

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS, TEACHER AGE, AND YEARS  
OF EXPERIENCE OF TEACHERS OF LANGUAGES OTHER THAN ENGLISH AND  
THEIR PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP

by

Maryna Svirska-Otero

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Liberty University

2022

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine a relationship between self-efficacy beliefs, age, and years of experience of educators of language other than English and teacher leadership. Language teachers constitute a unique subculture that exhibits varied levels of perceived importance and influence on the local, state, and national levels. The complexity of the academic context of second language acquisition contributed to the persistent shortage of educators nationwide between 1990 and 2017. In addition, the gap in ethnic representativeness of formal school leaders combined with the increased ethnic diversity of students communicates the need to invest in leadership development of teachers of languages other than English. The convenience sampling method was used to draw a representative sample of 64 language educators from school districts in the northeastern region of Texas. Two online surveys and a demographic questionnaire were employed to collect primary data. The *Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self* (TEBS-Self) allowed to measure domain-specific teacher self-efficacy beliefs. The *Teacher Leadership Inventory* (TLI) revealed the scores on perceived teacher leadership. The results of a multiple linear regression analysis indicated that there were no statistically significant predictive relationships between the linear combination of self-efficacy scores, age, and years of experiences and the overall score of teacher leadership subscales. Limitations and implications of the findings and recommendations for future research were discussed.

*Keywords:* languages other than English, teacher self-efficacy, teacher leadership.

**Copyright Page (Optional)**

## Dedication

“For the Spirit God gave us does not make us timid, but gives us power, love and self-discipline” (2 Timothy 1:7, New International Version). Thank you, Father, for discerning the potential in me, showing me my worth, and making me whole.

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my deeply beloved family. First, I dedicate it to my husband, Norberto, who has demonstrated his love for me through words and deeds throughout this journey of four years (1 John 3:18). He has prayed for me, encouraged me with his uplifting expressions of belief in me, and supported our children and myself at all times. He has stimulated my efforts and reinvigorated my weary spirit when I felt physically, mentally, and emotionally fatigued due to combining many responsibilities and commitments. He has freed time and space for me to learn and create without ever making me feel guilty for the hours of my absenteeism from home. Has it not been for my ever-present, supportive, and loving husband, I would not have seen completed this work. Thank you for being you and for making my life an adventure!

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### **List of Abbreviations**

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)

Languages other than English (LOTE)

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

Perceived Self-Efficacy (PSE)

Second/foreign/world language (S/F/WL) teacher

Second language acquisition (SLA)

Self-Efficacy (SE)

Self-Efficacy Theory (SET)

Teacher Leadership (TL)

Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI)

Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self)

Texas Education Agency (TEA)



## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

### **Overview**

This chapter provides the historical, social, and theoretical background of the effect of self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of professional experience of educators of languages other than English (LOTE) on their perceived leadership. It establishes problem and purpose statements, study significance, research question, and null hypothesis related to the study. A research question provides foundation for the study development and potential outcomes that could offer empirical basis for answering the question of the proposed research. Finally, the chapter includes a list of definitions that are consistently present in the study.

### **Background**

The reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 2001 initiated a new era of school accountability in the United States (Young et al., 2017) which increased the role of teacher and principal performances on the quality of school outcomes. Changes in the educational policy fomented research focused on principalship pathways from teachers to formal leadership positions (Austin et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2017; Goldhaber et al., 2019), principal preparation and evaluation (Williams, 2015), and the effect of instructional leadership and teacher evaluation on the academic improvement (Kraft & Gilmour, 2016). Additionally, researchers explored principal professional experiences and quality characteristics (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics [USDO, NCES], 2017) as well as their distribution across schools with different demographic descriptors (Grissom et al., 2019). The conclusion revealed an inequitable distribution of leadership demographic characteristics compared to the increasingly diverse student population (USDO, NCES, 2018b).

The issue of equity in formal leadership distribution coincides with the lack of equity in the attention toward research in teacher leadership among underrepresented groups (Wenner & Campbell, 2017), such as languages other than English (LOTE) educators (Texas Education Agency, [TEA], 2019c). Educators of languages other than English represent an area of critical shortage that has historically surpassed the shortage in the areas of math, science, and special education (Swanson & Mason, 2018). Though not responsible for direct preparation of students for a state assessment in the subject area, teachers of languages other than English support student learning and multidimensional development in complex cross-disciplinary ways (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages [ACTFL], n.d; Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016). Besides, languages other than English courses have an added potential to advance student leadership skills due to the multi-disciplinary connections in the curriculum (Bocci, 2016). Language education intersects histories, cultures, societies, and languages. Therefore, teachers of languages other than English are not simple transmitters of language knowledge and basic ability to communicate with carriers of other languages but possess meta-knowledge related to languages, acute sense of multicultural morale and ethics, current understanding of the global political standing, and societal operationalization with regard to the language use (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016).

The characteristics of teachers of languages other than English clearly trace a path to leadership development in order to advocate for language education through the existing organizational mechanisms and resources (Dimmock, 2019). Nevertheless, the shortage of professionals (Swanson & Mason, 2018) and the societal and political shortsighted attitude toward language education as inferior to other subject matters, demands attention to the issues of teacher development, efficacy, and retention. The investment of state, federal, and organization

funds into the research on the role, the quality, and the skills of school leadership as well as their training (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015; Crawford & Kelder, 2019) informs of a critical importance to direct its energy and resources toward self-efficacy of teachers of languages other than English and their leadership enactment to serve culturally-diverse school environments (Enns-Kananen, 2016). In response to this need, in December 2019, the U.S. Senate and the House of Representatives (Tessitore, n.d.; AMACAD, 2020) have called to action to promote global learning experiences for students and educators across the nation through a variety of programs, such as study abroad, foreign exchange, and international internship, after a long period of inattention. As a result, the World Language Advancement and Readiness Act (H.R. 1094) program was authorized in December 2019 and included in the Fiscal Year 2020 (FY20) National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA). Additionally, on December 22, 2020, in Washington, DC, Congressman David Price (D-NC) and Congressman Don Young (R-AK) announced the projected funding of \$15 million to the World Language Advancement and Readiness Grants program for the Fiscal Year 2021 (FY21) omnibus appropriations bill (Don Young Congressman for All Alaska, 2020). The bill came in response to reports highlighting the shortfalls in language and cultural skills in the United States military and intelligence communities.

### **Historical Overview**

Effective leaders extend their influence over multidimensional contexts of schools. They shape organizational systems, sustain organismic interactions among multitier school stakeholders, promote academic achievement of students, as well as psychological support and intellectual stimulation of educators (Cansoy & Parlar, 2018; Hitt & Tucker, 2016). In light of this reality, the meta-analysis of 51 national studies suggested evidence of the effect of

leadership behaviors on school outcomes, such as student achievement, teacher well-being, instructional practices, teacher retention, and institutional health (Liebowitz & Porter, 2019). Leadership roles beyond formal administrative and instructional responsibilities have shown an effect on student, teacher, and school performance (Thomas et al., 2020). Studies on both the elementary and the high school levels demonstrated that principal and teacher leaderships produce a positive effect on academic outcomes through interaction linked to learning climate (Sebastian et al., 2017). Therefore, school learning climate can improve by investing in teacher leadership and effectiveness through consistent and coherent development of continuing teacher education and school curriculum (Sebastian et al., 2016).

Research on leadership, leadership models, and leadership styles spans across national and international studies and has developed conceptualization of these dimensions as well as multicultural orientation (Kohler, 2016; 2015) during the past decades (Bush, 2018; Gumus et al., 2018; Khasawneh et al., 2012; Kippenberger, 2002; Mesu et al., 2015; Meyer & Meijers, 2017; 2018). School leaders have an evident impact on educators' personal and professional commitments and behaviors, such as morale, stress, commitment, self-efficacy, and collective efficacy (Lambersky, 2016). International research in 14 countries by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) provided empirical evidence of the effect of leadership styles on teachers' self-efficacy (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016). Additionally, shared leadership between school stakeholders has shown to be crucial in stimulating positive change in teacher commitments and practices aimed at improving school outcomes (Paletta et al., 2020). This finding is particularly significant given that the number of public schools in the United States (U.S.) has grown by seven percent between 1999-2000 and 2015-2016 academic years, from 92,000 to 98,300 (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics

[USDOE, NCES], 2019). The increased number of schools in the U.S. has fostered the need for a higher number of high-quality teachers and principals to develop, manage, provide, facilitate, evaluate, and continuously improve instruction. As a result, the number of school administrators increased by eight percent, from 83,800 to 90,400, while the number of full-time and part-time teachers grew from 3.0 million to 3.8 million within the same period, thus, demonstrating a 27 percent increment (USDOE, NCES, 2018a).

The demand for high-capacity educators who could effectively serve multicultural and multilingual populations of students has grown dynamically and teacher leadership has evidenced a direct effect on school outcomes. Therefore, it is indispensable to focus the direction of leadership research on the development of informal leadership of diverse populations of teachers. The daily responsibilities of educators include decision-making related to curriculum, instruction, and student services (Gumus et al., 2018). In addition, teachers should possess particular character traits (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991), conduct themselves in a transformational manner to motivate students and colleagues to a positive change (Avolio, 1999; 2011; Derue et al., 2011), be knowledgeable about legal and ethical norms, as well as perform administrative responsibilities without holding formal positions (Gumus et al., 2018). The prior stated facets of teacher responsibilities constitute only a portion of a wide array of educational expectations placed by the states. Simultaneously, teachers of languages other than English labor in a highly specialized content area that requires constant actualization but does not receive the support or the status of a core field of studies (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2019c). The upper mentioned responsibilities, among others, might require high self-efficacy beliefs as well as leadership characteristics and behaviors to accomplish the work of languages other than English educators effectively.

To this effect, Vygotsky's Sociocultural Learning Theory (Kozulin, 2003; Vygotskiĭ & Cole, 1978) and its sub-concept, the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991), support the development of language teachers by positing that knowledge and skills development are acquired, advanced, and performed within authentic contexts. It is precisely through self-actualization and interaction within sociocultural contexts that teachers develop and practice leadership (Campbell et al., 2019). Their leadership is ahistorical, situational, socially oriented, and "includes both the explicit and the tacit" connotations (Wenger, 1998, p. 47).

### **Societal Overview**

Educators of languages other than English have the responsibility to educate students on a holistic level by developing their awareness, knowledge, skills, and competence to achieve multimodal world-readiness standards of communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages [ACTFL], n.d.; Miller, 2019). The ACTFL world-readiness standards have placed language education in the forefront of responsibility for both the in-school outcomes and student preparedness for postsecondary studies and workforce after the graduation. Scholars have emphasized the value of language methodologies focused on innovative, hands-on (Knouse et al., 2015), and technology-rich (Anderson-Mejías, 2018; Sato et al., 2017) approaches to develop content-based critical-thinking skills, world-ready community connections (Bocci, 2016), and multicultural competence (Banks, 2016; 2015) in students. Such approaches, including project-based learning (Ruggiero & Hill, 2016), flipped learning (Jensen, 2019), and service learning (Bettencourt, 2015; Bocci, 2016), require a deep sense of teacher efficacy and leadership to engage in complex linguistic, organizational, and technological scenarios that go beyond the classroom and demand collaborative effort with colleagues, formal leadership, students, families, and communities.

Teacher self-efficacy beliefs and professional efficacy have evidenced a strong effect on student achievement (Leithwood et al., 2010) and the efficacy of language teachers has demonstrated critical importance for the improvement of student communicative, cultural, and interdisciplinary proficiency in the global society (Ennser-Kananen, 2016). While Wyatt (2018) recommended maintaining a healthy level of self-efficacy in language teachers to avoid the fallacy of over-efficaciousness, Choi and Lee (2016) underscored the importance of continuous advance of both the pedagogical and the linguistic proficiencies of teachers to maintain the needed level of self-efficacy due to the interplay between teacher qualifications.

Currently, there are 2,622 certified teachers of languages other than English (LOTE) in a southwestern state (TEA, 2019d). Their number is the second lowest number of teachers in subject-specific domains statewide and it surpasses only the total number of certified computer science teachers. Despite the assumingly large number of language educators, it is disproportionate with the state demand for languages other than English and bilingual education. A fluid change in the state and school demographic descriptors related to the geographic connection with Latin American countries produced a consistent shortage of language teachers who are competent both in English and at least in one other language, especially Spanish. Furthermore, due to its historical and societal background, the southwest of the United States has experienced a unique demographic situation in relation to immigration in general (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019). In addition to Spanish, other languages in high demand in schools and among language educators are Arabic, French, German, Japanese, Mandarin Chinese, Russian, and Vietnamese.

The demand for language teachers surpasses the supply and produces a shortage that states attempt to address with alternative certification and teacher preparation programs (Boyle et

al., 2015). The urgent need of specialists has prompted the creation of educational organizations that seek to increase the number of teacher candidates and fully certified teachers through educational programs, advisory, and employment support (Swanson, 2012; TEA, 2019d; Texas Teachers of Tomorrow, 2019). Through transactional approach, school districts usually offer a competitive teacher salary and a stipend between \$3,000 and \$6,000 as an incentive for retention to bilingual teachers and educators of languages other than English (Texas Teachers of Tomorrow, 2019). Given the growth in bilingual population, the education system has placed a progressively valuable role on languages other than English educators but, simultaneously, has decreased the requirements for candidates and, thus, diminished the expected quality of beginner teachers. The minimal requirements for beginning a bilingual teacher certification program are as low as an earned bachelor's degree with a GPA 2.5 or higher, not necessarily in linguistics or pedagogy, and the ability to speak a language other than English (Boyle et al. 2015).

Considering the state of affairs of the demographic and educational situations in various regions of the United States, it is not surprising that the goal of bilingualism and biliteracy is in the forefront of the educational agenda. The Every Student Succeeds Act ([ESSA], TEA, 2019e) has specifically addressed the issues of shortage in the high need professional fields, such as bilingual education and language other than English. The ESSA has called to respond to the need of providing equal and equitable quality and appropriate educational opportunities to all students and lower the gaps related to students from low-income and ethnic minorities groups being served “at higher rates than other students by inexperienced, out-of-field, and ineffective teachers” (TEA, 2019d, para. 1). Nevertheless, the field of language education is still not among the priorities of university-based teacher preparation programs (Liebtag & Haugen, 2015).



The passing of the Every Student Succeeds Act ([ESSA], TEA, 2019e) has not solved the existing teacher shortage problem but has laid a foundation for enacting proper measures to address it due to the complex nature of the issue. School districts understand that the teaching of languages other than English to ethnically and linguistically diverse student populations requires additional and advanced pedagogic skills and linguistic abilities not compulsory for teachers of the socioeconomic majority and English-only subjects (Boyle et al., 2015). The qualities of an effective teacher of languages other than English, in addition to the generic requirements for all pedagogues, include fluency in two or more languages, multicultural competence (Banks, 2016; 2015; Texas Teachers of Tomorrow, 2019), coachable disposition, and collaborative disposition (Boyle et al., 2015).

