their different expertise applied to other subjects and therefore they would benefit from professional development from the coaches.

Coaches were also said to be constantly “busy” and were perceived to have limited time to spend with any of the participants. Elise stated: “I can’t tell you how many times I hear them say that they are so busy that they don’t have time to breathe.” The coaches’ expression of being too busy to help any of the participants made the participants not want to request guidance.
Cassandra stated that because “they (coaches) have a whole different set of expectations and a whole lot on their plate” made it “hard to ask them ‘hey, can you do this for me?’”

Finally, due to the limited proximity of the new teachers to coaches, the interaction between members of the dyads was limited and therefore trust in the coaches by the new teachers was limited. Participants stated they would rather seek immediate guidance from their CIAs who were located nearby or next door than to have to wait, as Elise stated, “three weeks” for the coaches to find time in their schedule. However, although the participants stated that the coaches were constantly stating that they were “busy,” the participants stated that “if you (new teacher) reach out to them (coaches) they are accessible,” said Cassandra. But sadly, new teachers didn’t expect their coaches to go out of their way to provide support to them. Cassandra elaborated: “I don’t expect them to come here and say ‘hey, what are you doing in your class?’ But it would be nice for them to say ‘how can we work on this?’” As such, all participants wished that more time would be provided by the coaches to help guide the professional development of the new teachers.

**Open communication.** Key findings of this research indicate that six out of the eight participants did not communicate with their coaches on a regular basis. Trust theorists Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) assert that without communication between members in a dyad, distrust exists. Additionally, trust theorists Bryk and Schneider (2003) maintain that the perception that one is not being listened to does not create trust between members in a dyad. Therefore, results suggested lack of trust by the new teachers of their coaches in the dimension of open communication.

A lack of honesty was perceived by seven out of the eight participants of their coaches. Trust theory (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) would insist that when the coach is perceived to
not send and receive information relevant to the effective function of a new teacher in open or honest ways, trust will not develop between members of the dyad. Participants explained that they didn’t discuss any matters of importance with their coaches because they felt that they were working for the school principals and therefore couldn’t trust them with personal information. Elise stated:

I feel like I haven’t created that bond with them (coach) because if I said something to the coach she would go back to the administrator and say ‘this is what was said’...I feel like if I said anything to one of them it may get back to my principals.

Steven stated why he didn’t speak candidly to his coach: “You want to be yourself and know what I say isn't leaving the room. You want to be able to trust that person.” Therefore, fear of information ‘getting back to their principals’ set limits on the way in which new teachers communicated with their coaches.

Additionally, to add to the distrust new teachers had for their coaches, new teachers heard from senior teachers that coaches were not to be trusted. For example, Candy spoke of conversations she and her peers had during meeting times and stated:

During our meetings it is all about what they (coaches) don’t do. They (teachers) complain about the coaches. We talk about what we don’t have from the coaches or I don’t talk at all. It is almost like a high school type feeling: like I want to fit in. What I really want to say is ‘just shut up and do your job’. I think that the others (teachers) feel like they should do more too.

Additionally, results of this study suggested that coaches were perceived by participants to not listen or take part in social exchanges, which led to distrust between members of the dyad.
Participants indicated that coaches did not listen to suggestions, issues or advice given. Candy elaborated on the issue:

There has been information that we are going over (with the coaches) and it is (stated as being) black and white. And we (teachers) know it is not black and white: there is gray. And they are not open to listening to the teachers. So it is difficult to trust someone when you are just trying to say ‘I need you to hear me out too’ and they (coaches) say ‘no, this is what it is.’

Likewise, coaches were said to ‘shut down’ when asked questions or given comments by new teachers. New teachers stated that the coaches didn’t know how to respond to certain issues related to curricula. The responses by the coaches were perceived to be negative which increased distrust by the new teachers of their coaches. Candy stated:

She (coach) hasn’t used or seen our math curriculum that we use. So it is like she shuts down because ‘this is not what I use’ attitude. So it’s like she is not going to give me the feedback that is actually going to help me when their first thoughts are ‘I don’t do this.’

Furthermore, coaches were perceived by the participants to be inappropriate when finding time to discuss matters with new teachers. New teachers felt that the coaches didn’t respect their teaching times when they gave out materials during instructional time. Elise spoke of the many instances this occurred and the frustration it caused:

I have talked to her (coach) about that and it still happens. I think it goes by the wayside. But I feel it is not an appropriate time to do it. I feel as a new teacher I shouldn’t have to do that (tell the coach not to come in the classroom during
instruction time). I feel that, as a coach, she should know to come during my prep and not during my instruction time.

When the new teachers were asked what they would recommend to improve the relationship with the coaches, Elise stated “If we had a better communication system I would be able to tell them what I needed.” Candy added to Elise’s suggestion and stated that she “would like to see more openness.” When asked what caused of the lack of communication among coaches and new teachers, Elise asserted that “it is a breakdown of feeling comfortable with them.”

**Collegiality.** According to Lewicki & Tomlinson, (2003), when one is perceived not to share common values, distrust exists. Additionally, Bryk and Schneider (2003) assert that without a social exchange of sharing and extending of oneself to another, there is distrust between members of the dyad. As such, results of this study suggested that all eight participants spoke negatively about the interactions they shared with their academic coaches. Although coaches did provide some guidance with students and gave some professional development to the participants, distrust by the participants of their coaches existed as it related to observations, instructional and student related issues, and educational teaching strategies and materials.

Although seven out of the eight participants stated they have received materials and resources such as mathematical manipulatives, books, and data driven analysis of student learning, those seven participants stated they would have benefited from a more practical application of the resources such as in the form of advice as to how to use the materials to increase student learning. Elise stated that she feels that coaches “just drop it (materials) on our lap...in front of us and say, this is what I have, this is what you need to do and it is up to us (new
teachers) to follow.” Participants valued one-on-one guidance more than being given materials to use in the classroom. Elise continued to explain the collaboration she needed from her coach:

As a new teacher, guidance is more important than materials because once they (coaches) give you the materials, you don’t know what to do with it, or you have already done it, and the statistical information isn’t making you a better teacher. You just want to be a better teacher and you want that guidance.

Ironically, although participants expressed the need and benefit of receiving observations with feedback by the coaches, all participants stated they have had limited observations or have never been observed by their coaches. Coaches did come into participants’ classrooms “when invited” stated Jeremy, but other than that, coaches were elusive. Participants were passionate when they spoke of the need to receive guidance from the coaches without having to ask. Jeremy explained that coaches “would be more proactive to observe classrooms, making the appointments with us, and saying ‘Hey, let’s get together, what’s on your mind, I’m here for you’” instead of only providing guidance when asked by the new teacher. Elise elaborated on the fact that she never asked a coach to observe her but yearned for her coach to help her improve her instruction by conducting observations:

I don’t think they have ever observed me. I actually didn’t even think that I would ask them to observe me. I want them to initially come into my room and say you did a great job with this, this and this, but you need to work on this and this. I feel like we (new teachers) don’t get a whole lot of that. I would like to see them come in and guide and instruct. So if I had a lesson in reading, she could watch me do the reading lesson, maybe critique what I was doing wrong. If she (coach) didn’t think I had the right material, show me where to go find that material.
Danielle echoed the desire for her coach to help her improve her instruction by conducting observations giving feedback:

I would love a coach to come in and help me. I would love it if someone came in and said ‘remember this part of the lesson...you did this…you said this during this part of the lesson… and maybe that is why you didn’t get the results you wanted.’ To me that is feedback that is valuable especially from your peer. You don’t watch yourself, you don’t have a camera on yourself...you can’t see what is happening.

Additionally, all eight participants were confused about the job description of an academic coach and how it pertained to professional and student needs. Participants asserted that coaches did not extend themselves and support the participants. These perceptions created distrust among the participants of their coaches. It was stated by Jeremy that he perceived his need to “not be their (coaches) priority either (and) they are probably making more judgments with the other teachers.” Moreover, Danielle stated “I don't think that the coaches see us as part of their caseload” while Steven asserted:

I couldn’t even understand how we (coach and himself) would work together because I don’t know what they do in the building. I don’t know how the teacher across the hall utilizes the coaches. We (specialists in the building including art, chorus, special education, physical education, health education) have never had a team meeting with the coaches like the other teachers have.

Furthermore, all eight participants assumed coaches were working in others’ classrooms with different students. Jose stated of his perception of the coaches’ position in helping students:
I assume that they help certain students in class...I have never worked with them (coaches). My perception is that they go into a class that is being taught by a teacher and when they are in the class, they help certain kids that need the help.