### **Theoretical Overview**

The study will observe a potential relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and leadership within languages other than English education. The construct of educators' perceived self-efficacy and Self-Efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1997) are grounded in Social Behavior Theory and Social Cognitive Theory developed by Bandura (1977, 1986). Teachers' agentic beliefs in their ability to respond in the expected manner can lead to expected student and educator outcomes (De la Torre Cruz & Casanova Arias, 2007; Dellinger et al., 2008; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993). The Self-Efficacy Theory posits that beliefs about capabilities to exercise control over events that affect human lives is a major agentic factor (Bandura, 1986). Because self-efficacy reflects individual belief in the aptitude to achieve goals and exert required behaviors for their attainment (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997), it cognitively influences teachers' motivations, behaviors, experiences, time management, expected results, and leadership (Angelle & Teague, 2014; Angelle & DeHart, 2011).

The Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) grounded in the Theory of Sociocultural Learning (Vygotskiĭ & Cole, 1978), supports that learning is a social and cultural process called legitimate peripheral participation, through which individuals actively co-construct knowledge. This process describes interaction, enrichment, and exchange between learning community members and involves their traits, behaviors, beliefs, languages, and multifaceted communication. Language educators acquire knowledge and skills, develop collegial relationships, attain leadership traits and practices, and improve leadership behaviors through interactions within local learning communities while gradually advancing to a full participation in larger sociocultural circles of domain-specific communities (Margolis & Doring, 2012; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). The perceived teacher leadership of languages other than English educators is defined “in terms of how it is lived in the context of the individual school” (Angelle & DeHart, 2011, p. 142). Teacher leaders, therefore, are those 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” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2011, p. 6).

Self-efficacy beliefs and teacher leadership share several unique characteristics that allow drawing parallel lines between them and observing their interaction in languages other than English teaching. The self-efficacy in domain-specific areas combines context and situation (Kurt et al., 2012; 2011) as well as depends on content-specific environments and tasks (Dellinger et al., 2008; Ross et al., 1996). Therefore, self-efficacy beliefs would obtain unique value when observed within the domain of languages other than English education and, specifically, in relation to teachers’ leadership beliefs and their enactment (Bradley-Levine, 2017). Given the appropriateness of the Situated Learning Theory for the domain of linguistics,

the theory clearly aligns with leaderships of educators of languages other than English and provides a strong conceptual framework for interaction of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997; Dellinger et al, 2008) and their perceived leadership.

### **Problem Statement**

Advocates for a multilingual and multicultural society have produced significant changes in education policy (Moeller & Abbott, 2018) and ideological perspectives (Costa & Norton, 2017) regarding the value of languages other than English education. Nevertheless, inadequate attention to language teacher roles, needs (Acherson et al., 2016), development (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016), and leadership (Wenner & Campbell, 2017) has produced lack of teacher candidates (Kissau et al., 2019b), longitudinal teacher shortage (Swanson, 2012; Swanson & Huff, 2019; Swanson & Mason, 2018), and low representativeness in formal educational leadership (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics [USDOE, NCES], 2017, 2019). Berkovich (2018a, 2018b) highlighted different perceptions of leadership in schools with diverse academic performance and the need for different types of effective leadership that would align with diverse sociocultural contexts of the United States population (Colby & Ortman, 2015). Investigation in teacher leadership development (Leithwood et al., 2020) within particular disciplinary contexts, such as multilingual education, could address the existing issues of equity and diversity in teacher leadership (Wenner & Campbell, 2017).

Literature has emphasized the need to look deeper into the context-specific efficacy and leadership development in order to produce empirical evidence that would inform interventions focused on incrementing self-efficacy beliefs and encouraging teacher leadership in underrepresented subcultures, such as languages other than English education (Leithwood et al., 2020; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Self-efficacy beliefs of educators of languages other than

English relate to more complex sets of skills than other content areas given that their competences should embrace general pedagogical methodologies, methodologies of language instruction, and linguistic competence in two or more languages (Ellis, 2018). Effective language instruction implicates language competence (Thompson & Woodman, 2019), while perceived linguistic efficacy has even a stronger influence upon teaching than the language knowledge and skills themselves (Bandura, 1997; Choi & Lee, 2016). Besides, language awareness is not only a part of language education but also sociolinguistics, communication (Cots, & Garrett, 2018; 2017), transdisciplinary awareness, socially inclusive and ethical practices (Costa & Norton, 2017), and other professional aspects of educational leadership.

Therefore, it seems contradictory that language education occupies a peripheral role in the traditional education system (Yanaprasart & Lüdi, 2018) and that linguistically and ethnically diverse formal leaders represent a small percentage of the state education leadership (USDOE, NCES, 2017, 2019), while their professional efficacy requires a complex multicompetence mindset (Ellis, 2018; Vu, 2017), high self-efficacy beliefs (Thompson & Woodman, 2019), and ability to respond to cultural and social diversity. Moreover, the demographic attributes of teacher age and years of experience in teacher leadership inquiry in the context of languages other than English do not reveal the depth of study, while it seems evident that the development of linguistic and pedagogic competences requires time and contextual experiences (Ellis, 2018; Thompson & Woodman, 2019). The literature is lacking evidence with regard to the importance of age and years of experience in self-assessed measure of dispositions, behaviors, and development of language teacher leadership. Educators of languages other than English do not receive proper attention in the teacher leadership domain and may not perceive themselves as leaders while it is important to be able to advocate for the students in a field where policy and

budget allocations focus primarily on the core subject domains. The relationship between the self-efficacy beliefs of language teachers, their age, years of experience, and the content-specific leadership has not been studied in depth. Therefore, it is unknown how self-efficacy beliefs of teachers of languages other than English, their age, and years of credited service influence their teacher leadership and its enactment within and beyond the classroom. The problem is that the literature has not fully addressed the effect of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience on the perception of teacher leadership among language educators.

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this quantitative predictive study is to determine how accurately teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience (predictors) can predict teacher perception of teacher leadership (criterion) in a school among educators of languages other than English. The first predictor variable—teacher self-efficacy beliefs—is defined as educators’ individual beliefs in their abilities to perform particular teaching tasks with a precise quality in any given situation (Dellinger, et al., 2008). The second predictor variable of teacher age is understood as the extent of human life measured in years (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). The third predictor variable—years of experience—refers to the number of years of creditable full-time employment as an educator in a public, charter, private, or foreign school or a higher education institution accredited by the State Boards of Education, and recorded for the purposes of salary increment (Texas Education Code, 2016). During a creditable year of service, teachers carry full responsibility instructional planning, delivery, and evaluation of student learning. The criterion variable is defined in terms of how teacher leadership is lived in the individual educational context (Angelle & DeHart, 2011) by exercising the roles of educational role models, decision makers, and supra practitioners (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007; Angelle & DeHart, 2010, 2011).

The specific purpose of the study is to determine whether language teacher self-efficacy beliefs, (Dellinger et al., 2008), teacher age, and years of experience can accurately predict the three factors of teacher leadership—sharing expertise, sharing leadership, and supra practitioner—and the overall teacher leadership (Angelle & DeHart, 2010).

### **Significance of the Study**

The study has a theoretical, an empirical, and a practical significance.

#### **Theoretical Significance**

Studies focused on teacher leadership have not always espoused a particular theory to inform research or have provided a clear definition of the construct, which has been a weakness of teacher leadership inquiry (Nguyen et al., 2020). The present study espouses specific learning theories and clear definitions of teacher self-efficacy beliefs and teacher leadership at the background of divergent understandings of the constructs. Research guided by clear theories and definitions can positively affect the symbiosis between theory and practice (Zaccaro & Horn, 2003) with regard to language education (Boudjelal, 2019).

#### **Empirical Significance**

The majority of the studies on teacher leadership have followed a qualitative design (Wenner & Campbell, 2017; Whitehead & Greenier, 2019). Additionally, they have revealed a limited emphasis on interdisciplinary settings and domain-specific contexts. Finally, the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and leadership has been presented primarily from the standpoint of the influence of formal leadership (Cansoy & Parlar, 2018; Damanik & Aldridge, 2017; Liu & Hallinger, 2018) or distributed leadership (Sun & Xia, 2018) on teacher self-efficacy beliefs. The current study aims to respond to the prior stated limitations. The study is significant for the body of already exciting literature in teacher self-efficacy beliefs and teacher

leadership due to its focus on the disciplinary context of languages other than English education. The research attempts to answer to the pressing demand to conduct research in domain-specific subcultures due to a non-generic nature of teaching, learning, and teacher leadership by employing a quantitative design (Spillane & Hopkins, 2013; Wenner & Campbell, 2017).

### **Practical Significance**

The issues of equity and diversity have not been considered enough in the teacher leadership research. The literature review on teacher leadership has not indicated the existence of a broad spectrum of knowledge in the field of languages other than English education. The majority of studies on language teacher self-efficacy (Baleghizadeh & Goldouz, 2016; Thompson & Woodman, 2019) and leadership (Erdel & Takkaç, 2019; Öqvist & Malmström, 2016, 2018) have been conducted in relation to the English as a foreign/second language and have been carried outside of the United States. Nevertheless, the problem at hand is noteworthy due to the demographic descriptors of students and educators where the research will be located and the need to provide appropriate leadership to schools with diverse populations (Berkovich, 2014a, 2014b, 2017, 2018a, 2018b; Colby & Ortman, 2015; U.S. Census Bureau, 2019). Finally, the research focus is to explain the relationship between self-efficacy and leadership from the standpoint of informal leadership in order to observe the effect of idiosyncrasies of subject-specific subcultures on the behavioral patterns of teacher leaders and the process of shaping their leadership within and beyond the classroom.

### **Research Question(s)**

**RQ1:** How accurately can teacher perception of teacher leadership be predicted from a linear combination of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience among educators of languages other than English?

### Definitions

1. *Languages other than English (LOTE)* – The Curriculum Standards and Student Support Division of Texas Education Agency (TEA) supervises and provides leadership for the Languages other than English (LOTE) educational programs for Kindergarten through grade 12 in American sign language and classical languages and implements the LOTE Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills ([TEKS], TEA, 2019c).
2. *Second/foreign/world language (S/F/WL)* – Education researchers, practitioners, and policy makers have developed multiple terms to refer to languages other than English but the language programs share common goals, such as facilitating students’ acquisition of “the ability to communicate in meaningful and culturally appropriate ways in other languages” (Swanson, 2012).
3. *Second language acquisition (SLA)* – Second language acquisition has the goal of preparing students to develop and apply language skills through the five “C” goal areas—Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities—in order to develop global competence in life and career (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages [ACTFL], n.d.).
4. *Bilingual education* – Bilingual education refers to education programs that propose instruction in two languages—English and a language other than English—and includes programs that aim at developing English and non-English proficiency as well as academic attainment (Boyle et al., 2015, p.1).
5. *Perceived self-efficacy (PSE)* – “Perceived self-efficacy refers to belief in one’s agentic capabilities that one can produce given levels of attainment” (Bandura, 1997, p. 382).



6. *Self-efficacy* – Individual's aptitude to perform in a necessary manner, to attain specific goals, and to exert control over own stimuli (Bandura, 1977, 1986).
7. *Self-Efficacy Theory (SET)* – Self-Efficacy Theory is founded on Social Behavior Theory and social cognitive theory and reveals individual's self-evaluation of personal abilities to produce expected outcomes (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997).
8. *Situated Learning Theory (SLT)* – Situated Learning Theory is grounded in Sociocultural Learning Theory and holds the premise that the individuals' learning is an integrative process where personal conceptualizations enter into a symbiotic relationship with physical and social environment to produce co-constructed knowledge (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, human beings are not free from the influence of the context in which they are situated.
9. *Teacher self-efficacy beliefs* – The predictor variable is defined as “teacher's individual beliefs in their capabilities to perform specific teaching tasks at a specific level of quality in a specified situation” (Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, & Ellett, 2008, p. 752).
10. *Teacher Efficacy Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self)* – Teacher Efficacy Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self) has been developed by Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier, and Ellett (2008) to measure domain-specific teacher self-efficacy beliefs as related to the tasks in the contexts of their classrooms. The instrument consists of 31 statements measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale (weak, moderate, strong, very strong beliefs).
11. *Teacher leaders* – “Teacher leaders lead within and beyond the classroom; identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders; influence others toward improved educational practice; and accept responsibility for achieving the outcomes of their leadership” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2011, p. 6).

12. *Teacher leadership* (TL) – The criterion variable is defined “in terms of how it is lived in the context of the individual school” (Angelle & DeHart, 2011, p. 142) within five categories: (1) educational role models, (2) decision maker, (3) visionary, (4) supra-practitioner, and (5) positional designee (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007). Teacher leadership is grounded in Sociocultural Learning Theory developed by Lave and Wenger (1991).
13. *Teacher Leadership Inventory* (TLI) – Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) has been developed by Angelle and DeHart (2010, May) to measure the range of teacher leadership in schools through a four factor model consisting of 17 statements measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale (never, seldom, sometimes, and routinely).
14. *Age* – “The length of an existence extending from the beginning to any given time” (Merriam-Webster, n.d.).
15. *Years of experience* – The construct of years of experience refers to the number of years of creditable full-time employment as an educator in a public, charter, private, or foreign school or a higher education institution accredited by the State Boards of Education, and recorded for the purposes of salary increment (Texas Education Code, 2016). During a creditable year of service, teachers carry full responsibility instructional planning, delivery, and evaluation of student learning.
16. *Figured world* – Socially and culturally constructed manner of interpretation where individuals are presented as characters and actors, their actions have attributed significance, and certain outcomes have a higher value than others (Holland et al., 1998, p. 52).

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Overview**

Chapter Two provides a theoretical framework for the current research on the predictive effect of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience on teacher perception of teacher leadership in a school among educators of languages other than English and validates its importance based on the problem as established by the related literature review. Thus, the chapter consists of (a) a theoretical framework of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of service and teacher leadership, (b) the related literature, and (c) a summary. The theoretical framework, espoused by two theories—the Self-Efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1997) and the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991)—guides the study by laying the foundation for teacher self-efficacy beliefs within the context-specific field of languages other than English and their link to the perception of teacher leadership. The related literature section comprises the synthesis of the previous research in teacher self-efficacy beliefs and teacher leadership as well as the implementation of demographic characteristic of age and years of experience in general and within the realm of language education, in particular.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The study proposes to examine the extent to which teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience of educators of languages other than English can predict the perception of teacher leadership to address the gap in the literature. The two main constructs—self-efficacy beliefs and teacher leadership—share distinctive characteristics and interact effectively in language education. The theoretical framework, therefore, encompasses two theories: the Self-Efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1997) and the Situated Learning Theory (Lave &

Wenger, 1991). Additionally, teacher age and years of professional experience align with the upper mentioned theories and show potential to interrelate with the teacher leadership construct.