Finally, data collected from two participants who taught mathematics and English language arts curriculum asserted that they too were discouraged by the lack of collegiality on the part of the coaches. Candy, elaborated:

I don’t know what their job is...is it to give you data, to work with data...are they coaching the teachers, coaching the students? What is it that they actually do and that they don’t have time to do any one of their jobs correctly because they are just seeming to say that they are doing everything...If their job is to see students is it with the neediest of students? I haven’t had a coach to come in and coach me at all or even look at me at all...I don’t have a relationship. I can’t begin to use the word trust with them. Like, I can’t even begin a conversation with them because they don’t.

Evidence suggested that no matter what academic subject or grade level taught, or whether or not they knew who the coaches were or their job expectations, all participants would welcome more guidance from their academic coaches. However, because there was a lack of trust with their academic coaches, all eight participants, when asked from whom they would like to receive feedback for a lesson observed, stated they would be “more comfortable” with their mentors and CIAs than their coaches.

**Recognition.** As defined by the Teacher Leader Dimension of recognition (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009), coaches were not recognized or respected by all eight participants for the roles they took and the contributions they made. Trust theorists Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) assert that when one does not recognize performance by another, there is distrust between members of
the dyad. Additionally, trust theorists Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) contend that without the perception of another being reliable and benevolent in one’s performance, there is not trust. Finally, Bryk and Schneider (2003) maintain that one’s lack of display of ethical commitment resulted in distrust. As such, results of this study suggested that distrust by the new teacher of their coaches existed.

Despite the many factors that contributed to the lack of recognition new teachers had for their coaches, lack of the coaches’ predictability was one of the most common factors stated by participants. New teachers explained that they were not able to predict where or when they would see their coaches or how they would work with the coaches. Disillusioned by his experience with his coaches, Jeremy stated: “The name ‘coach’ is a misnomer here. Their title doesn’t match what they do.”

Participants were not respectful of their coaches’ capabilities because, as Jeremy stated, they were “confused about the coaches’ job description.” As such, new teachers displayed a great deal of disappointment in the contributions coaches made to the new teachers’ development. Candy’s perception of the coaches was evident when she said: “I get mad because I assume they (coaches) are supposed to do more and they are not.” Even though new teachers didn’t have “a lack of respect for anybody,” as stated by Kellie, it was very evident that new teachers, such as Kellie, were not respectful of the coach positions. Elise stated that “they (coaches) don’t contribute to anything I do!”

**Participation.** Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003) contend that when one is seen as competent in making decisions, there is trust. Additionally, trust theorists Bryk and Schneider, (2003) contend communicating on important matters increases trust between members in a dyad. The results of this study suggested that all eight participants perceived that coaches were not
actively involved in making decisions and having input on important matters related to the professional development of the participant. Therefore, new teachers distrusted their coaches in relation to the Teacher Leader Dimension of participation as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009).

The lack of discussion between the new teachers and their coaches decreased trust between the two. Only three out of eight participants expressed that coaches participated in weekly data sharing meetings with them and their grade level peers. However, five participants stated that they have never been to a meeting with their coach. During the meetings, no conversations took place regarding other matters that were of concern to any teachers involved in the meeting. Participants stated that the coaches’ purpose was to give data driven information to teachers in the hopes that it was enough to create awareness of students’ learning issues. The limited interaction was not enough to support the building of a supportive relationship and therefore limited the trust between the two.

Additionally, participants perceived that the coaches were not authorized to make changes in instructional practices, curriculum, and materials as it related to increasing student achievement. Candy stated that a coach’s job should include the ability “to change things for the better. But it is not happening.” Additionally, when participants were asked why they perceived that the coaches were not actively involved with having input on important matters, all eight participants stated that they didn’t have the knowledge to speak to the job description of the coach well enough to make that conclusion. Steven stated: “I don’t know what they (coach) do because we all think that the coaches are working with other teachers, but none of them are working with anyone we know.” Additionally, participants such as Jeremy expressed that the
coaches lacked the “leadership qualities to be able to look at situations and seek out how to do better.”

**Autonomy.** Results of this study suggested that participants perceived that coaches were autonomous in their professional roles and supported the administrators in the building by making improvements. However, findings suggested that all eight new teachers perceived coaches contributed minimally to making improvements or innovations that removed barriers and supported new teachers’ efforts. Since trust theorists (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) contend that the perception of competencies in performing one’s duties effects trust levels, it can be stated that participants distrusted their coaches in autonomy as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009).

Coaches, although they “listen(ed) to what the teachers ha(d) to say,” as Danielle reported, were perceived by the participants to lack the ability to change protocols or implement changes that new teachers found beneficial. Jeremy elaborated as to how coaches lacked autonomy:

At one meeting when we were looking at DRA scores, and trying to raise the scores, one of our teachers was trying to push a policy that was good for the students and see what could be accomplished at even a higher level. The ELA (English language arts) coach had nothing to say. She (coach) had no input...the teacher was running the meeting.

Additionally, participants expected the coaches to be leaders and to be able to create change. However, findings suggested that coaches were perceived by the participants to lack the governing leadership capabilities other leaders possessed. Jeremy illustrated the frustration of the limits placed on the coaches to make decisions in a leadership role:
I don’t think that the coaches have an ability to create change, but in part I would think that is what they are hired to do. They are supposed to be the experts. I do believe that they are hired to be leaders...But if they would (just) lead! And I do believe they should lead!

Danielle highlighted the problem:

We expect them to do something for us but I don’t think they necessarily have the ability to make those changes because they are not an administrator. So sometimes I feel they take the brunt of everyone’s complaint. They may try to smooth things over and do what they can do. I don’t know what ability they have to make things happen.

**Summary.** In summary, although coaches were hired to support teachers in skills and knowledge, results of this study suggested that the participants did not perceive coaches to possess Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2009) Teacher Leadership Dimensions necessary for new teachers to have job satisfaction, be collegial with peers, and increase student performance. Additionally, trust theorists (Tschannen-Moran, 2009) would contend that new teachers would not trust their teacher leaders (coaches) without the perception that those leaders possess the professional skills in the Teacher Leadership Dimensions defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009). The results of this study suggested that new teachers did not trust in their coaches’ abilities and therefore did not utilize them for skill building and gaining knowledge as much as they utilized the mentors and CIAs.

**Summary**

Eight new teachers in their first three years of professional service from two different schools in one school district were chosen for this qualitative study. Demographics of the two schools were similar and participants ranged in discipline and grade level taught. The researcher
sought to understand how trust affects new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders. In order to answer this question, multiple methods of gathering data were used.

First, the researcher used the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), in which participants rated the perceived level of trust they had for their teacher leaders. The Likert scale questions (1=strongly disagree, 6=strongly agree) were related to three subsets of trust, but only the Faculty Trust of Colleagues (TCo) was used to gather data because it aligned with the theoretical framework of the study. Participants were chosen only if they worked with teacher leaders whose formal role in the building was to guide and develop the skills and knowledge of the new teachers. Specifically, teacher leaders were defined as mentors or academic coaches who were employed by the school district and assigned to work in one of the schools.

Although the Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) results were not used to quantitatively gather data, the survey was operationally used to measure the subset of trust new teachers had for their teacher leaders as well as inform the interview questions. Results of the survey indicated that participant scores ranged from 4.0 to a 5.85 which indicated that the participants had high levels of trust for their teacher leaders. Comparative scores from participants from each of the two schools indicated that trust levels were not significantly different as School 1 scored a 158 while School 2 scored a 159 in trust for their teacher leaders. Additionally, data of the sample ranked in the 98.73rd percentile, ranking the participants’ trust in colleagues in the top 1.27% compared to the normative sample of Ohio State University (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). It was evident that the new teachers in this research study had high trust levels for their teacher leaders.
Trust theorist Tschannen-Moran (2009) found that when teacher leaders were trusted, a culture of shared commitment within the organization ensues, while Scott, Cortina, and Carlisle (2012) provided evidence that without trust, cooperation between members of the dyad does not occur. Therefore, the results suggested that both schools within the school district would be successful in fostering new teacher and teacher leaders’ cooperation, and shared commitment which would ultimately strengthen new teachers’ success rates.

Additionally, each of the eight participants completed the Teacher Leader School Survey (TLSS) (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005). Although the survey was not used to quantitatively gather data, it was used to operationally explore the perceptions the participants had for their teacher leaders as reflected by the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) and to inform the focus group questions. The Teacher Leader Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) were measured by 46 questions on a 5 point Likert scale (1=never, 5=always). The dimensions included developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005).