### **Self-Efficacy Theory**

The following section will provide (a) the description of the Self-Efficacy Theory, including its origination and the major theorist, (b) how it has informed the literature on the current study, and (c) how the proposed research focus may advance the theory.

The construct of educators' perceived self-efficacy is grounded in Social Behavior Theory and Social Cognitive Theory developed by Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997). Bandura (1977) differentiated between response-outcome expectancies and self-efficacy beliefs. The first notion, response-outcome expectancies, related to individual's expectations "that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193) and are aligned with Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control Theory. The outcome expectancies depend on the influence of the social environment and human reactions to it through particular actions (Bandura, 1977; Kirsch, 1985; Williams, 2010). On the other side, self-efficacy expectations transcend the perceived ecological contingencies and emphasize the internal contingencies to individual's beliefs (Bandura, 1977). Teachers may be aware of the causal outcomes of specific professional dispositions and behaviors but the knowledge in itself would not produce achievements without educators' agentive beliefs in their ability to respond in the expected manner. Because of Bandura's distinction between the outcome expectancies and self-efficacy, other studies have documented this differentiation (De la Torre Cruz & Casanova Arias, 2007; Dellinger et al., 2008; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993) and have discussed the validity of the constructs and content (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

As Bandura's Social Behavior Theory and Social Cognitive Theory evolved, the Self-Efficacy Theory became a more prominent and stand-alone theory (Bandura, 1997). The Self-Efficacy Theory posits that, "among the mechanisms of personal agency, none is more central or pervasive than people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1986, p. 1176). Self-efficacy reveals teachers' beliefs in their agentive capabilities to produce expected outcomes and exert control over the stimuli in their professional situations. Because of educators' beliefs in their capabilities, they are more likely to commit to required actions with the purpose to achieve their goals and, thus, increase their efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

The Self-Efficacy Theory has informed the literature on the predictive effect of self-efficacy beliefs of educators of languages other than English on their perceived leadership by providing an extensive theoretical and empirical examination of general teacher self-efficacy beliefs and emergent research on language teacher self-efficacy beliefs (Wyatt, 2018). The Self-Efficacy Theory is particularly valuable in observing the effect of self-efficacy beliefs of educators of languages other than English on their leadership dispositions and behaviors due to various specific threats that linguistics and language instruction can pose on these beliefs (Wyatt, 2018). Self-efficacy beliefs of language educators precede and inform their efficacy due to four sources of information: (a) mastery experience, (b) vicarious experience, (c) verbal persuasion, and (d) psychological states of teachers (Bandura, 1977). These sources of information reveal self-efficacy's effect on teachers' behaviors, thoughts, feelings, and their overall well-being (Klassen & Chiu, 2010, 2011; Li et al., 2017; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

The domain-specific orientation in the self-efficacy literature presents the concept less in generalized terms and more in relation to content-specific environments, various tasks, and

diverse classroom situations (Dellinger et al., 2008; Ross et al., 1996). Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are shaped in educators' "individual beliefs in their capabilities to perform specific teaching tasks at a specific level of quality in a specified situation" (Dellinger et al., 2008, p. 752). This definition underscores the contextual and situational nature of the construct (Kurt et al., 2012; 2011) and allows for its observation within the domain of languages other than English education and, specifically, in relation to teachers' leadership beliefs and enactment. These beliefs interact with language educators' linguistic competence (Hall, 2018) and pedagogical competence (Alagözli, 2016). Consequently, they relate to the quality of the overall professional outcomes, which are frequently correlated with a significant emotional work and emotional burnout (Acherson et al., 2016) and may result in teacher attrition (Swanson & Huff, 2019; Swanson & Mason, 2018). Finally, self-efficacy beliefs influence the reflective cycle of language educators during the stages of planning, teaching, reflecting, and conceptualizing as they consider proper approaches to teaching and learning and the curriculum within the school context (Wyatt, 2016). Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory (1977, 1986, 1997) lies in the foundation of the instrument of Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self) chosen for the proposed study (Dellinger et al., 2008). It includes six components: communication/clarification (CC), management/climate (MC), accommodation of individual differences (AID), motivation of students (MS), managing learning routines (MLR), and higher order thinking skills (HOTS).

### **Situated Learning Theory**

The following section will provide (a) the description of the Situated Learning Theory, including its origination and the major theorist, (b) how it has informed the literature on the current study, and (c) how the proposed research focus may advance the theory.

The construct of teacher leadership is grounded in the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) developed from the Theory of Sociocultural Learning (Vygotskiĭ & Cole, 1978). Vygotsky (1986, 2000; Vygotskiĭ & Cole, 1978) held that individual behavior and learning related to social contexts. Because human beings are social and reflexive, they incorporate the triadic interaction of individual, social, and cultural experiences in their cognitive and behavioral processes (McInerney et al., 2011; 2014). The Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) supports that learning is both a social and a cultural process called legitimate peripheral participation. Through interaction, individuals dynamically co-construct knowledge in contextually relevant conditions.

Legitimate peripheral participation involves interaction, enrichment, and exchange between learning community members and encompasses their traits, behaviors, beliefs, languages, and multimodal communication, both verbal and non-verbal (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This conceptualization reflects higher order cognitive processes, in which individuals regard phenomena and behaviors through the lens of change and in relation to the environments where they occur (McInerney et al., 2011; 2014). Lave and Wenger (1991) posited that learning is an unremitting process that involves relationships and interactions situated within social situations and affected by individual engagement with other learners. Accordingly, teacher leadership can be regarded as a process of apprenticeship that occurs through workplace learning (Patel, 2018).

The Situated Learning Theory has informed the literature on the topic of the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on teacher leadership of language educators through both the aspect of linguistics and the field of teacher leadership. The sociocultural theoretical perspective offers an interdisciplinary approach to the study, given that it combines various constructs under one research focus: teacher leadership, self-efficacy beliefs, and linguistic and pedagogical

competence of educators of languages other than English population. This communicative approach across disciplines allows consulting related aspects of the current problem and advancing both theory and practice (McInerney et al., 2011; 2014). In light of the proposed study, the complex construct of teacher leadership refers to the symbiotic relationship (Zaccaro & Horn, 2003) between personal traits, beliefs, dispositions, and enacted behaviors within a contextual physical and social environment (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Such conceptualization of teacher leadership fits the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, the situated context of teacher experiences and interactions is of ultimate significance because education focuses on learning from and among individuals from various levels of social, organizational, and cultural groups.

The situated approach to teacher leadership underscores three main ideas: internalization, construction of identity, and the advance of communities of practice (Patel, 2018).

Internalization refers to teachers' acceptance of the established organizational standards and principles. In the course of teachers' professional learning and practical experience, they develop identities that allow for their integration into local communities (Korthagen, 2010). The communities of practice can surge as a result of intentional interaction and friction among more experienced teachers and novice teachers within the same educational field and not as a mandatory requirement from a formal school leader, such as principal (Korthagen, 2010; Patel, 2018). Likewise, situated teaching and learning communities can nurture pathways for quantifying attributes of teacher leaders and promote the development of master teachers and future leadership in domain-specific fields (Hite & Milbourne, 2018). Finally, educators' and formal leaders' understanding of effective learning and teaching ideologies can be informed by



students' community of practice characterized by active, affective, and individualized pedagogies, instead of generically prescribed best practices (Hinck & Tighe, 2020).

The Sociocultural Learning Theory (Vygotskiĭ & Cole, 1978) as well as the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) are in the foundations of linguistics and language instruction and learning (Vygotskiĭ & Cole, 1978; Vygotsky, 1986, 1987, 2000). The sociocultural nature of the second language acquisition has become a point of attention in language research and has been empirically supported (Ellis et al., 2020; 2019; Roever & Kasper, 2018; Storch, 2017). For example, sociocultural aspects of learning support the advance of declarative knowledge and culturally relevant application through the direct teaching of linguistic formulae (Lantolf et al., 2017; Lantolf & Poehner, 2014; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Lantolf et al., 2015; Lantolf & Zhang, 2017). Language acquisition cannot happen in isolation from the society and its cultural context because individuals do not exist and develop in isolation from their environment but rather in connection to an ethos, a history, and a society (Swain et al., 2011; Vygotsky, 2000). Interactional competence—ability to speak, understand speech, and respond in a linguistically and socially appropriate manner (Tecedor, 2016; Yeh, 2018)—of language speakers of both similar and dissimilar levels as well as misunderstandings or individual understandings of speech and its situated context can affect the outcome of a conversation (Roever & Kasper, 2018; Youn, 2020). Additionally, the innovative approach of sociocultural learning tasks has demonstrated effectiveness in the construction of both the specifics of language acquisition, such as grammatical awareness (Niesen, 2015), and the language instruction in its entirety (Ellis et al., 2020; 2019; Zapata, 2019).

It is evident that the Situated Learning Theory has directly informed the literature on the topic of the study from the separate perspectives of the second language acquisition and

instruction and teacher leadership. Given the presence of both angles within one study, the research focus on teacher leadership of educators of languages other than English may extend the theory by advancing the understanding of the situated nature of language educators' perceptions of leadership. The development and advance of both the linguistic competence and teacher leadership depend on social contexts and demonstrate a valuable interrelation in the fields of research related to linguistics and leadership.

### **Related Literature**

Before addressing the related literature on the constructs of self-efficacy beliefs of educators of languages other than English and teacher leadership, it is noteworthy to observe the setting of language education. Specifically, it is necessary to address the multifaceted benefits of languages for human development and personal, academic, and career outcomes as well as the current state of affairs of language education. The prior mentioned aspects of the proposed study clearly situate the topic in the domain-oriented setting of language education and underscore its significance for the advance of theory and practice.

### **The Value of Languages Other than English Education - The Five “C” Goal Areas**

The ultimate goal of language education and second language acquisition for students in the United States is the development and application of language knowledge and skills through five “C” goal areas of World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages for the purposes beyond the traditional classroom instruction and practice (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages [ACTFL], 2011). The five “C” goal areas include Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. Besides the five “C” goal areas, the standards for learning languages comprise 11 standards, which guide the architecture and the implementation of language curricula, course design, assessment, instruction, and educational policy (The

National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). Portraying language and communication as inseparable aspects of the local and global human experience for the U.S. children and adults, the standards emphasize the value of the linguistic and sociocultural competence in at least two languages, English and one other modern or classical language (Cox et al., 2018). Therefore, the objective of teachers of languages other than English as well as educators of English as a second language—for students whose home language is not English—is to introduce and develop a global competence in students' prospective careers and life experiences to prepare successful members of the pluralistic society.

Though the five “C” goal areas established by the most reputable national organization in language education in the U.S. are defined clearly and precisely, it is important to understand the value of such imperative (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). The ACTFL, with the support of Pearson LLC and Language Testing International, initiated Lead with Languages (n.d.) campaign to advocate for the sustainability and growth of language education on regional, state, and national levels. As established by the Lead with Languages initiative, language acquisition is not the goal in itself but should be regarded through the lens of a lifelong tool, which can serve in leading personal or professional areas of life to a higher level of development and achievement. Multilingual competence, therefore, is a leadership tool, a dynamic skill that connects individuals to a larger world and engages them with other individuals in direct and meaningful ways.

### ***Communication***

The value of the communication goal is closely related to the global competence, which is among the crucial components of the 21st century skills in accordance with the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) (ACTFL, 2014). The global competence is

“developed and demonstrated by investigating the world, recognizing and weighing perspectives, acquiring and applying disciplinary and interdisciplinary knowledge, communicating ideas, and taking action” (ACTFL, 2014, p. 1). Communication is both the basic and the central component of the five “C’s” because it creates a path to the three linguacultural “P’s”—cultural perspectives, products, and practices—and makes cross-disciplinary and cross-cultural connections and comparisons during classrooms instruction and beyond. The U.S. population is characterized by pluralism in ethnic and linguistic descriptors (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). In fact, the percentage of public school students who held the status of an English Learner (EL) in fall 2017 varied between 0.8 percent in West Virginia to 19.2 percent in California (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2020). The percentage of English learners in Texas was 18.0%, the second highest in the nation. Roughly, 10.1%, or 5.0 million public school students in the United States classify as English learners. At the same time, in 2014-2018, nearly 13.5% of residents were foreign-born and represented various parts of the world: Latin America (50.8%), Asia (30.8%), Europe (11%), Africa (4.9%) and, to a small degree, Northern America and Oceania (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Unsurprisingly, the linguistic composition of the population five years and older is also diverse. More than one in every five people, 21.5% of residents, speak languages other than English at home, among which are Spanish (13.3%), Indo-European languages (3.6%), Asian and Pacific Islander languages (3.5%), and other languages (1.1%). Given the ethnic and the linguistic distribution in the country, it is evident that the interrelated communication goal and global competence are desirable and expected to interact effectively in contextually-diverse situations in three modes—interpersonal, interpretative, and presentational—that facilitate a complete range of human experiences (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015).

## *Cultures*

In the introduction to the chapter on language and nationalism, Edwards (2009) offers exemplifications of the beliefs of language nationalists, among whom were Wilhelm von Humboldt, a German philosopher, writer, linguist, politician, and anthropologist, who expressed the idea that a nation's language was of an absolute importance for a nation's culture (Mueller-Vollmer & Messling, 2017). In the languages other than English education, the exploration of cultures carries an incomparable value, even though the process is challenging and understudied due to educators' disparate individual beliefs and attitudes and the lack of professional learning opportunities focused on effective instructional practices (Yang, 2016). The understanding of cultural perspectives through language form and use connects learners to cultural practices and cultural products back to cultural perspectives in a reflective and cyclical manner (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). The language cannot be complete without a sociocultural context and vice versa. Through the observation, explanation, and reflection of the relationships between the perspectives, practices, and products, language learners can achieve integrative appreciation of languages, cultures, and their people (Lavrenteva & Orland-Barak, 2015).