Individual results varied. School 1 had participant scores that ranged from 17 to 35 within each Teacher Leader Dimension (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) and a combined total score of 595. School 2 had participant scores that ranged from 21-35 within each Teacher Leader Dimension (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) and a combined total score of 752. Although the survey was qualitatively used to inform the researcher, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) would suggest that the results suggested that the culture in School 2 would be more satisfying to work in for the new teachers, and therefore these teachers may benefit from increased job satisfaction, collegiality, and student performance.
Two interviews took place with each participant. The first interview was completed with each participant after they completed the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen Moran, 2003). The second interview took place in a focus group. The focus group was completed with four participants from the same school after their TLSS (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) and their one-on-one interview was completed. Open coding for the interviews required the researcher to correlate the Teacher Leader Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) with Bryk and Schneider’s (2003) trust theory, Lewicki and Tomlinson’s (2003) trust and distrust theory, and Hoy and Tschannen-Moran’s (2003) trust theory as defined by the Omnibus T-Scale. Following the theoretical framework of the research, participants perceived their teacher leaders to possess the Teacher Leader Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) when new teachers perceived their teacher leaders to possess any of the trust correlates.

Mixed findings were reported by all participants after the interviews and survey results were analyzed. It was evident that the high trust scores from the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and the results of the TLSS (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) did not compare with the perceptions new teachers had for formal mentors and academic coaches that were employed by the school. The individuals with whom the new teachers trusted, accessed information, and received guidance differed. Participants’ results suggested that the responses to questions related to trust and perceived skills and knowledge in the surveys were not relevant to only formal mentors and academic coaches, but to those they called Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment (CIA) peers as well. In fact, six out of the eight participants didn’t consider their academic coach while answering the surveys. These key findings were important in understanding that new teachers gained much of their professional development from their CIAs and not mentors or coaches.
According to the literature, trust is directly related to the needs of new teachers and their teacher leaders (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). When there are high levels of trust, it results in an environment that promotes risk-taking and positive social exchange efforts (Bryk & Schneider, 2003), teacher empowerment (Yim, et al., 2013), and commitment of the new teacher (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). As such, results suggested that all participants had more trust for their CIAs than they did for their mentors or coaches.

CIAs were chosen by the participants at the beginning of the school year to help guide the new teacher throughout their first three years. CIAs were peers with whom the new teacher shared academic discipline and most of the time grade level expertise. CIAs’ formal roles were that of a teacher and they were not compensated with money for helping the new teachers. CIAs were reported by all participants to be most instrumental in guiding the new teachers with the demands and struggles of the daily routines in teaching and learning as well as helping to gain the skills and knowledge necessary for advanced professional development. As such, the CIAs were reported to be trusted because of their perceived advanced skills and knowledge in the Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009).

As evidenced in the literature review, when one possesses little vulnerability, there is less need to trust (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Additionally, a deliberate act by any party to reduce a sense of vulnerability in others to make them feel safer, builds trust in the relationship (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). Accordingly, the participants found little need to access their mentors’ or coaches’ skills and knowledge because participants utilized their CIAs on a daily basis. Participants perceived the CIAs’ skills to be more beneficial than their mentors’ or coaches’ and therefore less trust developed between the mentor, coach, and the new teachers. Moreover, mentors and coaches spent little time with the new teachers. The little time spent
between members of the dyad increased distrust as evidenced by the literature (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003).

Furthermore, according to Lewicki & Tomlinson (2003) proximity has been shown to be a tenet of building trust over time. The results of this study suggested that the proximity enhanced the seven Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) perceived by the new teachers of their CIAs and as such, increased the trust new teachers had for them.

Moreover, the results of this study suggested that principals’ perception and recognition of teacher leaders affected the way new teachers perceived teacher leaders. New teachers perceived that CIAs’ specific discipline and grade level expertise as well as the amount of time spent with the new teacher should be recognized as a tremendous asset to new teachers’ professional development over mentors and coaches. However, principals’ perceived regard was highest for academic coaches, high for mentors and limited for CIAs compared to the lower recognition new teachers had for their coaches and mentors and highest regard for CIAs. The differences in perceived regard for teacher leaders created distrust by the new teachers for principals, coaches, and mentors. Therefore, the results of this study have significant implications for principals as they recognize teacher leaders as being an important aspect of new teacher development.

Finally, the results of this study suggested that all new teachers trusted (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) academic coaches the least among the teacher leaders. It was found that the participants were not willing to extend trust to the coaches because coaches were not perceived to be competent in providing specific academic support, lacked effort or commitment to the new teachers, and didn’t share similar values or goals. Therefore, coaches were perceived to have fewer competencies in the
Teacher Leader Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) than the CIAs and mentors.
Chapter V

Conclusions and Discussion

The purpose of this qualitative study was to investigate new teachers’ perceptions of teacher leaders, specifically how trust affected their perceptions of their teacher leaders. The conclusions from this study follow the research question and the findings and therefore address six key areas: (a) perceptions of high trust that new teachers have for teacher leaders in their schools, (b) new teachers’ perceptions of successful teacher leaders skills and knowledge as defined by the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009), (c) new teachers’ perceptions regarding similar teaching assignments and proximity to the teacher leaders, (d) perceptions by new teachers of unmet expectations by teacher leaders, (e) perceptions by new teachers of the variations in their work assignments that contributed to trust levels of teacher leaders, and (f) school principal’s social exchanges through words and actions that help or hinder new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders.

Eight new teachers in their first three years of service, four educators from one school and four from another, all from one school district participated in this study. The study took place in the winter term of 2015 in a New England school district. Participating schools were similar in size, demographics, racial composition, and setting. School 1 enrolled 1,371 students: 48.5% white, 41.6% Hispanic, and 9.9% other. There were 89.6 teachers in the school with a student/teacher ratio of 15.3 to 1. Ninety-nine percent of teachers were licensed in their teaching assignment. School 2 enrolled 1,352 students: 47.8% white, 42.9% Hispanic, and 9.3% other. There were 86.8 teachers in the school with a student/teacher ratio of 15.2 to 1. One hundred percent of the teachers in this school were licensed in their teaching assignment. Similarly, each school employed academic coaches and formal mentors as part of a professional development
program designed to improve the outcomes for all students while increasing the retention of highly qualified personnel. Additionally, at each school new teachers were encouraged by their mentors to choose a teacher from their grade level and/or who taught the same subject matter to be their Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment peer (CIA). These teacher leaders helped to transition and guide new teachers in their first years of service.

The following is a discussion of the major findings and conclusions drawn from this research study. The discussion is followed by the researcher’s recommendations of the study.

Conclusions

High Trust among Teacher Leaders

The first key finding from this study was the indication that new teachers had high trust levels (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) for teacher leaders in their schools. Through the use of the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), the Teacher Leadership School Survey (TLSS) (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005), one-on-one interviews, and focus groups, data indicated that all participants felt more competent and capable in their teaching because they received guidance from teacher leaders.

Results suggested that all participants at each school had high trust levels for colleagues as supported by the Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) (TCo). In fact, each of the two schools scored in the 98th percentile of trust as defined by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003). Additionally, the TLSS (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) results showed significantly high scores as they pertain to new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders as defined by the Teacher Leader Dimensions of developmental focus, recognition, collegiality,
participation, autonomy, open communication, and positive environment as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009).

However, after data were analyzed (See Tables 1-6), it was evident that the high trust scores from the results of the Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) and the TLSS (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005) did not compare to the perceptions new teachers had of formal mentors and academic coaches that were employed by the school. Results suggested lower perceived levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) and perceptions of Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) by the participants of their formal mentors and coaches than the surveys reported. Through analysis of the data, it was learned that while completing both surveys, participants answered questions based on the high levels of trust they had for Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment peers (CIA) and not their mentors or academic coaches. Results suggested that all participants perceived their CIA to be part of the surveys. In fact, six of the eight participants didn’t consider their academic coaches while answering the surveys. Therefore, the participant scores from the Omnibus T-Scale Survey and the TLSS were not representative of the perceptions new teachers had for their formal mentors and academic coaches. Thus, results suggested that new teachers had high levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) for CIAs and were therefore perceived to have the Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009).

**Perceptions of Teacher Leaders as they compared to Teacher Leadership Dimensions**

The study’s second major finding indicated that new teachers perceived CIAs to possess the highest levels of Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) which in
turn increased their perceived levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-
Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) they had for their CIAs. New teachers in this study
suggested that they were more willing to extend trust to those colleagues whom they saw as
competent, willing to communicate effort and commit to the new teachers’ success. New
teachers perceived their formal mentors and academic coaches that were employed by the school
to possess lower levels of Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) which
in turn decreased the levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003;
Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) they had for them.

Therefore, this study revealed that CIAs were most instrumental in developing new
teachers’ instructional practices by providing the necessary support structures, specific academic
skills, knowledge, and time. CIAs were full time teachers that were chosen by participants at the
beginning of their first year at the request of their mentors to provide extra support and guidance
in teaching related matters. CIAs had full class loads and taught either the same subject and/or
grade level as the participants. CIAs volunteered their time, receiving only professional
development points (PDP) in exchange for their time in assisting new teacher participants.

Conversely, mentors and coaches, although monetarily compensated to provide the new teacher
with the skills and knowledge necessary to be successful, were perceived to have minimal
qualities as represented by the Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009)
and therefore were not trusted (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003;
Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) by the new teachers.

Final analysis of the research found that new teachers were disappointed with their
coaches and mentors as they expected them to give support and advice on educational needs such
as skill set, knowledge and student issues. However, data from this research suggested that new
teachers were satisfied with their CIAs. Due to these findings the researcher consulted the job descriptors (See Appendix K) for those teacher leader positions post facto. The researcher used the job descriptors to examine those roles of teacher leaders to provide support for new teachers.

New teachers’ perceptions of their mentors may be warranted. Mentors’ job description indicated that they were to provide not only professional, instructional, and personal support but they were to serve as a school liaison between the new teacher and other staff members. These other staff members, such as the academic coaches, were to provide a variety of perspectives on teaching, instructional practices, and share their special expertise. More importantly, the mentors’ job description included maintaining a relationship with the new teacher to help relieve stress, giving encouragement, and putting problems associated with professional practice in perspective. As the job description indicated, the mentors were supposed to be a vital source of support for new teachers as they began their new career. However, according to the data, the mentors were not perceived to provide many of the necessary skills, knowledge and supportive atmosphere (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) that were recognized as essential in developing trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) between the mentors and the new teacher participants.

However, the new teachers’ perception of their coaches may not be warranted as the primary focus of an academic coach was not working with only new teachers, but providing services for all academic teachers. The coaches’ job description included providing and demonstrating lessons, modeling and coaching teachers particularly in grades 4 and 5 in the implementation of curriculum and effective instructional strategies. According to this research study, these strategies were perceived to be necessary to new teacher participants’ professional development and job satisfaction. New teacher participants’ distrust began to develop when they
perceived that their academic coaches were limiting their time with them and were inconsistent with providing support in instructional matters. Therefore, although new teachers perceived their coaches’ limitation of time to be inappropriate, coaches’ job descriptors may not allow for building trusting relationships (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) with new teachers.

The CIA job description contained two details that this research study found to support new teachers. The details of the job description stated that CIAs should be proximal to and teach the same subject as the new teacher. These two conditions were found to be important for the new teachers’ professional development and job satisfaction as they helped build a trusting relationship between the new teacher and the CIA.

**Similar Grade Level, Subject Area, and Proximity**

The third major finding of this study suggested that teaching experiences and job descriptions of the CIAs, mentors, and academic coaches impacted how new teachers perceived their teacher leaders and their levels of trust in these individuals. The presence of similar teaching positions and proximity amplified trust between the CIA and the new teacher and therefore also improved the perceived levels of Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) new teachers had for their CIAs. New teacher participants discussed the value of the CIA teaching in a similar grade level and discipline as well as being proximal to the CIA as the most important factors that led to a trusting relationship. Results suggested that the dyad shared confidential information, made decisions together on important matters and also became friends. Lack of similar teaching experiences and job description as well as limited proximity of the mentors and coaches to the new teachers limited the trust levels (Bryk & Schneider, 2003:...
Research completed by Lewicki and Tomlinson (2003) found that when teachers spend little time with one another or their proximity to each other is limited, it can lead to an increase in preconceptions and false stereotypes one holds for the other. Furthermore, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) contend that communication is an essential component of trust and trust is crucial to sharing thoughts and feelings and disclosing accurate and relevant information. Since the characteristics of teaching discipline, grade level and proximity were shared only between the CIA and the new teacher, trusting relationships were built that were not forged with a mentor or a coach. Therefore, it can be said that having shared educational experiences and proximity to another helped to increase communication between members of the dyad and break down any barriers that existed between new teachers and their CIAs (Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003).

New Teachers’ Expectations of Teacher Leaders

This study’s fourth major finding indicated that when expectations of their teacher leaders were not met, new teacher participants began to distrust their mentors and coaches. New teachers perceived that mentors and coaches, according to their job title, should spend more time with them and share ideas about teaching and learning through consistent check-ins and classroom observations. New teacher participants’ distrust began to develop when they perceived that their academic coaches and mentors were limiting their time with them and were inconsistent with providing support in instructional matters. As reported by the study completed by Scott, Cortina, and Carlisle (2012), without trust, cooperation between members in a dyad does not occur. Since new teacher participants did not trust their mentors or coaches, they were less likely to ask for their help and support as the school year progressed. New teachers
eventually concentrated on the support that was given by their CIAs who were perceived to be not only available, but knowledgeable. When CIAs met the expectations new teachers had for teacher leaders, the CIAs became trusted (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) more than any other teacher leader in the school.

However, results of this study suggested that coaches had too many expectations placed on them by their principal or superintendent which limited the time they could allocate to new teacher observations, conversations, giving feedback and curriculum guidance. Consequently, because new teachers perceived coaches to be spending time attending to gathering and disseminating data that they perceived was not addressing their students or teaching needs, new teachers distrusted (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) the coaches’ skills and knowledge as defined by the Teacher Leadership Dimensions of Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) and therefore limited their interactions with them.

**Classroom Teachers versus Specialist Teachers**

The fifth major finding of this study suggested that variation in participants’ work assignments contributed to discrepancies of trust levels the new teacher participants had for academic coaches, mentors, or CIAs that were employed by the school. The results of this study suggested that classroom academic teachers had even greater levels of distrust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) of mentors and coaches than specialist teacher participants (music, special education, physical education). Results suggested that the two academic classroom teachers who taught in School 1 expected to receive specific curricular guidance from their academic mathematics and English language arts coaches to help guide their lessons, student assessment, and teaching skills especially in their
first year of teaching. As such, mentors and coaches were perceived not to be effective in helping academic classroom teachers. The total trust level scores (TCo) as defined by the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) were greatly lower than those teachers teaching specialty subjects. Therefore, as suggested by the data in this study, because School 1 included two academic classroom teacher participants as opposed to School 2 where all four teachers taught specialty subjects, trust scores (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) were lower at School 1 than at School 2.

Conversely, specialist teacher participants stated that they did not expect much guidance from their academic coaches because they perceived them to work for only academic classroom teachers. Specialist teacher participants did not recognize the academic coaches or mentors to have the skills and knowledge that they deemed valuable to guide them in their content area. Accordingly, these perceptions of the specialist teachers raised the total trust scores as indicated by the results of the Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) of School 2.

**Perceptions of Principals’ Expectations**

This study’s sixth major finding suggested that the principals' actions may play a key role in trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) new teachers place on their teacher leaders. In this study, results suggested that through words and actions, new teachers perceived that principals showed their sense of obligation and respect or lack thereof to some teacher leaders. Participants were well aware of the respect and personal regard school principals showed to coaches, sometimes to mentors, and not to CIAs. However, new teacher participants perceived coaches and mentors were working for the principal and not focused on new teachers’ needs. Additionally, new teacher participants perceived that CIAs should become recognized by the school’s principals as an asset to new teacher professional
development because of the successful support and guidance they receive from them. For these reasons new teachers were discrete with whom they shared information for fear of being exposed by the mentor or coach to the principal. Because new teachers lacked confidence in being able to confide in the mentors and coaches, their trust for these teacher leaders did not emerge. The results of this study have significant implications for school principals as they recognize and identify teacher leaders as being an important aspect of new teacher development.

**Discussion**

According to the publication of the National Center for Education Statistics Institute of Education Sciences (IES), a research arm of the U.S. Department of Education, *Public School Teacher Attrition and Mobility in the First Five Years: Results From the First Through Fifth Waves of the 2007–08 Beginning Teacher Longitudinal Study* (2015) which looked at the effects of mentorship on the attrition rates of new teachers, teachers who have access to peer mentoring leave the profession at a much lower rate than those who do not. Additionally, Darling-Hammond (2003) supports the need for well-designed teacher support structures within the schools to support the needs of new teachers. As such, there are urgent calls for transforming the way in which teacher leaders meet the challenging demands placed on new teachers. School leaders need to create a teacher leader workforce that will live up to the educational standards that are necessary for new teachers to develop the skills and knowledge needed to excel in their profession and to meet the diverse needs of students. Accordingly, the results of this study recognize that it is important for leaders of a school district such as principals and superintendents to recognize the benefits of helping new teachers gain trust in their teacher leaders.
The researcher offers recommendations based on the findings, analysis, and conclusions of this research study. The recommendations that follow are for (a) educational leaders, and school administrators, and (b) formal mentors, CIA’s, and academic coaches employed by a school system aspiring to create new teacher programs that support and enhance the relationships between teacher leaders and new teachers in efforts to support new teachers’ success.