Though Humboldt's belief may sound hyperbolized to a member of a modern multicultural society, such as the United States, intrinsic idiosyncrasies of a language truly offer an insider's perspective into a culture. Predictably, though translation could be considered a channel for spreading cultural understanding and knowledge (Indra & Rajagopalan, 2018; 2017) and a force that contributes to the shaping of modern cultures (Mezei et al., 2014), it inevitably leads to the loss of ideal equivalence of notions and concepts (Emmerich, 2017). However, such classroom practices as cultural portfolios can increase awareness about cultures by using languages in real-world learning task through interpersonal and presentational modes of

communication even though with varied levels of linguistic proficiency (Ellis et al, 2020; 2019; Zapata, 2019). As the secretary of State, Betsy DeVos, said: “And it’s impossible to truly understand a culture without first understanding its language. Students who are competent in two, three, four languages are better prepared for every turn in their careers and lives” (U.S. Department of Education, 2018, p. 3).

### *Comparisons*

By drawing from the goals of communication and culture, learners of languages can benefit from the integrative goal of comparisons through the formation of insights in order to engage with linguistic and cultural competence (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). The objective and ultimate value for language learners is not to create a separate channel of phonological, morphologic, semantic, and cultural knowledge but to be able to explore, reflect upon, and conceptualize a new complex system through comparisons with their own. Similar to how cultural perspectives influence human perceptions of poetry and individuals respond differently to original versions of poems and their literary translations, so do speakers of different languages perceive and compare linguistic and cultural knowledge in unique ways (Chesnokova et al., 2017). According to Tesch (2018), language learning is the process of making sense, which is both dissimilar and shared because it “is collective inasmuch as every person shares certain living conditions and consequently experiences, hopes and expectations with other persons” but “distinct inasmuch as the individual casts his or her own experiences, hopes and expectations in individual learning choices” (p. 11). Consequently, language education brings upon a value of individual growth through examination of personal, societal, and cross-cultural values and the construction of sense behind new sounds, words, ideas, and experiences.

### *Connections*

The value of the goal area of connections cannot be underestimated due to its deep cognitive potential to improve language learners' academic, professional, and personal lives (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). Cross-disciplinary connections and ability to use languages in academic and career-oriented inquiries improves problem solving, critical thinking, and creative expression. The multidisciplinary nature of effective language curricula aides in shaping, reinforcing, and increasing the knowledge and skills that are specific to other disciplines through the means of target languages to develop critical thinking and to solve problems creatively. Through innovative approaches, students learn to solve real-life local and global problems through service-learning opportunities (Bettencourt, 2015), which place languages into cross-disciplinary contexts and connect them with their own communities and beyond the borders of their cities, states, and even countries via online initiatives (Palpacuer Lee at al., 2018). Learners participate in collaborative efforts with their peers within the classroom and outsides of it, engage in critical and reflective practices through languages, and build their professional portfolio as the 21st century learners who start young in tracing pathways for professional development and leadership within their communities. Such leadership opportunities allow for establishing connections with institutions, organizations, businesses, and initiatives that seek cross-disciplinary multilingual specialists. Furthermore, multimodal and multipurpose study abroad programs and trips offered through language and culture courses can generate a higher attention to language learning in addition to creating cross-curricular learning opportunities, service tasks, and research projects to support students' academic and career interests (Stein-Smith, 2020).

The goal area of connections draws benefits for language acquisition from cognitive advantages of bilingual and multilingual individuals (Thierry, 2016). Previous research has suggested that students with linguistic skills in two languages have advantages over students with monolingual skills in tasks related to executive functioning (Bialystok, 2011), especially in relation to inhibitory task control allowing them to concentrate on certain information and disregard other (Bialystok & Martin, 2004). Nevertheless, more recent empirical studies have contradicted such findings by confirming that both groups of children perform without statistically significant differences in executive function tasks that assess inhibition, shifting, and updating (Arizmendi et al., 2018; Duñabeitia et al., 2014; Park et al., 2018). To this effect, the cognitive advantages of students with multilingual capacity is attributed to language learning and training through day-to-day language use that contributes to linguistic proficiency in two or more languages instead of early childhood developmental changes (Pelham & Abrams, 2014). On the other side, bilingual aptitudes in adolescents with both low and high socioeconomic status have shown to increase abilities related to cognitive and psycholinguistic function, specifically, the stability of neural responses, phonemic decoding, and executive function (Krizman et al., 2016). This finding contradicts previous studies that have emphasized the harmful effect of low socioeconomic status on children's mental and sensory processing due to a number of interrelated factors (Farah, 2017; Neville et al., 2013; Noble et al., 2007). In reality, when controlling for socioeconomic inequalities, students in two-way dual-language or dual-language immersion classes have demonstrated higher performance in English language arts than their English-only speaking counterparts (American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 2016). Due to linguistic and pedagogic practices in dual-language classes through constant and consistent exposure to more than one language, students in the fifth grade demonstrate an average of a



seven months gain in reading skills and outperform their English-only peers by a full academic year by the eighth grade (Steele et al., 2017). Evidently, the research supports that the process of second language acquisition concurrently contributes to the improved control of the first language (Burkhauser et al., 2016) and other school subjects, such as mathematics (Watzinger-Tharp et al., 2018).

### *Communities*

Finally, the goal area of communities aims at bridging the barriers of social and professional communities and increasing multimodal competence through language acquisition. This goal has received support of 1,200 U.S. employers who emphasized a great value in possessing multilingual knowledge and skills in addition to other professional abilities (ACTFL, 2019). Evermore, the number of bilingual or multilingual positions in the U.S. has increased from approximately 240,000 in 2010 to nearly 630,000 in 2015 (New American Economy, 2017), while language skills frequently offer an increased wage or a bonus to the yearly salary nationally and abroad (Fabo et al., 2017; Liwiński, 2019; Wang et al., 2017). Even though the bilingual speakers of English and Native American languages, Pennsylvania Dutch, and Yiddish, as well as Spanish-only speakers earn wages that are considerably lower than the average U.S. salary, this is the result of geographic localization and cultural tendencies. Contrarily, American residents who are proficient in particular Western European and East Asian languages as well as Hebrew have higher earning than English-only speakers (Chiswick & Miller, 2018). Thus, multilingual and multinational capacities of the human capital within organizations and enterprises could contribute to a collectively higher productivity and improve economic position of bilingual speakers (Welch & Welch, 2018).

The Lead with Languages campaign, which advocates for language education on all national levels, reveals the demand for linguistically and culturally proficient employees in all business fields. The data of the survey empirically supports that school stakeholders, including the community and business leaders, should distribute academic and financial efforts more equitably and invest into establishing new or nurturing the existing language programs and seeking university and business partnerships to advance teacher and student preparation. This national report accentuates the value of language education by providing evidence of the benefits of multilingual proficiency and the detriments of the lack of it. The benefits involve adequate preparedness for economic and business relationships, proper leadership and management in local and national enterprises, and ability to preserve a business by upholding appropriate communication and skilled staff who “meets all the requirements for the job and who also speaks the language required” (ACTFL, 2019, p. 3). Ultimately, 90% of U.S. employers in all professional areas, and primarily in healthcare, social assistance, trade, education services, professional and technical services, and construction, support that schools and educators should increase student marketability by providing quality multi-language education. Consequently, if the purpose of schools is to prepare children for life experiences, they should embrace the language imperative and respond to the needs of the modern society by effectively cultivating multilingual and cross-cultural proficiencies in students (White, 2016). While the applied importance of languages and cultural competence is doubtless, empirical research and theoretical conceptualization should approach and investigate the understudied area of language education and its effect on the local and global communities in more depth (Tenzer et al., 2017).

## **The Current State of Affairs of Languages Other than English Education in the U.S.**

Languages other than English education has experienced numerous challenges related to the value that the U.S. society has attributed to this field of study. These challenges relate to student enrollment and program offerings in the secondary and higher education, study abroad programs aimed at developing linguistic and pedagogical competence, inequitable position of language education among other subject domains, funding for language programs, and teacher shortage.

### ***Student Enrollment and Program Offerings***

As seen from the section on the five “C” goal areas, languages other than English education offers a range of multidimensional benefits to language learners. Simultaneously, the level of advocacy for this field of study requires improvement and increased intentionality (Stein-Smith, 2020). Stein-Smith (2020) has emphasized that language education in the U.S. currently requires both the advocacy for action in support and action in defense due to the alarming statistics that characterize the nation’s attitude and action toward learning languages other than English. Even though 21.5% of U.S. residents older than five years of age speak a language other than English at home, primarily Spanish, Indo-European, Asian, and Pacific Islander languages (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018), the Modern Language Association of America ([MLA], 2019) reported a remarkable decrease in enrollment in languages other than English courses. The enrollment dropped by 6.7% between 2009 and 2013 academic years and by additional 9.2% between 2013 and 2016, resulting in a 12.6% decline in less than 10 years. Such decrease in enrollment aligns with a low enrollment of students in K-12 classes in languages other than English courses during the 2014–2015 academic year (American Academy of Arts and Sciences [AMACAD], 2016). The enrollment by state ranged between 7.9% in New Mexico

and 51.2% in New Jersey and only 12 U.S. states had more than 25% of both elementary and secondary students enrolled in language courses. On the post-secondary level, merely 7.5% of students were enrolled in language courses according to the report (MLA, 2019).

These data are not surprising given the longitudinal perspective of the U.S. as a nation toward learning languages other than English. Whereas approximately 20% of U.S. students are enrolled in language course, 92% of European students begin language learning around the age of six and frequently study more than one language other than their mother tongue (Devlin, 2018; U.S. foreign language learning lags, 2018). Moreover, in several European countries—Austria, France, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, and Norway—100% of primary and secondary school students acquire a second language, with Belgium having the lowest rate at 64% of language learners. This language-learning imperative is mainly due to the nationwide policy and a different perspective toward international relationships and human interactions.

### ***Study Abroad Programs for Linguistic and Pedagogical Competence***

In 2005, approximately 27% of all U.S. colleges did not engage students in learning opportunities abroad, which could contribute to post-secondary students' limited awareness of other countries and parts of the world (Stearns, 2008). On the positive side, international study programs have grown both in terms of number and purpose and many educational organizations and institutions consider international experience of the U.S. students a "cornerstone for the global competency of American citizens" (Stearns, 2008, p. 67). Unfortunately, the growth of these learning opportunities has not been equitable because only 4% of students with majors in different subfields of education engaged in study abroad. These statistics demonstrates that the U.S. lags behind other parts of the world in language learning (Devlin, 2018). Finally, in December 2019, the U.S. Senate and House of Representatives have called to action by

encouraging global learning experiences for students and educators through a variety of programs (Tessitore, n.d.; AMACAD, 2020) after a long period of neglect towards the needs of language educators to increase genuine linguistic immersion and multicultural awareness.

### ***Inequitable Treatment toward Language Education***

Genuine linguistic immersion and multicultural awareness are crucial factors for language educators in order to improve self-efficacy beliefs and teacher efficacy needed to educate young generations (Stearns, 2008). The deficiency in immersive learning opportunities may carry a particularly negative effect for language educators because of the relationships of self-efficacy beliefs to linguistic competence, which can receive a strong positive effect from professional learning in a country where the target language is spoken (Driscoll et al., 2014). Thus, the literature review underscores the lack of equity in treatment of language education in comparison to other subject domains (Wenner & Campbell, 2017).

### ***Funding Constraints***

In addition to the drop in language course offering, a low student enrollment in language courses, and inequitable distribution of attention to the needs of language educators, the allotment to language education funding has experienced financial challenges. The combined governmental funding for the Foreign Language and Area Studies Fellowships, the Fulbright Hays Program, National Resource Centers, and Title VI has dropped by more than 40% (MLA, 2019). The lack of funding could have contributed to a stable teacher shortage in the field of languages other than English (Swanson, 2012; Swanson & Huff; 2018; Swanson & Mason, 2018).

### *Teacher Shortage*

The nationwide shortage of teachers of languages other than English has been a persistent reality for the past several decades (Swanson, 2012; Swanson & Huff; 2018; Swanson & Mason, 2018). Swanson (2012) indicated that the main reasons for attrition of language teachers were an inadequate level of self-efficacy beliefs in relation to their ability to provide proper instruction in the culture-oriented language goal as well as a low level of confidence in the classroom management skills and ability to resolve behavioral issues. Swanson and Huff (2019) reiterated the relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and language teacher attrition by confirming the insufficiency of linguistic competence for the successful language instruction. To sustain and grow language teacher beliefs in their ability to engage students effectively in learning tasks, they would benefit from continuing education and support as well as participation in the programs with linguistic and cultural immersion. In fact, Swanson and Huff (2019) have designed a self-efficacy scale specifically for educators of languages other than English and validated it by using simultaneously with Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Both scales revealed statistically significant relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and teacher persistence. Moreover, their findings indicated a higher sense of efficacy among male language educators than among female educators with the special emphasis on female novice teachers of Spanish. This finding is concerning due to the fact that enrollment in Spanish courses is the highest among languages other than English courses (AMACAD, 2016; MLA, 2019) and females remain the prevailing majority among the U.S. teachers (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2018a).

Thirty-two U.S. states have reported short teacher supply in bilingual and dual-language teachers as well as educators of English as a second language ([ESL], U.S. Department of

Education, 2017). The statistics seems logical given that the prevailing majority of educators in the nation are White and speakers of English-only (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2018b). Recently, only one in eight educators in the preK-12 education system reported speaking a language other than English at home (Williams et al., 2016). Certain U.S. states have experienced a higher shortage than other regions due to the demographic descriptors of their student populations (Mitchell, 2016). Thus, Texas has reported a high demand for bilingual teachers because approximately 40% of the population associates with Hispanic or Latino ethnic group (Mitchell, 2016; U.S. Census Bureau, 2019). In effort to respond to the demand for bilingual educators, the U.S. has adopted the strategy of hiring teachers from abroad—Puerto Rico, Mexico, Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, and Spain, among others—and offering them a plan for obtaining the required qualifications to serve the school districts (Mitchell, 2016). This strategic plan could involve financial and migratory sponsorship to comply with the state requirements for language proficiency—English and a language other than English—and education certification requirements during an established period (Texas Education Agency, 2019a; Texas Teachers of Tomorrow, 2019). The path has not been ideal, though, because teachers who come from abroad may experience challenges when trying to perform their responsibilities. These hardships concern the level of English language proficiency and sociocultural factors associated with moving to a different country (Lee, 2015). These factors include classroom management issues and conflicts with students' parents and families due to different cultural perspectives and the insufficient understanding of the mainstream culture in the United States. Lee (2015) has suggested that internationally educated teachers who come to work in the U.S. schools would benefit from mutually respectful mentoring from colleagues and leaders who understand their sociocultural discomfort and linguistic difficulties.