**Recommendations for Educational Leaders**

One tool to help advance the next generation of skilled and knowledgeable teachers as they meet the demands they may face early on in their teaching career is to provide information to school districts on how to transform their professional development programs to utilize teacher leaders to best benefit new teachers. Of significant educational importance and in the effort to retain teachers, the value of creating positive new teacher programs in which CIA positions are at the forefront of new teacher professional development may need to be explored. CIAs would be beneficial for many reasons. First, they should be considered for the tremendous value they have to new teachers’ professional development. As indicated in this study, CIAs contributed to developing new teachers’ skills and knowledge as indicated by the results of the Teacher Leadership Dimensions defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) more than any other teacher leader. Additionally, they were able to provide tremendous support to new teachers by providing valuable structures that included giving of their time to observe new teachers’ classroom techniques, giving feedback, sharing materials and information regarding instructional practices and helping to meet students’ needs. More importantly, CIAs and new teachers forged friendships that were indicators of increasing new teachers’ job satisfaction.

A second recommendation would be for educational leaders to consider the benefit of the low cost use of teachers for the position of the CIAs, as opposed to the high cost formal mentors
impose on school districts. As such, the CIA as a new teacher support structure may help school organizations save money. Based on the results of this study, CIAs may not only help new teachers’ in their professional development, but they may help school organizations reap the benefits of saved funds that could be used elsewhere.

The third recommendation for educational leaders to consider is detailing clear job descriptions, expectations, guidelines, and goals for all teacher leaders in their building who work with new teachers. As this study suggested, new teachers were confused as to how academic coaches that were employed by the school would support them because they were unaware of their specific job descriptions. New teachers didn’t know how to approach or communicate with the coaches to ask for advice or support. Therefore, new teachers limited their interactions with the academic coaches, which in turn limited their effectiveness.

Additionally, disseminating job descriptors of teacher leaders for new teachers early on in their career may help improve the relationships between the two. Disseminating job descriptors at the beginning of the school year would aid in clarifying who, where, when and why new teachers could access to receive support and guidance.

Furthermore, it is recommended that school administrators allocate ample time in coaches’ schedules to provide the personal one-on-one time new teachers need to perceive coaches to be successful. When coaches were slated to be busy and not have time to support the new teacher, the two did not develop a relationship that may have proved to be beneficial to new teachers’ professional development.

Finally, it is recommended that school principals, in order to build trust among staff in the building, specifically between teacher leaders and new teachers, recognize all teacher leaders as an important aspect of new teachers’ development. As indicated in this study, when principals
are thoughtful and respectful with their words and actions towards all teacher leaders, new teachers benefit by increased trust levels for teacher leaders.

**Recommendations for CIAs, Mentors, and Coaches**

It is evident by the results of this study that teacher leaders benefit when they mimic the leadership traits documented by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) in their book titled *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers Develop as Leaders*. The Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) are developmental focus, recognition, autonomy, collegiality, participation, open communication, and positive environment. As such, teacher leaders were successful because they were perceived by new teachers to be skilled, knowledgeable, and supportive, were able to allocate time to the new teachers, were recognized for their abilities in leadership roles, helped to establish a supportive culture within the school, and influenced others by making important decisions that were important in creating positive school change. Therefore, the following are recommended for teacher leaders’ success.

The first recommendation for CIAs, formal mentors, and academic coaches employed by a school would be in the thoughtful pairing and/or choosing of the new teacher with those teacher leaders who have the skills and knowledge reciprocal in nature to the discipline and grade level taught by the new teacher. Having proximity to the new teacher, teaching the same grade level, and teaching the same discipline would add to the positive relationships new teachers develop with their CIAs, mentors, and academic coaches. As such, as defined by this study’s professional job description, the CIA would have tremendous benefits to new teachers as they are considered a part of a reflective, thoughtful new teacher program.

Second, it is recommended that CIAs, mentors, and coaches advocate for structured personal meeting times with new teachers in order to observe and share ideas about creative
teaching strategies, curriculum development, and student discipline. Awarding more time to communicate with new teachers, instead of just disseminating instructional materials and data, may increase the trust levels new teachers have for their teacher leaders. Thus, increased communication between members of the dyad may help to increase new teachers’ skill development and job satisfaction.

**Suggestions for Future Research**

A thorough examination of this study provides insight into relevant future research. All research would benefit from examining teacher leadership roles, new teacher job satisfaction, and the relationship between teacher leaders and new teachers as they may be influenced by factors that lead to the development of trust and how trust may play a role in their relationship.

1. Quantitatively, using a larger sample size, it would be beneficial to examine new teachers’ trust of their teacher leaders as surveyed by the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) as it relates to perceived Teacher Leadership Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) as surveyed by the Teacher Leadership School Survey (Katzenmeyer & Katzenmeyer, 2005).

2. Qualitatively, it would be beneficial to replicate this study with more participants who taught in similar grade levels or similar disciplines along with specialty subject area teachers to examine whether or not those results would mimic the results of this study. For example, it would be beneficial to replicate this study with only those teachers that teach elementary age students all subject matters such as academic classroom teachers or only specialist teachers who teach a specific subject matter such as art, music, health, physical education or technology.
3. Qualitatively, it would be beneficial to replicate this study but seek out school systems that do not have job descriptors similar to those of mentors, coaches, or CIAs as described in this study. Doing so may contribute information that will assist with the ongoing effort to provide positive support structures for new teachers.

4. Qualitatively, it would be beneficial to explore coaches’ and mentors’ different perceptions of the role of trust as it relates to new teachers’ professional development, job satisfaction and retention. Doing so may find additional data that may benefit the ongoing effort to support new teachers.

5. Qualitatively, it would be beneficial to explore perceptions of new teachers of their teacher leaders over time. The researcher may find data that contributes to the perceptions of their changing needs of their academic coaches, mentors and CIAs as they develop professionally. Thus, the comparison of years of service and their perceptions of their teacher leaders may result in findings that would enhance new teacher programs as well as professional development programs for all teachers.

6. Qualitatively or quantitatively, it would be beneficial to investigate principals’ perceptions of teacher leadership roles as they contribute to new teacher job satisfaction. Doing so may result in findings that would contribute to the data that seeks to find effective leadership qualities that enhance new teacher job satisfaction.

Summary

Qualitatively, this study revealed that new teachers in their first three years of service valued Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment peers (CIAs) over their mentors or academic coaches that were employed by the school district. Key findings reflected high levels of perceived Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) and
high levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) by the participants of their CIAs. As such, results suggested that a trusting relationship and spirit of mutual respect and caring existed between new teachers and their CIAs. These qualities resulted in the CIAs being perceived as supportive, approachable, and collaborative leaders. New teachers shared confidential information, asked for input on important matters, and depended on their CIA to guide them in developing their skills and knowledge as they related to teaching and student success. The results suggested that high levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) for the CIAs by the participants created relationships that increased participants’ job satisfaction.

Additionally, results of this study reflected lower levels of perceived Teacher Leadership Dimensions as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) and lower levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) by the participants of their mentors than that of their CIAs. As such, results suggested that a strong trusting relationship between members of the dyad did not exist. However, data reflected a spirit of mutual respect and caring that existed between new teachers and their mentors typically during their first year of teaching. After that, participants minimally sought out their mentors for advice and guidance.

Mentors were perceived to be less than capable to provide continued guidance in areas of curriculum support and teaching techniques due to dissimilar teaching backgrounds. New teachers minimally shared confidential information, asked for input on important matters, and did not depend on their mentor to guide them in developing their skills and knowledge as they related to teaching and student success. The results of this study also indicated that levels of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003)
for the mentors by the participants created relationships between the two that minimally increased job satisfaction for the participants.

Furthermore, results of this study suggested that the participants did not perceive academic coaches employed by the school system to possess the Teacher Leader Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009) that Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) would assert necessary for new teachers to have job satisfaction, be collegial with peers, and increase student performance. Additionally, trust theorist Tschannen-Moran (2009) would contend that without the new teachers’ perceptions that their teacher leaders possess professional skills as in the Teacher Leader Dimensions (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009), new teachers would not trust their coaches. The results of this study suggested that new teachers did not have trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2003) in their coaches’ abilities and therefore did not utilize them for professional development purposes as much as they utilized the mentors and CIAs.

Moreover, the results of this study suggested that principals’ perception and recognition of teacher leaders affected the way new teachers perceived teacher leaders. New teachers perceived the school principals’ words and actions to be representative of the highest regard for academic coaches, high regard for mentors, and no regard for CIAs. This was compared to the lower recognition new teachers had for their coaches and mentors and highest regard for CIAs as suggested by the results of this study. New teachers perceived that CIAs’ specific discipline and grade level expertise as well as the amount of time spent with the new teacher should be recognized as an asset to new teacher professional development. The contradiction in perceptions between the new teachers and the school principals created distrust by the new teachers for principals, coaches, and mentors. Therefore, the results of this study have significant
implications for principals as they recognize teacher leaders as being an important aspect of new teacher development and its subsequent effect of teacher retention rates.

This study also brought to light the need for new teachers to have a voice in whom they choose as a mentor. New teachers should take proximity, grade level, and subject area into consideration when choosing a mentor in order to foster teacher development, job satisfaction and success. Additionally, superintendents as well as principals need to ensure this occurs in their buildings.

Finally, all participants in this study noted the benefits of CIAs as a peer from whom new teachers can find support and encouragement as teaching skills are developed and knowledge is gained. These results of this study suggests that the value of educational organizations creating progressive new teacher professional development programs in which CIA positions are at the forefront needs to be explored.
Appendix A

Invitation for New Teachers to Participate

Dear New Teacher,

I am a student in the Southern New Hampshire University Educational Leadership Doctoral program under the direction of Dr. Margaret Ford. I am writing to ask you if you would be willing to take part in a face to face interview concerning your views on teacher leadership roles.

The purpose of my research is to explore the views new teachers hold on teacher leadership. If you wish to participate in this study you will be asked to take part in a one hour interview, a one hour focus group session, complete two short surveys and record information of teacher interactions. If you agree to participate in this research, please sign and return the Informed Consent (attached) and complete the Omnibus T-Scale Survey (attached). Please submit both through email to my address listed below. All information will be kept confidential. There is a list of these assurances at the end of this letter.

Additionally, when the Informed Consent (attached) is signed and returned along with the survey, I will contract you to set up our interview and explain the process.

I hope that this will be a useful piece of research which will inform my educational practices. I would very much appreciate your help.

Regards,

Michelle Davignon, michelle.davignon@snhu.edu
Assurances to interviewees:

If you agree to an individual interview, focus group, survey completion and log keeping, anything you tell me will be treated in confidence.

In all instances:

- I will respect your right to decide not to answer any questions.
- I respect your right to withdraw from this research study at any time with no penalty.
- I may wish to use quotes, but would only quote you under a pseudonym and with your express permission.
Appendix B

Informed Consent for New Teacher Participants

Project Title: New Teachers’ Perceptions

Please read this consent agreement carefully before you decide whether or not to participate in the study.

**Purpose of the research study:** The purpose of my research is to explore the views new teachers hold on teacher leadership.

**What you will do in the study:** As a participant in this qualitative research study, you will be interviewed face to face by the researcher; complete two short surveys participate in a focus group and log communications between fellow teachers.

**Time required:** Approximately three hours total during a four week period.

**Risks:** There are no anticipated risks in this study.

**Benefits:** There are no direct benefits to you for participating in this research study; however this study informed the field of education. The report from this study will be made available to you.

**Confidentiality:** Participant’s information will be kept private and confidential. Pseudonyms will be used for the school location, school name and your name. The data will be collected and is limited to voice and text recording. Your information will be assigned a code number. The list connecting your name to this code will be kept in a locked file. When the study is completed and the data have been analyzed, all information will be destroyed after three years. Your name will not be used in any report.

**Voluntary participation:** Your participation in the study is completely voluntary.
Right to withdraw from the study: You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. To withdraw from the study, simply notify:

Michelle Davignon, michelle.davignon@snhu.edu

If you have questions about your rights in the study, contact:

Dr. Margaret Ford
Southern New Hampshire University
2500 North River Rd.
Manchester, NH 03106
T: 603-998-9221

Agreement

I agree to participate in the research study described above.

Participant’s Name: _______________________________________________________

Signature: ________________________________________ Date:  _____________

Researcher’s Name: _______________________________________________________

Signature: ________________________________________ Date:  _____________

You will receive a copy of this form for your records.
Appendix C

Consent Form for Superintendent

Project Title: New teachers’ perceptions of teacher leadership roles

Dear Superintendent,

I am a student from Southern New Hampshire University in the educational leadership doctoral program conducting a research study under the direction of Dr. Peg Ford. The purpose of my research is to explore new teachers’ perceptions of teacher leadership roles.

Upon your approval, I will contact building principals to obtain their permission to interview new teachers. New teachers will be selected by the principals. The sample will consist of four new teachers in your district who have been teaching between one and three years in the district. The teacher will be asked to participate in one face-to-face interview taking 60 minutes, participate in a one hour focus group session, and participate in two short surveys and record information on teacher interactions.

Participant information will be kept private and confidential. Pseudonyms will be used for the school location, school name and teacher names. The data will be collected and is limited to voice and text recording.

I would appreciate your district’s participation in this research as it has the potential to inform the field of education.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, please contact:

Michelle Davignon, michelle.davignon@snhu.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact:

Dr. Peg Ford, m.ford@snhu.edu
T: 603-998-9221
Southern New Hampshire University
Agreement

I agree to have my school district participate in the research study described above.

Superintendent Name: _____________________________________________________

Signature: _____________________________ Date: __________________

Researcher Name: _______________________________________________________

Signature: _____________________________ Date: __________________

You will receive a copy of this form for your records.
Appendix D

Consent Form for Principals

Project Title: New teachers’ perceptions of teacher leadership roles

Dear Principal,

I am a student from Southern New Hampshire University in the educational leadership doctoral program conducting a research study under the direction of Dr. Peg Ford. I have previously received approval from your superintendent to conduct interviews with new teachers in your school. I am seeking permission to conduct research and would appreciate your guidance in the selection of new teachers.

Your recommendation of potential participants is greatly appreciated. My sample will consist of new teachers in your school who are currently in the first three years of teaching and have had contact with teacher leaders, i.e., mentors, instructional coaches, etc., in your middle school.

The new teachers will be asked to participate in a 60 minute face-to-face interview, a one hour focus group session, take two short surveys and record information on teacher interactions. Participant information will be kept private and confidential. Pseudonyms will be used for the school location, school name and teacher names. The data will be collected and is limited to voice and text recording.

Below is a form that you may provide information regarding names of potential new teacher participants for this study. I would appreciate your participation in this research as it has the potential to inform the field of education.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, please contact:

Michelle Davignon, michelle.davignon@snhu.edu
If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact:

Dr. Peg Ford  
Southern New Hampshire University  
2500 North River Rd.  
Manchester, NH 03106  
T: 603-998-9221  
m.ford@snhu.edu

Agreement

I agree to have my school district participate in the research study described above.

Principal Name: __________________________________________________________

School Name:___________________________________________________________

Signature: __________________________ Date: ______________________

Researcher’s Name: Michelle M. Davignon

Signature: __________________________ Date: ______________________

Recommendations of new teachers in years 1-3 of service

1. Name: __________________________________________ Years in service_______
   Title________________________________ Email: __________________________

2. Name: __________________________________________ Years in service_______
   Title________________________________ Email: __________________________

3. Name: __________________________________________ Years in service_______
   Title________________________________ Email: __________________________

4. Name: __________________________________________ Years in service_______
   Title________________________________ Email: __________________________

5. Name: __________________________________________ Years in service_______
   Title________________________________ Email: __________________________
6. Name: _________________________________________________ Years in service ______
   Title______________________________ Email: ____________________________

7. Name: _________________________________________________ Years in service ______
   Title______________________________ Email: ____________________________

8. Name: _________________________________________________ Years in service ______
   Title______________________________ Email: ____________________________

9. Name: _________________________________________________ Years in service ______
   Title______________________________ Email: ____________________________

10. Name: ________________________________________________ Years in service ______
    Title______________________________ Email: ____________________________

11. Name: ________________________________________________ Years in service ______
    Title______________________________ Email: ____________________________

12. Name: ________________________________________________ Years in service ______
    Title______________________________ Email: ____________________________

You will receive a copy of this form for your records.
Appendix E

Interview Protocol

The following interview questions will be asked of each participant:

Time of Interview:

Date:

Place:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

Title of Interviewee:

Years of Experience in Position of Interviewee:

School population size:

Semi-Structured Interview Questions

What has been your experience and relationship with teacher leaders?

What do you perceive as your teacher leaders’ strengths?