A recent approach to growing nation's own pathways to multilingual educators has received attention of the school districts and the education policy (Garcia et al., 2019). By investing in local human capital, educational institutions could provide professional pathways for its paraprofessionals through improved education and gain in skills and work experience (Morrison & Lightner, 2017). This approach could be particularly promising for languages other than English education when considering that 20% of paraprofessional, such as teaching assistants, are bilingual due to the need to provide adequate customer service to the school stakeholders (Williams et al., 2016). They may already possess a degree of linguistic and cultural competencies in addition to an appropriate level of pedagogical experience for an entrance level teacher of languages other than English. According to Williams et al. (2016), their primary function in schools is to serve as linguistic and cultural liaisons between students, teachers, and families through the direct and targeted support of instructional processes in multilingual classrooms. Consequently, their professional skills set may already respond to the prerequisite of the critical knowledge and skills needed to serve language learners. They would benefit from a quality continuing formal teacher education and professional support of their multilingual colleagues and teacher leaders to formalize the preparation for teaching assignments and completion of the certification requirements.

The pathway to professionalization of bilingual paraprofessionals may be a response to the language teacher supply deficit but, as Amos (2013) reported, there are genuine barriers to its fulfillment. The barriers include the lack of formal academic preparation of teaching assistants and micro aggression toward racial and ethnic minorities in educator preparation programs due to sociocultural stereotypes (Amos, 2013). These obstacles reflect both sociocultural extrinsic



and cognitive intrinsic characteristics of the paraprofessionals and, consequently, may have effect on their beliefs in agentive abilities to achieve professional goals.

### ***Commission on Language Learning as Call for Action***

A bipartisan group of members of the U.S. Congress has requested that the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (AMACAD, 2020) created the Commission on Language Learning in attempt to draw attention to critical needs of language education in connection to the goals for economic growth, improved cultural diplomacy, the effective input, throughput, and output of the national human, cultural, and social capital. In December 2019, the President Donald Trump signed the 2020 National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA). Importantly, the World Language Advancement and Readiness Act became the first federal legislation to address the needs of language education in more than a decade (AMACAD, 2020) and resulted from findings on the current state of affairs of language education. The Act advocates for raising awareness about the significance of language learning and education for the benefit of the national economic well-being, security, and international relationships through the equitable allotments of financial and human resources (Committee for Economic Development, 2006). These goals are in ideal alignment with the five “C” goal areas of the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (The National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015) and support the urgent need for educators who perceive themselves as capable of achieving the forthcoming governmental expectations through their teacher leadership dispositions and behaviors.

### *Language Education within a Broad Education System*

The current situation in language education and its attributed value within a broader education system align with the placement of courses of languages other than English on the tier of academic importance. There is no animosity with regard to the language education requirement for high school graduation among the 50 U.S. states. First, languages other than English courses are competence-based (Education Commission of the States, 2019) and, therefore, not necessarily included in the 50-states comparison. Second, this domain is not part of the common core group of subject matters (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2020), such as English language arts and mathematics, and, consequently, has not been given the priority by the states. As a parenthesis, empirical evidence has demonstrated that languages other than English education supports literacy in the mother tongue or, at least, produces no unfavorable effect on language and literacy of the first language (Ganuza & Hedman, 2019; Palmer, 2018; Zhang, 2016), even in children with special needs, such as the Down Syndrome (Burgoyne et al., 2016). Additionally, students in multilingual classes have shown to developed translanguageing skills (fluid movements between languages in communicative tasks) as well as abilities to write and translate in multiple languages by the time they are in the second grade (Rowe, 2018).

Given a degree of independence in administrative decisions by all state education agencies, different states have adopted various options to comply with the minimum requirements for earning a high school diploma (Education Commission of the States, 2019). For example, Alabama, Georgia, Indiana, North Dakota, and Oregon provide multiple options to comply with the language learning requirements, including three units of career and technology education (CTE) courses, three courses of languages other than English, or three arts education classes. Delaware, the District of Columbia, Louisiana, Michigan, North Carolina, Oklahoma,

Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and Washington require two full credit hours of language courses or approved alternatives. California, Idaho, Illinois, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, South Carolina, and South Dakota conform to one course in languages, visual or performing arts, or other approved substitutes. In contrast, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, Connecticut, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, Ohio, Utah, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming have not documented whether language education courses are required for high school graduates to earn a diploma by not including competency-based alternatives to Carnegie unit requirement (a basic credit hour measurement in the U.S). On the other side, certain states recognize student achievements in languages other than English courses and offer different diploma types and endorsements for advanced studies, such as an endorsement in humanities for four years of language study (Education Commission of the States, 2019). As revealed by the current states of affairs in language education, the 2020 National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA) and the World Language Advancement and Readiness Act are timely and critical initiative to raise awareness of the value of language learning and the importance of investing in language instruction research and practice across the 50 states (AMACAD, 2020).

### **Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Educators of Languages Other than English**

The conceptualization of self-efficacy beliefs of educators of languages other than English—the predictor variable—for the proposed study is defined as teachers' individual beliefs in their abilities to perform teaching tasks with a precise quality in any context-bound situation (Dellinger et al., 2008). Teaching contexts of language educators incorporate such categories as individual tasks, work-group collective environments, and faculty collective settings (Dellinger,

et al., 2008). These contexts are closely connected to domain specific professional expectations and outcomes.

### ***Challenges in Language Instruction***

With advantages for language learners, this highly specialized content field in education presents educators with challenges related to achieving multilingual knowledge and skills, pedagogical proficiency, multicultural awareness, and global competence in order to provide students with quality language experience in the five “C” goal areas, according to the World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages (ACTFL, 2011; National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). To promote the five “C” goals in students on the high school level (Trojan & Kaplan, 2015) and the post-secondary level (Zapata, 2016) effectively in a way that they could demonstrate competence at the Integrated Performance Assessment (IPA) or another school-adopted language assessment on a level-appropriate performance indicator (Van Houten & Shelton, 2018), teachers ought to commit to effective practices (Zapata, 2016). Specifically, they need to expose students to the active application of the target language in the three modes of communication (interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational) with the emphasis on the interpretive mode. Teachers should communicate the pedagogical objectives, expected outcomes, and their relationship to the evaluation system with clarity and precision to ensure a low affective filter related to the fear of academic failure. They ought to commit to the growing professional knowledge and implementation of innovations in language education (Zapata, 2016).

Commitment to these dispositions and behaviors with efficacy requires an adequate level of self-efficacy beliefs for teachers in general (Leithwood et al., 2010) and particularly for language teachers whose beliefs in their ability to commit to professional tasks has shown a potential to

improve students' communicative, cultural, and interdisciplinary proficiency and global competence (Enns-Kananen, 2016).

As Miller (2019) has demonstrated in a mixed-method study, when setting personal "C" goals for achievement, students have primarily focused on Communication and Cultures but have shown a tendency to omit Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. Such goal setting orientations in students reflect educators' instructional approaches and reveal deficiencies in addressing the challenging instructional objectives. To illustrate the complexity of the instructional tasks, languages other than English instruction encompasses over 17 multimodal tasks within three modes of communication and five goals areas (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). The tasks in their schematic form include oral, written, and/or multimedia presentational tasks; authentic oral and written interpersonal assessments; and interpretative reading and listening assignments. The instruction of such multimodal outcomes demands teachers to be knowledgeable and skilled in linguistic and pedagogical competences.

With regard to preparing the teacher cadres for the task that requires such complex skills set, Cox et al. (2018) have reported on the effect of the World-Readiness Standards for Language Learning (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015) on language teacher education. Several states have introduced additional requirements for K-12 certification for pre-service languages other than English teachers: an official result of Advanced Low or Intermediate High on the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) test in the target language administered by ACTFL (ACTFL & CAEP, 2015; Colville-Hall & O'Connor, 2006; Wilbur, 2007) and a successful professional portfolio or task-based Education Teaching Performance Assessment ([edTPA], Behney, 2016). ACTFL and CAEP (2015) consider important that future language educators have received informal and formally supervised field experiences in language instruction, know instructional

approaches to language learning, and understand the current issues in language education. Teachers should also have knowledge of and ability to engage students in technology-based instruction, and have participated in the study abroad program or immersion experience in authentic sociocultural and linguistic communities.

The prior mentioned expectations of ACTFL and CAEP (2015) for language teachers may guarantee the quality teacher preparation and student outcomes; nevertheless, Heil and Berg (2017) have observed that the edTPA requirements produced controversial results despite the positive nature of its expectations. Language teacher candidates' perception of loss of individuality, lack of connection to the supervising faculty, and the time consuming factor of assessment implementation are the negative sides of the increased pre-requisites to enter the profession. In support of these perceptions, Hildebrandt and Swanson (2019) examined the dynamic between the novice teacher expectations in relation to the existing results and have raised concern for the possibility to reasonably attain the required qualifications through a post-secondary or even a graduate program in language education. Language teacher candidates have not experienced a stable success in demonstrating proficiency through certification tests, especially in oral and written discourses, due to the insufficiency of linguistic skills that they had obtained from the university courses (Russell & Davidson Devall, 2016). Glisan et al. (2013) observed that out of "2,890 tests administered from 2006 to 2012, 54.8% (n = 1,584) met the appropriate ACTFL/NCATE Oral Proficiency Standard for their language" (p. 276). Consequently, 45% of the 2,890 teacher candidates, almost half of the student teachers tested, did not meet the minimum requirement for proficiency level for certification. Given such low results for the OPI assessment and the consistent shortage of language educators across the U.S., Russell and Davidson Devall (2016), have suggested modifying language teacher university

curricula to effectively address the proficiency needs of beginner instructors (Behney, 2016; Kissau & Algozzine, 2017; Troyan & Kaplan, 2015). Also, Russell and Davidson Devall (2016) have inquired to which extent such assessments as OPI and edTPA demonstrate the true content and linguistic competence of the candidates who are heritage or native speakers of the target languages. There is still gap in the literature in this aspect of the domain-specific research due to a one-sided methodological approach through qualitative design and a low sample.

### ***Essentials of Second Language Acquisition***

Linguistic knowledge and usage is a complex and dynamic process (Hall, 2018; 2019) despite the nativist theorizations of the second half of the twentieth century about the existence of a generic language acquisition device that supports a static, self-contained, and abstract linguistic function in all humans (Chomsky, 1965). The Social Behavior Theory and the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997) underscore the essentiality of social contexts in learning and teaching. These theories are even of higher value for language acquisition and education where social environment influences activation, stimulation, developments, enhancement, and hindrance or language abilities and skills as evidenced in psycholinguistics (Ellis 2008, 2013; Ellis et al., 2020; 2019; Hofer, 2015), cognitive linguistics (Larsen-Freeman, 2018; Zuengler & Miller, 2006), neurolinguistics (Crinion, 2004; Thierry, 2016), and sociocultural linguistics (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). At the same time, these areas of study receive the support from the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Individual characteristics of social interaction, social activities, interests, background knowledge, and academic concern have an interplay in the development of the second language competence (Cekaite, 2017; Vygotsky, 1986). Therefore, the debate regarding the predominant influence of either cognitive or social aspects on language acquisition (Hall, 2018; Larsen-Freeman, 2007,

2018) has demonstrated that human mental development and, consequently, linguistic competence can be understood through interactions with other individuals in the context of culturally relevant activities (Greer, 2019; Pekarek Doehler & Berger, 2018).

Studies in structural brain imaging have demonstrated that multilingual competence alters the anatomy of the adult human brain by increasing the amount of grey matter in the language-related region (Mårtensson et al., 2012). The finding is based on prior research that has proved that acquisition of sensorimotor skills and abstract knowledge (Schuierer et al., 2004 ) alters the structure and the amount of the gray matter in task-relevant areas of the brain. This conclusion leads to believe that the same processes that accompany the acquisition of the mother tongue of monolingual persons produce an augmented effect during the second language acquisition by connecting the density in the left inferior parietal lobe of the brain to learning new words and concepts (Lee et al., 2007; Crinion et al., 2004 ). For instance, the acquisition of the Morse code alphabet, which consists of 12 letters, has increased the plasticity of the white matter in the brain and has evidenced the interrelation between language learning and grain structure (Schlaffke et al., 2017). A more current research in brain changes prompted by second language acquisition processes has confirmed the structural neuroplasticity of the brain, thus, supporting the benefits of bilingualism (Li et al., 2014). Both the gray matter density and the white matter integrity increase in children, young adults, and the elderly after a brief language training but the outcomes depend on the individuals' age, the age of language acquisition, proficiency level, language-specific characteristics, and other personal differences. The differences in language processing between monolingual and bilingual individuals are both quantitative and qualitative, which contributes to strengthening of the executive control network (Abutalebi & Rietbergen, 2014) and resistance to cognitive decline (Bialystok & Craik, 2010) in the brain of bilingual or



multilingual speakers. Accordingly, exposure to more than one language from an early age suggests an increased brain function and better cognitive outcomes (Bellander et al., 2016; Crinion et al., 2004).

Moeller and Abbott (2018) have summed up the research on several aspects of the second and third language acquisition that have created myths and have undermined human self-efficacy beliefs in the ability to acquire a language effectively. Despite a common belief in the existence of a critical period for language acquisition and a continuous decline of the linguistic ability with age, there are no theoretical evidences for such notion. To begin with, there is no specific terminus in human ability to acquire a new language or continue perfecting the mother tongue. Next, neither a deterioration in the linguistic capability nor a drastic shift in outcomes occur after a critical phase of language learning. This critical phase in learning highly depends on the situated course of upbringing and life experiences, socioeconomic affordances, and sociocultural environments people live in throughout their lives. Though the steady decline in language learning ability can be observed over age, various factors influence this decays, such as physiological, cognitive, and social. The causes may encompass the functionality of the working memory, distribution of attention, individual motivation for learning, self-efficacy beliefs, time commitment and management. Finally, the ability for acquiring a language is qualitatively similar for people of all ages, including children, young adults, adults, and the elderly. In effect, according to Pfenninger (2016), the third language acquisition becomes more accessible when the literacy skills of the second language are better developed. Furthermore, there is no distinct difference between the linguistic outcomes of students who started learning the third language with a five-year difference.

### *Linguistic Competence*

Teacher self-efficacy beliefs represent a triadic reciprocal relationship between individuals and the society (Dellinger et al., 2008). Individual internal factors (such as biological, cognitive, and affective characteristics), external environmental factors, and educators' behavioral responses to conditions at work perform an interplay that leads to the formation of self-efficacy beliefs. Educators of languages other than English in the United States, and in the chosen southeastern state represent a diverse group with widely distinct biological and cognitive characteristics due to numerous ethnic backgrounds; therefore, they illustrate the richness of cognitive skills and linguistic plasticity within this professional population (Evans, 2017; Evans & Levinson, 2009).

Language learning consists of different factors—linguistic (phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics), non-linguistic (gestures and facial expressions), and cultural factors (systems of beliefs, values, traditions, and identities)—and all of them partake in communication and social interaction between individual (Isurin et al., 2015; Lohmar, 2016; Ng, 2016). Chao et al. (2019) have shown evidence of the interrelatedness of these factors, specifically, the self-efficacy and the self-concept for language learning and the academic achievement, by using a sample of 1092 secondary students of English and Chinese. The self-efficacy and self-concept for learning the Chinese language significantly predicted students' achievements, while the English language self-efficacy and self-concept were predictors of the academic attainment for both languages, which confirms the importance of self-efficacy beliefs for the linguistic competence. Whether educators are native or non-native speakers of the target languages who instruct heritage speakers or non-speakers of these languages, they may have varied pronunciation, fluency, and lexicology due to regional, ethnic, and socio-biographical

factors (Dewaele et al., 2008; Soler-Carbonell & Potowski, 2012). Variability in pronunciation and fluency of conversational interaction among teachers and students may affect teachers' feelings toward the use of language for instructional purposes because of the effect of psychological states, mastery, and vicarious experiences of human pronunciation (Yang, 2017).

These linguistic characteristics and skills may advance or hinder self-efficacy beliefs of language teachers. Vu (2017) revealed the effect of the interplay between two linguistic and cultural identities of English teachers in Vietnam: the moral-guide identity of the sociocultural environment in the country and the code-switching identity of the everyday life setting. Their professional language teacher identity was in between the language and culture identities. This dilemma created confusion, personal conflict, and the need to negotiate the solution to an effective instructional practice. If teachers were unable to speak without unconsciously switching from one language to another, they could not effectively lead their students in proper language acquisition. Thus, teachers' perception of their linguistic competence has evidenced an effect on their perceived effectiveness in relation to student outcomes.

### **Instructional Practices, Dispositions, and Behaviors**

There is some evidence that high teacher self-efficacy beliefs could increase student outcomes with regard to motivation (Midgley et al., 1989; Mahler et al., 2018; Öqvist & Malmström, 2016, 2018), learning and achievement (Ross, 1992; Vu, 2017), and engagement (Anderson et al., 1988; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Zee et al. (2016) suggested that there was still uncertainty with regard to empirical evidence of the positive effect of teacher self-efficacy beliefs on student academic motivation and achievement and this area of self-efficacy research needed deeper consideration. On the other side, the effect of teacher self-efficacy in the practices of classroom management and quality on their well-being, job satisfaction, and

commitment have been validated (Aloe et., 2014). Educators' perceived belief in their ability to dominate teaching tasks could affect instructional processes and results, such as planning and organization (Allinder, 1995), openness to new methods and experimentation (Guskey, 1988), persistence (Coladarci, 1992; Klassen et al., 2013) and resilience in the times of adversity (Barton & Oja, 1999; Glickman & Tamashiro, 1982).

Klassen et al. (2013) established that teacher self-efficacy had a mediating role on stress related to teaching tasks and personal commitment to persist in the profession on the examples of four different countries: Canada, England, Hong Kong, and Thailand. Importantly, the authors observed that sociocultural characteristics of teaching environments could have a potentially significant effect on the relationship between these aspects. Nevertheless, the situated influence of sociocultural factors, which align with the Situated Learning Theory adopted for the proposed study (Lave & Wenger, 1991) required further research. Finally, because self-efficacy reflects individual belief in the aptitude to achieve goals and exert required behaviors for their attainment (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997), it cognitively influences teachers' motivations, behaviors, experience, time management, expected results, and leadership (Angelle & Teague, 2014; Angelle & DeHart, 2011).

### ***English as a Second/Foreign Language and Languages Other than English***

The majority of research in language education is focused on English as a second language field (Choi & Lee, 2016; Ortaçtepe & Akyel, 2015; Whitehead & Greenier, 2019; Wyatt, 2018). Research in instruction of English as a second or foreign language embraces numerous tenets in psycholinguistics, cognition, and pedagogy, including comparative cross-cultural analysis (Bae et al., 2019) and comparative analysis of self-efficacy sources and their mediating role (Shehzad et al., 2019; Zuo & Wang, 2016). The facet of self-efficacy of English

educators has also received much attention and the empirical evidence has shown important correlations between teacher self-efficacy and their proficiency (Bae et al., 2019; Choi & Lee, 2016). The literature has addressed their specific areas of needs in professional development and the value of different types of continuing professional learning—collaborating, decision-making, reflecting, and updating—as positive significant predictors of self-efficacy (Ravandpour, 2019). Additionally, the previous research in language education has addressed the positive effect of targeted professional development related to serving students with dyslexia on teacher self-efficacy (Nijakowska et al., 2018). Language instruction for students with dyslexia offers an additional challenge considering that it requires effective strategies to address factors that could affect linguistic development (Mobinizad, 2018). Given that the language acquisition process is intricate and multifaceted and language instruction shares common goals and challenges, certain aspect of English as a second language education can transfer into languages other than English education.

### ***Interdependency of Pedagogical and Linguistic Competence and Self-Efficacy Beliefs***

Learners expect an effective English as a second language teacher to possess high linguistic competence (Braine, 2010; Llurda, 200). This perception could align with the expectation for teachers of languages other than English to hold a high linguistic competence in target languages (Ellis, 2012; Ellis et al., 2020; 2019). Linguistic incompetence could cause natural threats to teachers' professionalism and employment (Chen & Goh, 2011). Because languages are both the content and the means of the educational process, their value cannot be overrated. They serve as a route for acquiring understanding, knowledge, and skills and, simultaneously, represent the knowledge and skills themselves. Nevertheless, linguistic

competence alone in at least two languages—English and the target classroom language—is not enough for a successful development in this professional domain (Faez, 2011).

Choi and Lee (2016) have established that effective language teachers should hold the minimum threshold level of the pedagogical competence to know and apply methodologies appropriate for the acquisition of each specific language. High linguistic competence with a low pedagogical competence could pose a threat to educators' ability to present and explain concepts and guide students toward proficient practice. Language teachers should increase both competences unceasingly to remain relevant in their profession. To involve in this process, they should possess a minimum level of self-efficacy beliefs that provide them with the agentive power to seek opportunities for improvement voluntarily and deliberately. Given the dynamic and sociocultural nature of languages and pedagogy (Lantolf & Zhang, 2017; Llurda, 2005), there is no maximum level of professional development and self-efficacy that language teachers can achieve in order to stay current and without threat to losing their proficiency (Choi & Lee, 2016). On the contrary, the higher the linguistic and the pedagogical competence of educators, the higher their self-efficacy beliefs, and vice versa. In other words, there is an empirical evidence that linguistic and pedagogical competences of language teachers are interdependent with their self-efficacy beliefs and should undergo continuous development for as long as teachers practice their profession (Choi & Lee, 2016).

Professional development within an in-service format has attested to benefit educators of English as a second language in terms of practice in communicative language teaching and raised their self-beliefs of efficacy (Ortaçtepe & Akyel, 2015). If language and pedagogical competence are interdependent with self-efficacy beliefs with a minimum but no maximum thresholds and teachers should engage in conscious and purposeful opportunities for development and growth

(Trojan et al., 2019), then there is a strong basis to believe that language teachers need to expand their agentic dispositions and behavior (Allen, 2019). Still, there is no empirical evidence that educators of languages other than English demonstrate higher leadership behaviors as an effect of higher self-efficacy beliefs, which are a compulsory condition of their professional effectiveness (Choi & Lee, 2016).

### **Teacher Age, Years of Experience, and Teacher Leadership**

Research on leadership may include various demographic characteristics, such as the attribute of age, gender, education, and years of professional experience. These leadership inquiries focus on two primary perspectives: (a) self-assessment of leadership styles and perceptions and (b) followers' assessment of leaders' styles (Barbuto et al., 2007; Green et al., 2011; Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014) and decision-making approaches (Uzonwanne, 2016). Additionally, prior research has focused on the impact of teacher attributes and characteristics on personal perceptions of leaders and leadership construct (Chien, 2020) and their teacher effectiveness (Faez, & Valeo, 2012; Podolsky et al., 2019) as well as learner's perceptions of language teacher leadership (Whitehead & Greenier, 2019).

A large body of teacher leadership inquiry that regards the attributes of age and teaching experience in the language domain belongs to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) as opposed to the domain of Language Other than English (LOTE). For example, Chien (2020) utilized the background characteristics of teacher age and years of experience as sub-factors in a mixed-methods study with 10 participants who were Taiwanese elementary school English teachers' to glean their perceptions of teacher leaders and leadership. They discovered that both the educators' age and the years of credited service had strong associations with their knowledge and skills in leadership as well as influenced their perceptions of the value

of mentoring and ability to mentor novice teachers. Moreover, years of experience had a positive effect on the perception of the proper balance between teaching and leading roles. The ability to balance educational roles is essential for the construct of informal leadership (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007; Angelle & DeHart, 2010, 2011; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2011) where teachers participate in decision-making and share their expertise with colleagues along with a full array of classroom assignments and responsibilities for instructional planning, delivery, and evaluation of student learning (Texas Education Code, 2016).

Podolsky et al. (2019) conducted the review of literature of 30 studies that utilized the variable of teacher experience and concluded that it had positive effect on teacher effectiveness and student outcomes in the course of the major part of educational career. Teaching experience was likely to improve educators' effectiveness, abilities, and skills beyond increasing student test scores. Nevertheless, the authors discovered that several working conditions were essential for teacher effectiveness along with the professional experience: collegial atmosphere; cumulative teaching experience in the same grade level, subject domain, or school district; and sharing of expertise among colleagues, which is an attribute of teacher leadership.

Similarly, Faez and Valeo (2012) discovered that years of professional experience increased the perception of preparedness for teaching assignments and situations of novice TESOL teachers. Likewise, their self-efficacy beliefs related to the ability to perform within particular educational expectations were highly associated with domain-specific. Such perspective on the value of language teaching experience aligns with the Situated Learning Theory and the Sociocultural Learning Theory developed by Lave and Wenger (1991). Practical workshops, student teaching, and classroom experiences have shown to carry a positive influence



on teachers and teacher preparation programs in the domain of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).

Whitehead and Greenier (2019) conducted a qualitative research to identify learners' perspectives on language teacher leadership without utilizing the demographic characteristics of age and years of credited service directly. Contrarily, these attributes emerged indirectly in the process of theme development. Because the study focused on the leadership perspectives of language students and teachers in Korea, they revealed cultural coloration of their conceptualizations. For instance, the perspective of leadership in general connected to Confucian values that intrinsically relate leadership to the concepts of age, status, and position (Lee, 2001). Curiously, similar notions characterize the Saudi Arabian perspectives of teacher leadership (Shah, 2020). Nevertheless, Whitehead and Greenier (2019) underscored that the understanding of language teacher leadership for leaders in Korea was heavily situational (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and refocused from the ranked leadership tied to formal authority to leadership revealed through particular qualities and characteristics (Greenier & Whitehead, 2016).

The most important characteristics of language teacher leaders transcended the traditional ideas of leadership and were identified as "passion, rapport, purpose, and balance and flexibility" (Whitehead & Greenier, 2019, p. 12), thus demonstrating the value of cultural idiosyncrasies of the educational context of language learning. Students revealed that language educators were role models in various aspects, including language acquisition, study and learning practices, motivation for second language learning, communicative, and multicultural awareness and global competence. Thus, language educators' ability to promote learners' interpersonal and intellectual abilities and skills through building of relationships as opposed to mere effective completion of instructional objectives and tasks is a better understanding of language teacher leadership.

Such leadership characteristics of language teachers as passion for language learning and instruction, positive rapport with students, purposeful pedagogic and interpersonal practices, and balance and flexibility within instruction (Whitehead & Greenier, 2019) may proceed from natural human qualities or may develop in the course of life and professional experiences in the language-specific domain. The research supports that educators' knowledge, skills, classroom procedures, as well as problem-solving and decision-making abilities change as a result of professional experiences (Palmer et al., 2005). Given that problem solving and decision making are essential characteristics of teacher leadership behavior (Angelle & DeHart, 2010), teaching experience may play an important role in teacher perceived leadership at different stages of their career. Both the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977; 1997) support the need to look deeper into the predictive effect of years of credited service on teacher leadership. The Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) supports the contextual nature of professional experiences and the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977; 1997) enforces that mastery experiences are an influential source of professional learning and have an effect on teachers' content knowledge, pedagogical attitudes and behaviors (Wolters & Daugherty, 2007).

According to Wolff et al. (2016), teachers' visual expertise—the capability to concurrently perceive, assess, and deduce conclusions from classroom events to manage classroom effectively—is a complex in nature and an invaluable professional skill. Teachers' awareness of classroom situations has shown to be a skill that educators develop within the context of their classrooms and over time. Additionally, novice teachers and experienced teachers revealed distinct sources of situational assessment through eye-tracking measurements and verbal-think aloud. While educators at the beginning of their professional career observed

classroom areas in a fragmented way and assessed issues through an image-driven perspective, experienced teachers monitored classrooms more thoroughly and assessed problems from the knowledge-driven standpoint by referring to reasoning, discernment, and context at a higher rate.

As a result of literature review, it is evident that the implementation of the demographic characteristics of teacher age and years of experience in leadership inquiry in the context of languages other than English is limited. Additionally, the results are inconclusive regarding the perception of language teacher age and experience in association with their teacher leadership development. Therefore, the current study employs age and years of experience in the scenario of teacher self-assessment of the perceived leadership dispositions and behaviors in place of formal leaders' self-assessment of their leadership styles or learners' perceptions of leadership in order to understand the effect that these demographic characteristics may have on language teacher leaders themselves.

### **Teacher Leadership of Educators of Languages Other than English**

The qualities of teachers of languages other than English indicate the need for new sources of leadership development to increase advocacy for language education, improve professional practice, and provide students with multimodal knowledge and skills to achieve the five “C” goals of language learning (Dimmock, 2019; National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015). For this purpose, the construct of teacher leadership—the criterion variable—is defined in terms of how teacher leadership is lived in the individual educational context (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). These individual educational contexts may embrace a wide range of situations where language teachers may have to demonstrate the dispositions and behaviors associated with being educational role models, decision makers, visionaries, supra-practitioners, and positional designees as defined by the formal leadership (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007).

The Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991), developed from Vygotsky's Sociocultural Learning Theory (Kozulin, 2003; Vygotskii & Cole, 1978) that explains the nature of language and learning, was not designed to support teacher leadership concept directly. Nevertheless, the notion that teachers' language expertise, professional learning, ideas, and actions are adapted to their individual environments and exert from what they observe, learn, and engage in while situated in their roles (Lave & Wenger, 1991) supports the attributed nature of the situated teacher leadership. Importantly, teacher leadership features the individual, group, and societal levels of learning and teacher agency.