What do you perceive to be your teacher leaders’ weaknesses?

Who seeks out whom and how do you interact with your teacher leaders?

Has anyone in the system made a strong impact on your teaching? If so, how?

What is the relationship teachers have with one another in this building and this district?

Because you are a new teacher, how do you feel teacher leaders perceive you?

Has your relationship with your teacher leaders changed? If so, how?
Appendix F

Demographic Questions asked of Participants

How many years in total have you been teaching?
  a. One year
  b. Two years
  c. Three years

How many years have you taught in this school?
  a. One year or less
  b. Two years
  c. This is my third year teaching in this school

What best describes the grade level you teach?
  a. Pre-K-4
  b. 5-8

What answer best describes the grade level you teach?
  a. Homeroom Pre-K-4
  b. Homeroom 5-8
  c. Middle science
  d. Middle social studies
  e. Middle mathematics
  f. Middle English Language arts
  g. Health
  h. Music
  i. Band
  j. Art
  k. Physical Education
  l. Middle Special education
  m. K-4 Special education
  n. Guidance

Do you receive guidance from an academic coach, i.e. English language arts coach or mathematics coach?
  a. Yes
  b. No

Do you receive guidance from a teacher who has a formal role as a mentor?
  a. Yes
  b. No
### Appendix G

**Omnibus T-Scale**

**Directions:** Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements about your school from **strongly disagree** to **strongly agree**. Your answers are confidential.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Teachers in this school trust the principal.</td>
<td>0 0 1 2 3 4 5 6</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teachers in this school trust each other.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Teachers in this school trust their students.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The teachers in this school are suspicious of most of the principal’s actions.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Teachers in this school typically look out for each other.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Teachers in this school trust the parents.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of the principal.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Teachers in this school are suspicious of each other.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The principal in this school typically acts in the best interests of teachers.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Students in this school care about each other.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The principal of this school does not show concern for the teachers.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Even in difficult situations, teachers in this school can depend on each other.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Teachers in this school do their jobs well.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Parents in this school are reliable in their commitments.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Teachers in this school can rely on the principal.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Teachers in this school have faith in the integrity of their colleagues.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Students in this school can be counted on to do their work.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The principal in this school is competent in doing his or her job.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. The teachers in this school are open with each other.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Teachers can count on parental support.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. When teachers in this school tell you something, you can believe it.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Teachers here believe students are competent learners.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The principal doesn’t tell teachers what is really going on.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Teachers think that most of the parents do a good job.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Teachers can believe what parents tell them.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Students here are secretive.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Scoring Key**
- Faculty Trust in the Principal - Items 1, 4*, 7, 9, 11*, 15, 18, 23*
- Faculty Trust in Colleagues - Items 2, 5, 8*, 12, 13, 16, 19, 21
- Faculty Trust in the Clients - Items 3, 6, 10, 14, 17, 20, 22, 24, 25, 26*

*Items are reversed scored, that is, \([1=6, 2=5, 3=4, 4=3, 5=2, 6=1]\)

For each school, first compute the average score for every item. Use these average item scores in the next set of computations to determine the faculty trust subtest scores for your school.

For each of the three subtests, compute the school score by adding the values for the items composing that scale and then dividing by the number of items. For example,
- Faculty Trust in Colleagues (TCo) = Scores for items 2, 5, 8*, 12, 13, 16, 19, 21 are summed and divided by 8.
- Faculty Trust in Clients (TCI) = Scores for items 3, 6, 10, 14, 17, 20, 22, 24, 25, 26* are summed and divided by 10.
- Faculty Trust in the Principal (TP) = Scores for items 1, 4*, 7, 9, 11*, 15, 18, 23* are summed and divided by 8.
Appendix H

Teacher Leadership School Survey
Marilyn and Bill Katzenmeyer

Please respond to the following statements in terms of how frequently each Statement is descriptive of your school.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Some-times</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. At my school administrations and teachersttry hard to help new teachers be successful.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. At my school, teachers are provided with assistance, guidance or coaching if needed.</td>
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<td>3. Administrators at my school actively support the professional development of faculty and staff.</td>
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<td>4. We gain new knowledge and skills through staff development and professional reading.</td>
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<td>5. We share new ideas and strategies we have gained with each other.</td>
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<td>6. Teachers at my school are supportive of each other personally and professionally.</td>
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<td>7. Teachers at my school are engaged in gaining new knowledge and skills.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Enter the total of items 1-7 in the space to the right

Total Items 1-7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Some-times</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. Many of the faculty and staff at my school are recognized for their work.</td>
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<td>9. My professional skills and competence are recognized by the administrators at my school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Other teachers recognize my professional skills and competence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. It is apparent that many of the teachers at my school can take leadership roles.</td>
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<td>12. The ideas and opinions of teachers are valued and respected at my school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. At my school we celebrate each others' successes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Many of the faculty and staff at my school are recognized for their work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item Number</td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>In my role as a teacher, I am free to make judgements about what is best for my students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>At my school I have the freedom to make choices about the use of time and resources.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I know that we will bend the rules if it is necessary to help children learn.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Teachers are encouraged to take initiative to make improvements for students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I have input in developing a vision for my school and its future.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>At my school teachers can be innovative if they choose to be.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Administrators and other teachers support me in making changes in my instructional strategies.</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Enter the total of items 15-21 in the space to the right</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Teachers in my school discuss strategies and share materials.</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Teachers at my school influence another's teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Teachers in my school observe one another's work with students.</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>I talk with other teachers in my school about my teaching and the curriculum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Teachers and administrators work together to solve students' academic and behavior problems.</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Other teachers at my school have helped me find creative ways to deal with challenges I have faced in my classes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Conversations among professionals at my school are focused on students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Teachers have input to decisions about school changes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Teachers have a say in what and how things are done.</td>
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<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Teachers and administrators share decisions about how time is used and how the school is organized.</td>
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<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Teachers and administrators at my school understand and use the consensus process.</td>
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<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Teachers participate in screening and selecting new faculty and/or staff at my school.</td>
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<td>34.</td>
<td>My opinions and ideas are sought by administrators at my school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>We try to reach consensus before making important decisions.</td>
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<td>36.</td>
<td>Because teachers and administrators share ideas about our work, I stay aware of what is happening.</td>
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<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>At my school everybody talks freely and openly about feelings and opinions they have.</td>
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<td>38.</td>
<td>Faculty and staff at my school share their feelings and concerns in productive ways.</td>
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<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Teachers at my school discuss and help one another solve problems.</td>
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<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>Faculty and staff talk about ways to better serve our students and their families.</td>
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<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>When things go wrong at our school, we try not to blame, but talk about ways to do better the next time.</td>
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<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Faculty meeting time is used for discussions and problem solving.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Scales of the Teacher Leadership School Survey

**Developmental Focus:** Teachers are assisted in gaining new knowledge and skills and are encouraged to help others learn. Teachers are provided with needed assistance, guidance and coaching.

**Recognition:** Teachers are recognized for roles they take and the contributions they make. A spirit of mutual respect and caring exists among teachers. There are processes for the recognition of effective work.

**Autonomy:** Teachers are encouraged to be proactive in making improvements and innovations. Barriers are removed and resources are found to support teachers' efforts.

**Collegiality:** Teachers collaborate on instructional and student-related matters. Examples of collegial behavior include teachers discussing strategies, sharing materials, or observing in one another's classrooms.

**Participation:** Teachers are actively involved in making decisions and having input on important matters. Department chairpersons, team leaders, and other key leaders are selected with the participation of teachers.

**Open Communication:** Teachers send and receive information relevant to the effective functioning of the school in open, honest ways. Teachers feel informed about what is happening in the school. Teachers easily share opinions and feelings. Teachers are not blamed when things go wrong.

**Positive Environment:** There is general satisfaction with the work environment. Teachers feel respected by one another, by parents, students and administrators. Teachers perceive the school as having effective administrative leadership. Appointed or informal teams work together effectively in the interests of students.
### Self-Scoring Procedure

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Scale Name</th>
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<th>25</th>
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<td>Development Focus</td>
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<td>Collegiality</td>
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<td>Open Communication</td>
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<td>Positive Environment</td>
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For each scale, blank the box for your score then draw a line back to the scale name.
Appendix I

Focus Group Protocol

Time of Interview:

Date:

Place:

Interviewees, titles and years of experience:

1. Name_________________________Title__________________________Year____
2. Name_________________________Title__________________________Year____
3. Name_________________________Title__________________________Year____
4. Name_________________________Title__________________________Year____

Semi-Structured Focus Group Interview Questions

The following interview questions will be asked of each participant:

1. Does your teacher leader provide needed assistance, guidance and coaching? If so, how?
2. Does respect and caring play in your relationship with your teacher leader? If so, how?
3. Are you encouraged to be proactive, and make improvements with support of your teacher leader? If so, how?
4. Do you collaborate on instructional and student-related matters with your teacher leader? If so, how?
5. Are you involved in making decisions on important matters that involve your teacher leaders? If so, how?
6. Is the communication between you and your teacher leader effective? If so, how?
7. Do you and your teacher leader share opinions and feelings openly and honestly? If so, please explain.