### ***Institutional Structure and Authority among Language Educators***

The traditional organizational structure of the U.S. schools has been hierarchical, top-down arrangement and has assumed the presence of a head principal who is the main administrator of all organizational, instructional, and financial affairs (Waters, 2012). Depending on the size of schools, there may be one or more associate and/or assistant principals who support the head administrator with all or particular areas of school management. Teachers have traditionally divided into interdisciplinary grade teams or content-based teams. The grade level groups, also called interdisciplinary teams, where teachers from several content areas share students and interact along the lines of the established schedules and curricula (Ellerbrock et al., 2018), are believed to be highly effective in working with children of different ages but, especially, with young adolescents (Lounsbury, 2010). The content-based departments where educators who cater to students from various grades interact based on common field of study are very common on the secondary school level (Waters, 2012). The departments are usually segregated and represent mini-cultures where each member may contribute various forms of capital, such as economic, social, cultural and symbolic to the overall richness of the

departmental human resources (Thatcher, 2016; 2015), which may or may not transfer to the overall institutional culture of the school community (Waters, 2012). In this organizational scenario, chairs of the subject-based departments serve as liaisons between the main leadership and the teachers and form the middle tier of the structure.

Nevertheless, at the beginning of the 21st century, the dynamic of language education policy and leadership has started to shift from the traditional top-down perspective to a bottom structure (Ascenzi-Moreno et al., 2016). The role of human agency has allowed multi-level school stakeholders—principals, teachers, parents, students, and other community members—to contribute to the understanding, the interpretation, the negotiation, and the appropriate implementation of language policies (Menken & Garcia, 2010). McCarty (2015) supports that language policymaking, interpretation, and implementation is a situated sociocultural process, which encompasses a variety of attitudes, perspectives, practices, and formal and informal approaches that guide people's linguistic choices on deep personal levels. Therefore, the hierarchical organizational environment cannot produce sole effective outcomes in decision making related to language policy and leadership due to the flexible, live, and manifold nature of the subject matter.

The concept of figured worlds combines natural teaching environment with cultural and historical identities of teachers (Holland et al., 1998) and enriches the interpretation of capitals by emphasizing individual educators' meaning-making, lived experiences, and agency in their work (Choudry & Williams, 2017). A figured world is a socially and culturally constructed manner of interpretation where individuals are characters and performers, their actions have attributed significance, and specific outcomes have a higher value than others (Holland et al., 1998). Identities, practices, and responses to curriculum standards, professional advance, and

accountability measures of teachers of languages other than English are, therefore, important in consideration of their value and their contributions to schools, students, and outcomes (Buchanan, 2015).

### ***The Effect of School Leadership on Language Education***

As the main decision-making organism, school leadership has a strong impact on the quality of implementation of language instruction in schools. As Sullival (2004) suggested, when using professional portfolios to evaluate candidates for language educators' positions, individuals in formal leadership positions—principals and department chairs—spent little time on studying the portfolios and mainly focused on particular instructional aspects. Principals, who do not routinely engage in language education or direct instructional interaction with students, were primarily concerned with the state standards that related to innovative approaches to teaching and candidates' ability to communicate with families. In contrast, languages other than English department chairs, who hold the linguistic competence and understanding of the instructional and learning process, emphasized the candidates' target language proficiency as a decisive factor for hiring. Such difference in attributed importance of various aspects of the professional portfolio might indicate principals' unawareness of the essentiality of linguistic competence to language educators.

In support of the value of language proficiency for school leadership and the need to nurture leadership among multilingual educators, Rocque et al. (2016) have capitalized on principals' perspective on the utility of language skills in two-way and one-way dual immersion programs. Principals in such schools have recognized that the ability to speak their schools' target languages increased their effectiveness in communication with families and employees. In addition, bilingualism allowed them to be deeper involved in the specific aspects of dual

immersion curriculum, instruction, and assessment as well as informed their ability to advocate for dual-language programs by championing their theoretical validity and practical application through constant professional learning and self-actualization.

Furthermore, Gilmetdinova (2019) has underscored the role of leadership, school principals, in particular, as “gatekeepers of language policy implementation” (p. 120) on the example of Kazan, the capital of Tatarstan, Russia. The sovereign republic of Tatarstan is a home for numerous ethnic groups, the largest of which are Tatars, Russians, Chuvashs, Udmurts, Mordovs, Mariys, Ukrainians, and Bashkirs (Gilmetdinova, 2019). The representatives of all ethnicities may maintain, to a unique degree, their national, historical, cultural, and family lingos and, simultaneously, use the Russian and the Tatar, or Turkic, languages as official languages of their republic. Though language educators are the direct language policy negotiators (Menken & Garcia, 2010), they do not possess the same political, economic, and social power as legislators to influence the change in policy (Gilmetdinova, 2019). Therefore, school administrators occupy a central middle-point position between teachers and policymakers to advocate for multilingual programs in schools as well understand and implement them in the best interest of language teaching and learning (Menken & Solorza, 2014).

Through a study with a qualitative design, Menken and Solorza (2014) have discovered relationship between the elimination of bilingual programs in schools and principals’ multilingual capacity and multicultural competence. Principals with limited understanding of the bilingual program goals, curricula, and benefits as well as little appreciation for language education and multilingual diversity tended to use their authority to eliminate bilingual programs. Conversely, administrators who through knowledge, skills, and appreciation for language education advocated for linguistically diverse educational opportunities for students

tended to preserve bilingual programs. Similarly, Gilmetdinova (2019) has reported that leaders' personal and professional beliefs and attitudes toward the value of language education, which stem largely from their linguistic and cultural awareness, are crucial for sustaining successful language learning programs. Consequently, schools would benefit from leaders with such attributes and educators of languages other than English already possess the required characteristics, which makes them suitable candidates for responding to the needs of the society by assuming more leadership roles and responsibilities.

Ascenzi-Moreno et al. (2016) support the previous findings by suggesting that school leaders who have developed understanding of the content, practices, and benefits of bilingual programs through an educational project aimed at raising their awareness felt better equipped to advocate for multilingual education. They have recognized their role as catalysts of policy change and attempted to shift the linguistic paradigm of their schools. Additionally, the change was related to the shift in the leadership pattern within the institutional structure from hierarchical to distributed, recognizing the professional expertise of educators and widening leadership responsibilities to teachers, thus emphasizing the value of teacher leadership in the collaborative model of school administration. The proposed study offers to support and advance the area of language teacher leadership and its development by observing the predictive effect on their self-efficacy beliefs.

### ***Professional Motivations of Language Educators***

The process of linguistic and pedagogical knowledge and skill attainment as well as leadership enactment do not occur in isolation in teacher classrooms but via individual, social, and cultural interactions (Bandura, 1997; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Similarly, collegial relationships foster learning and the development of leadership traits and practices as well as



improve leadership behaviors through interactions within local learning communities and larger sociocultural groups (Derue et al., 2011; Margolis & Doring, 2012; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Individuals, who are intrinsically motivated to increase their knowledge and skills for the benefit of becoming better educators and, thus, serve as role models to their students and colleagues, demonstrate the agentic beliefs in their ability to achieve higher proficiency and respond to the challenging stimuli of their field with the leadership perspective. Nevertheless, the professional motivations of language educators are not equal to other educational areas. Kissau et al. (2019a) have underscored the intrinsic nature of the motivations of language educators and a strong influence of the love of languages, which is a unique factor in drawing teachers to the profession. Additionally, they have emphasized the strength of the motivation facilitated by the perceived ability to contribute to the shaping of the future generations through perceived pedagogic capacity and prior professional educational experiences, which are closely related to self-efficacy beliefs. Though teachers in general do not perceive that teachers' salary and status have a strong relationship to their professional commitments, potential language educators—linguists or language specialist—may perceive these factors as deterring from the teaching profession and aspiration to grow within this career. Language educators identify inadequate working conditions, low teacher status, and licensure requirements as dissuading, thus, contributing to the language teacher shortage (Swanson, 2012; Swanson & Huff, 2019; Swanson & Mason, 2018).

The love of languages is a strong motivation for potential language teachers to engage with the profession (Kissau, Davin, & Wang, 2019a). However, this motivation is insufficient for professionalization and career growth in the face of challenging certification requirements. ACTFL has established the standard of Advanced Low or higher in Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) to comply with licensure requirement in more commonly taught languages (Spanish,

French, and German) and Intermediate High for less commonly taught languages (Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean) and less than a half of the candidates have achieved the expected result (Glisan et al., 2013). Kissau et al. (2019b) have observed whether professional motivation of the candidates could be supported through interdepartmental collaboration between education, language, and literature university faculty to increase potential language educators' oral communication skills needed to succeed at OPI. The results have supported that an online, competence-based cross-departmental course could augment the oral proficiency of 8 out of 15 (53%) nonnative speakers of Spanish but helped only two (13%) aspiring K-12 teachers to achieve the required standard. Such result is not surprising given the complex and dynamic nature and the process of the second language acquisition. The result has confirmed the need for interdepartmental collaborative efforts supporting the professional aspirations of future language educators and further research in language education and teacher leadership to advance such collective initiatives.

### ***Factors of Teacher Leadership***

The shift in the dynamic of language education policy and leadership from the top-down to a bottom structure perspective (Ascenzi-Moreno et al., 2016), the role of school leaders as caretakers of language policy implementation (Gilmetdinova, 2019), and the motivating and deterring factors in the development of professional language educators (Kissaubet al., 2019a, 2019b) have indicated the need for attention toward factors of language teacher leadership development. Crawford and Kelder (2019) have stated that leaders operate on multiple levels: individual, group, organizational, and societal. Zaccaro and Horn (2003) have emphasized the need to approach leadership from the perspective of a symbiosis between theory and practice in leader's natural wholesome environment. They suggest that leaders should address real problems

through the lens of theories that constructively develop an understanding of the underlying issues and by applying tools that facilitate the emergence of practical interventions in response to these issues. The essence of teacher leadership in language education understands the existence of real problems and the continuous acquisition of knowledge in relevant theories while educators utilize and engage in both the intrinsic and the extrinsic aspects of their personal capital and professional practice. The intrinsic factors include (a) personal traits (Loder & Spillane, 2006; Sinha & Hanuscin, 2017); (b) subject-specific expertise (Childs-Bowen, Moller, & Scrivner, 2000; Odell, 1997; Snell & Swanson, 2000; Swanson, 2012); and (c) dispositions for leading within and outside the classroom (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001, 2009; Moller, 2006). The extrinsic factors embrace (a) collegial collaboration and distributed leadership (Harris, 2003; Harris & Jones, 2010; Spillane, Shirrell, & Sweet, 2017; Szczesiul & Huizenga, 2015); (b) creative and digital approaches to teaching, learning, and professional development (Dimmock, 2016; Harris, Jones, & Baba, 2013; Hickey & Harris, 2018); (c) and decision-making contributions for change through continuous and collaborative learning within various institutional levels (Nguyen, & Hunter, 2018; Palmer, 2018; Pankake, & Abrego, 2017; York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

**Sharing Expertise.** Katzenmeyer and Moller (2011, p. 6) identified teacher leaders as those 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”. The instructional position of a teacher clearly indicates the responsibility to provide learning conditions that lead to achieving the prior established goals with the implications of the need for adjustment and mastery. To provide such conditions, teachers may not necessary utilize only personal

intellectual, emotional, physical, and material resources but rely on the expertise and support of colleagues and formal school leadership. It is clear from Katzenmeyer and Moller's (2011) vision of teacher leadership that learning experiences and instruction that lead to effective outcomes should not be limited to what happens inside the classroom but should bridge across the classroom space, time, and resources by connecting with other educators, leaders, and school community stakeholders.

Angelle and DeHart (2011) have observed that teacher leadership is best viewed in relation to the contextual conditions of each individual school and not defined by singular roles with specific lists of tasks. They argue that the perceptions of teacher leadership differ depending on the grade level the educators teach, their degree of formal studies, years of professional experience, and whether they hold a formal leadership position in school. Similarly, Woodhouse and Pedder (2017) have revealed various perceptions and development of leadership among novice teachers in varying school settings. These professional factors and experiences stress that educators with various areas and levels of expertise hold different perceptions of leadership.

Allen (2018) has capitalized on the fact that the state of Iowa has approached teacher leadership with urgency and resolve by establishing the Teacher Leadership and Compensation (TLC) System in the 2014–2015 academic year. The primary goals of the TLC System are to recruit and support quality teacher cadres by creating meaningful teacher leadership roles and positions with supplemental salary and targeted continuing professional education. Because of such progressing and proactive initiative, all Iowa school districts offer teacher leadership programs, and one out of every four educators holds a defined and remunerated leadership role. This new school culture of intentional teacher leadership comprehends the importance of nurturing and sharing educator expertise and agency along with the initiative to grow and to

contribute to the professional development of colleagues. The TLC System has supported teacher education programs for preservice teachers by advancing their agency through nurturing a growth mindset, employing a dialogic pedagogy, and investing into the construction of teacher identity (Allen, 2018).

These initiatives align with Stein-Smith's (2020) advocacy for intentional language teacher and leader development and Berkovich's (2014b) dialogical pedagogy in authentic leadership development. Depending on the experience and expertise, the TLC System has designed a combination of leadership and teaching roles and responsibilities for model, mentor, and lead teachers whose schedules represent various ratios of time distributed between individual instructional practice and the practice of sharing expertise and leadership with student teachers, novice teachers, and colleagues through class observations and professional development (Allen, 2018). Additionally, teacher experts may serve full time as instructional coaches, curriculum leaders, and professional development leaders.

Schools are physical and sociocultural environments where language learning, acquisition, instruction, and teacher linguistic and pedagogical competence meet, evolve, and grow simultaneously. Though language as a means of communication can emerge in a natural contextual setting, linguistic proficiency and language pedagogies—practices of language education—should be cultivated and acquired (Barkhuizen, 2017). Similarly to how children acquire linguistic and sociocultural knowledge and skills with the guidance of more skilled individuals (Kozulin, 2003; Vygotskiĭ & Cole, 1978), the development of language instructional proficiency demands for quality educational activities with professional teachers of languages other than English. Expert educators have a significant effect on language teacher professional learning (Allen, 2018) through their investment into the future teacher identifies (Norton, 2016).