8. Does trust play a role in the relationship between you and your teacher leader? If so, how?

9. Do you feel your teacher leader is effective? If so, how?
Appendix J

Approval to Use Omnibus T-Scale Survey

On Sep 17, 2014, at 11:53 AM, Davignon, Michelle <michelle.davignon@snhu.edu> wrote:

To: Dr. Wayne Hoy

Re: Request use of Omnibus T-Scale for Doctoral Dissertation

September 14, 2014

Dear Dr. Hoy,

I am a doctoral student in the process of defending my dissertation proposal in an educational leadership program at Southern New Hampshire University in Manchester, New Hampshire. It is with pride I request the use of your instrument, Omnibus T-Scale as part of my research. It is my hopes that this qualitative research study will utilize the Omnibus T-Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) along with the Teacher Leadership School Survey (Katzenmeyer and Katzenmeyer, 2005) to draw conclusions to the proposed research question “how does trust affect new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders?” by relating levels of trust of new teachers to new teachers’ perceptions of their teacher leaders. Of particular interest is to explore the relationship between trust of teacher leaders and dimensions of teacher leadership as defined by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009) that new teachers perceive to be supportive for job satisfaction.

A number of researchers continue to identify gaps in the research based on the perception of new teachers’ relationships with their teacher leaders (Allen, Eby & Lentz, 2006; Hallam et al., 2012). The extent of involvement in teacher leadership varies as determined by the context of a school (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). The degree to which these formal teacher leaders are
successful at supporting new teachers varies (Hallam et al., 2012). As new teachers are vulnerable, having trust in their teacher leaders may affect the relationship between the two. Thus, with the use of your Omnibus T-Scale, this research may have the potential to make a significant contribution in the exploration of new teacher commitment and means to increase job satisfaction and retention rates of those new teachers.

I am looking forward to hearing back from you with questions and/ or comments related to the use of your survey. I am willing to have a discussion through Skype or email concerning the greater extent of my research. Additionally, if you have further clarifying questions, you may contact the Assistant Dean of Education at Southern New Hampshire University, Dr. Peg Ford at m.ford@snhu.edu or phone number 603-998-9221.

Thank you for your consideration in allowing me to utilize your scale for this important research.

Respectfully,

Michelle Davignon, Doctoral Candidate

Southern New Hampshire University, Manchester, NH

Michelle.davignon@snhu.edu

---

Re: Request use of the Omnibus T-Scale
Wayne Hoy [whoy@mac.com]

You replied on 9/17/2014 2:39 PM.

Sent: Wednesday, September 17, 2014 12:25 PM
To: Davignon, Michelle

HI Michelle—

You have my permission to use the Omnibus T-Scale in your research.

Best wishes.
From: Wayne Hoy [whoy@mac.com]
Sent: Wednesday, September 17, 2014 12:25 PM
To: Davignon, Michelle
Subject: Re: Request use of the Omnibus T-Scale

HI Michelle—

You have my permission to use the Omnibus T-Scale in your research.

Best wishes.

Wayne

Wayne K. Hoy  
Fawcett Professor Emeritus in  
Education Administration  
The Ohio State University  
www.waynehoy.com

7687 Pebble Creek circle, #102  
Naples, FL 34108  
Email: whoy@mac.com  
Phone: 239 595 5732
Appendix K

Job Descriptions of Academic Coach, Mentor, and Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment Peers

English Language Arts Academic Coach

1. Assist in the implementation of the English language arts curriculum, including balanced literacy and writing programs.

2. Provide demonstration lessons, modeling, and coaching for teachers in the implementation of curriculum and effective instructional strategies.

3. Facilitate initiatives, such as literacy teams, to support teacher collaboration in instructional planning and lesson design.

4. Guide the collection of classroom assessment data in English language arts and assist teachers in its analysis and interpretation for formative assessment purposes, as a tool for grouping students and providing instruction appropriate to their skill levels.

5. Assist teachers in understanding MCAS English language arts data and in using it to inform instruction.

6. Assist teachers in the use of software applications relevant to the English language arts program.

7. Participate in curriculum and assessment development and district-based professional development relevant to English language arts.

8. Lead student groups for interventions and/or enrichments as determined by administrators.

Mathematics Academic Coach

1. Assist in the implementation of all components of the mathematics program.
2. Provide demonstration lessons, modeling, and coaching for teachers, particularly in grades 4 and 5, in the implementation of curriculum and effective instructional strategies.
3. Lead initiatives for teacher collaboration in lesson design and instructional planning.
4. Guide the collection of classroom assessment data in mathematics and science and assist teachers in its analysis and interpretation for formative assessment purposes, to help them tailor their instructional strategies to students’ needs.
5. Assist teachers in understanding MCAS mathematics data and in using it to inform instruction.
6. Assist teachers in the use of software applications relevant to the mathematics program.
7. Participate in curriculum development and district-based professional development relevant to mathematics.

Mentor

1. Provide instructional support. This includes, among other things, regular observation and conferencing with the beginning teacher. During this time mentors will offer support in teaching to the learning standards of the Curriculum Frameworks and awareness and reinforcement of Skillful Teacher parameters and practices.
2. Provide professional support. Beginning teachers need to be informed of school policies and procedures, particularly regarding standards and procedures for teacher evaluation. Mentors will be a resource for information on evaluation and professional practice and responsibilities.
3. Provide personal support. Mentors can help relieve the stress on new teachers by introducing them to other faculty members and, with support and encouragement, helping the beginning teachers to put problems in perspective.

4. Maintain a confidential relationship with the beginning teacher. It is important that the beginning teacher be able to discuss problems openly with the mentor, so that they may be addressed in a timely and informed manner.

5. Ensure a strong start to the year. Mentors help beginning teachers launch a productive year by making sure they know where to obtain all needed materials, set up their classrooms effectively, have adequately constructed lesson plans, and understand basis professional responsibilities and procedures. Additionally, this is the time that the mentor should begin to work with the new teacher on addressing individual needs or issues, such as time management and classroom management strategies.

6. Serve as a liaison. The mentor should have the knowledge and skills to refer the beginning teacher to other teachers and educational resources, so that the beginning teacher is exposed to a variety of perspectives, instructional practices, and special expertise (e.g. SPED, technology).

7. Maintain communication and coordinate activities. The mentors in each building organize and facilitate regular support meetings for new teachers in the building (approximately nine, with more frequent meetings in September and November). Activities of the mentor/mentee partnership may include, but are not limited to, informal conversations, telephone and email contact, sharing materials, formal conference times, and classroom visits with follow-up conferences. The mentors arrange for substitute coverage to support substantive classroom visits between the new teachers and
themselves or other appropriate professional staff. Mentors inform new teachers to maintain a log of program activities, and they keep logs themselves for review by the mentor coordinator.

**Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment Peer**

In order to strengthen the Mentor Program and teacher induction process, new and transitioning teachers will be paired with CIA coaches. CIA stands for curriculum, instruction, and assessment and defines the primary responsibility of the coach.

CIA coaches are teachers who are proximal to and teach the same subject as the new or transitioning teachers. For example, a new SPED teacher will be matched with a veteran SPED teacher, a high school science teacher with a high school science teacher, a second grade teacher with a second grade teacher.

CIA coaches have in depth knowledge of the curriculum the new teacher is expected to teach. Also, they are skilled at using effective teaching strategies and varied assessment techniques within that subject area. They meet one on one with the new or transitioning teacher through mutually convenient scheduling arrangements and on an as needed basis. Their focus is on providing firsthand, accurate knowledge of the subject curriculum and on supporting instructional excellence in the implementation of that curriculum. Additionally, they are ideal partners for classroom visits and observations that are already a component of the Mentor Program.

Mentors help (in collaboration with the building principal or department head) to pair the new teachers with an appropriate CIA coach and monitor the process through the school year. The district provides PDP's to the participating CIA coaches.
References


Mayo, E. (1945). *Social problems of an industrial civilization.* Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration.


National Center for Education Statistics [Annual report]. (April, 2015): Public School Teacher Attraction and Mobility in the First Five Years: Results From the First Through Fifth Waves of the 2007–08 Beginning Teacher Longitudinal Study.