Teachers who share their expertise in the content area with their colleagues expand beyond the basic educational roles and become role models for educators within and beyond their schools (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Increasingly more teachers initiate, develop, facilitate, and conduct professional development activities or continuing education among teachers; thus, supplementing or replacing employees with formal leadership positions or officially designated and professional trainers (Boylan, 2018). Teachers comprehend the needs of their domain-specific learning communities, perceive situational characteristics of their environments, and know the unique idiosyncrasies of their subject professional knowledge and skills; therefore, they can identify target areas and provide the necessary local training (Boylan, 2016; Nespor, 2002). Through their content expertise, they become valuable school resources, tools, and intellectual capital (Boylan et al., 2018). Given that relatively few formal leaders come from the ethnically diverse background (USDOE, NCES, 2019) and that professional training from specialists from outside the district may be costly, schools benefit from local experts who prove advantageous from both the economic and the sociocultural perspective. Consequently, collaborative and situational context of teacher leadership among educators of languages other than English may become possible through a complex system of support, adaptability, and empowerment between formal and informal leadership (Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009; Zaccaro & Banks, 2004).

**Sharing Leadership or Communities of Practice.** The theory has previously addressed leadership development through contextual co-construction of knowledge and collaborative learning experiences with the goal to create effective communities of practice (Campbell et al., 2019; Hennebry-Leung et al., 2019; Nguyen et al., 2019; 2020; Sinnema et al., 2017; Pankake & Abrego, 2017). School administrators carry a heavy load of constantly expanding expectations

and responsibilities (Pankake & Abrego, 2017). Principals' assignments are exuberantly big for a sole person to exert. In addition, principals frequently know little about languages other than English education and local programs due to several factors. First, the distributed priorities among the subject matters put emphasis on English language arts and mathematics and do not recognize second language acquisition as a valuable support for English learning (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2020; Education Commission of the States, 2019). Second, lack of urgency to sustain and promote language learning has permeated U.S. education for decades (ACTFL, 2019). This negligence is visible through the states' minimum requirements to earn a high school diploma (Education Commission of the States, 2019). Third, the demographic descriptors (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2017; 2018b; 2019) and the variety of responsibilities (Pankake & Abrego, 2017) of formal school leaders may limit their understanding of the instructional standards, practices, processes, and expectations for this academic domain due to lack of linguistic and global awareness.

Principals, who are former teachers in particular fields of study, do not possess the knowledge and skills of every educational domain and are physically and mentally incapable of managing the entire school on their own. Therefore, Pankake and Abrego (2017) have recommended that administrators usher leading and learning in schools toward a shared leadership model through building relationships, distributing power and authority, and nurturing professional learning among teachers. They underscore the importance of stimulating, building, and supporting teacher leadership and encourage interdependence between the formal principal leadership and informal teacher leadership through shared leadership, purposeful opportunities for collaborative and collective engagement as learners and leaders. Therefore, intentional effort to redesign the educational environment into a learning community should take place to

implement structures that encourage collaboration, shared leadership, relationship building, and professional growth within the classroom and within the same school. Spillane et al. (2017) have argued for a cautious design of the physical workspaces and an attentive consideration of assignments for school staff to workspaces. The physical proximity between school stakeholders has demonstrated to have a significant effect on the development of their relationships, communication, and collaboration. Consequently, the physical organization of working environments can either foster or prevent the collaborative engagement between teachers and leaders of specific subject domains, thus, approaching them to or separating them from administrative interaction and decision making.

Campbell et al. (2019) have stressed the weakness of the theoretical foundations of teacher leadership research and have proposed the theoretical framework grounded in social learning theory, communities of practice, and teacher identity. Such framework aligns with the theoretical basis and best practices in language education (Norton, 2016) and language teacher identity and development (Barkhuizen, 2017). Norton (2016) has emphasized that language is more than a linguistic system but a social practice where identities negotiate meaning within complex social contexts and relationships through investment into future learning outcomes. Similarly, Campbell et al. (2019) have suggested to part from the perspective of a bulleted to-do list of teacher leadership and switch to a context-specific perspective where teacher leaders develop within the communities of shared expertise and leadership in particular subject domains and advance their leadership identity over time. To create the culture of shared leadership or the community of practice, principals should be willing to share leadership with educators and teachers should be willing to accept the challenge of leadership (Angelle & DeHart, 2011, 2016). The context of school leadership and relationship building ought to provide both the leadership



opportunities and the leadership engagement and design a “give-and-take relationship” (Angelle & DeHart, 2011, p. 149) between the school stakeholders.

**Supra-Practitioner.** Though the availability of leadership opportunities for teachers is essential (Campbell et al., 2019), Angelle and DeHart (2010) have stressed the importance of teacher willingness to engage in leadership opportunities when they are accessible. The factor of supra-practitioner in teacher leadership dispositions and behaviors through actions that spread beyond the basic roles and responsibilities can be revealed through teachers’ extended work schedules and tasks for the advantage of the school community as a whole or its specific members. The supra-practitioner attitudes (Angelle & DeHart, 2010) could be illustrated by four aspects of adaptive teacher leadership within school contexts that were proposed by Boylan (2018): innovator, responsive and purposeful, networker, and system worker. These aspects reflect the inherent characteristics of teachers of languages other than English and the needs for informal leadership.

Teachers who are leaders through innovation demonstrate adaptive leadership by transmitting new and creative solutions to school-related questions, situations, and issues (Boylan, 2018). This leadership behavior does not require a formal leadership role or the presence of subordinates. On the contrary, teachers can create new ideas and motivate their colleagues and students to try pioneering approaches in their teacher roles naturally and with poise. Reason and Reason (2011; 2012) have stressed that teachers should be advocates for learning by bringing their expertise into classrooms and the entire school, by being catalysts for change through revolutionary strategies, by maintaining focus on crucial aspects that promote deeper learning, and by supporting policies and authority that promote positive long-term changes. As an example, language educators who choose to join national and international

service-learning initiatives with their classes and inspire other teachers to be the observers of the process and, later, collaborators in the practice, act as innovators within their school contexts (Bettencourt, 2015).

Adaptive teacher leaders are responsive to the embedded domain-specific and general school contexts and purposeful in their response to the concerns and demands of the environment (Boylan, 2018). Intentional about the proper response to the arising needs, supra-practitioners are motivated not but the external stimuli or by the order of school administrators, but by personal and shared goals and their interdependence for the benefit of the school. As explained in the section on challenges in language instruction, courses of languages other than English adhere to the standards for learning languages (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015) but do not follow the same curriculum or instruct the equivalent content in the identical order. Therefore, supra-practitioners may choose new and expanded instructional approaches and agendas to help students who transfer between school districts within the same state or transfer to schools in different states to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills if they lag behind their peers or to advance their competence if they demonstrate higher abilities and skills than their peers.

Teacher leaders as networkers demonstrate supra-practitioner attitude by creating networks of colleagues within and beyond immediate professional environments (Boylan, 2018). In the digital age, teachers design learning environments and materials and invest in promoting effective ideas and critical information through social media, blogs, and educational websites (Carter et al., 2008). Technological instructional strategies and innovation within online communities of practice enrich the informational exchange and flow (Caldwell & Heaton, 2016). To this effect, blogging has shown to be a valid form of academic scholarship and dissemination of research and has created a benefit of a more rapid and transparent way of sharing research

methodologies, results, and implications than the traditional journal publications (Powell et al., 2012).

Finally, teacher leaders as system workers are adaptive at collaborating within the complexity of their school systems on different levels of school stakeholders (Boylan, 2018), from students and their families who come from various backgrounds as well as the school district superintendent and the school board (Banks, 2016; 2015). Teacher leadership requires adequate resources and the support of formal leaders, such as principals, community leaders, and the existing teacher leaders. Such resources as time, funding, information, and social support may be overlooked but they are essential for teacher leadership development. Though supra-practitioners possess the willingness to serve above and beyond their roles and responsibilities, their teacher leadership can be better fostered through involvement with broader systems. Besides, teachers who aspire for informal and formal leadership roles should focus on the domain and task-specific knowledge and skill while simultaneously develop core leadership competencies that align with research-based practices for leader preparation and potential licensure (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015). Educators should participate in formative experiences aimed at developing qualities and abilities to achieve goals within diverse contexts (Austin et al., 2019; Avolio, 1999; 2011), given that the decision-making in leadership carries the nature of equifinality (Morgan, 2006).

Additionally, school organizational contexts are of a major importance in the development of teacher leadership because these contexts guide the types of leadership that schools need and aim at practicing (Berkovich, 2018a, 2018b). Because the nature of leadership is situational, formal leaders should have a vision and carefully analyze contextual organizational needs of their schools in order to direct leadership development appropriately (Berkovich, 2014a;

2017). Thus, schools with high ethnic and linguistic diversity would benefit from teacher leadership that could respond to the needs of their constituents. As revealed by the factors of teacher leadership, teachers advance and practice leadership through self-improvement, sharing expertise, contribution to and learning from the communities of practice, altruistic dedication to the personal or common vision, and interaction within sociocultural contexts of their schools (Campbell et al., 2019). The proposed descriptors of teacher leadership as context-based, multi-site, both individualized and collective, responsive and responsible, and dynamically evolving align with the need for leadership of educators of languages other than English.

### **Self-Efficacy and Perceived Leadership**

Self-efficacy beliefs and teacher leadership share several unique characteristics that allow drawing parallel lines between them and observing their interaction within a content-specific domain, such as languages other than English teaching. Both constructs are not considered constant individual characteristics but can be learned and actively developed in particular contexts and in relation to specific demands (Bandura, 1997; Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Dellinger et al., 2008; Kouzes & Posner, 2017). Furthermore, both self-efficacy and perceived leadership encompass intrinsic and extrinsic factors in the continuum of their development and depend on sociocultural characteristics that may either advance or hinder their growth. Given that sociocultural aspects occupy a substantial place in languages other than English education, it is important to understand the relationship between self-efficacy of educators of languages other than English and their perceived leadership.

### ***Professional Learning***

To accomplish the labor and responsibilities of languages other than English educators effectively, teachers would benefit from high self-efficacy beliefs as well as leadership

characteristics that would foster intrinsic motivation to overcome obstacles related to burnout, lack of administrative support, and limited opportunities for professional learning (Swanson, 2012; Swanson & Huff, 2019; Swanson & Mason, 2018). Legislators pursue to advance the quality of instruction by fostering curriculum innovations and professional development but teacher engagement in such initiatives varies across schools, subject domains, and teacher positions on the tier of systemic advantage within institutions (Boylan et al., 2018). The systemic privilege can be related to the positional designee—a factor of teacher leadership that is not included in the proposed study due to its poor reliability (Angelle & DeHart, 2011)—or the proximity to the formal school administration and the likeness of being chosen to take upon school leadership roles (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007). Hoxha and Hyseni-Duraku (2017) support that teacher self-efficacy beliefs are positively correlated with the transformational leadership style of school administrators. Nevertheless, the prioritization of educational subject matters leave educators of languages other than English on the off-skirts of attention and requires that they continue their self-actualization through personal means and motivation. Language teachers frequently work without the needed financial, emotional, and instructional support, according to Acherson et al. (2016). The authors found this particularly true for rural teachers of Spanish, French, and Latin. The findings have demonstrated that language teachers in rural areas perceived lack of community and administrative support, constant need to ignite their own motivation, excessive use of emotion labor to foster student motivation, emotional burnout, and low level of efficacy. Therefore, the lack of investment in language teacher professional development and leadership opportunities contributes to emotional burnout and low perceived teacher efficacy, two interdependent factors.

Despite the lack of adequate external support from the policymakers, teachers should continuously engage in three types of professional learning to increase likeness of positive effect on student achievement: pedagogical, technical, and curriculum professional learning (Boylan & Demack, 2018). Mahler et al. (2017) have supported that professional pedagogical preparation at higher education institution, engagement in professional learning, and self-study are positive predictors of improved self-efficacy beliefs and enthusiasm for teaching the subject. Besides, self-efficacy and subject-specific enthusiasm have demonstrated positive relationship to pedagogical competence, the finding that supports that effective language teachers should hold pedagogical knowledge and skills in addition to linguistic proficiency. Though Mahler et al. (2018) have not found a significant result of the effect of teacher self-efficacy on student outcomes, they have stresses the significant effect of teacher motivation—subject specific enthusiasm and enthusiasm for teaching the subject on the example of biology teachers—on positive student outcomes.

### ***Can-Do Statements: Will “Can-Do” Become “Will-Do”?***

“Can-Do” statements (ACTFL, 2013) were developed in relationship with the World-Readiness Standards for Language Learning (National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015) to guide goal setting in language learning and identify progress in language acquisition and intercultural proficiency through proficiency benchmarks from Novice to Distinguished. They encourage teachers and students to evaluate their awareness or belief in what they know and can do with languages. This awareness directly questions both teacher and student self-efficacy in relationship to their linguistic and sociocultural competence given that they should self-evaluate their perceived abilities (Bandura, 1977; 1997). In addition, “Can-Do” statements should be adapted to specific learning contexts, which reflects their situated nature and cultural context

(Kozulin, 2003; Vygotsky, 1986, 2000). Such agentive disposition to reflect over personal beliefs in relation to specific performance indicators—steps towards achieving language proficiency—and create a plan for continual improvement seems to require visionary thinking, which is a leadership factor (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Moeller and Yu (2015) specifically recommended utilizing “Can-Do” statements to design authentic curricula and assessments that stimulate and report persistent progress in linguistic and cultural aptitudes, a behavior that requires decision-making (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007) and ever-growing expertise that could be shared with students and colleagues (Angelle & DeHard, 2011).

The use of “Can-Do” statements (ACTFL, 2013) requires decisiveness, role modeling, supplemental effort, sharing expertise, and sharing leadership (Angelle & DeHart, 2011) in order to guide learners to their potential in language acquisition and application through an infinitely large range of contextual sociocultural scenarios within and beyond the classroom (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In order to instruct students in a way that would help them set achievable goals and develop their belief in the power to utilize target languages for the purposes of specific goal areas, teachers should be skilled in instructional practices that best utilize the “Can-Do” statements (Moeller & Yu, 2016). Unfortunately, due to the lack of purposeful professional learning in the practice of using these statements to guide instruction, teachers have demonstrated insufficient and inadequate application of this practice to the reflective learning process. The authors reported that teachers felt unprepared to engage with “Can-Do” statements and did not believe that they could effectively utilize this tool. It is once again evident that professional learning could increase language teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs in ability to overcome the challenging task but it is unclear whether teachers’ self-efficacy could affect their leadership behaviors in relation to this teaching task.

### ***Professional Research***

The research has shown that educators with moderate to high self-efficacy beliefs related to the area of professional research exhibit motivation and positive views toward advancing field research (Reyes-Cruz et al., 2018). Disposition toward and involvement in professional research can be associated with the leadership factors of sharing expertise and supra-practitioner (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Still, the previous research has not addressed whether teachers' self-efficacy beliefs produce an agentive effect on their leadership.

### ***International Experience in Language Education***

The lack of literature on the effect of self-efficacy beliefs or leadership attitudes and behaviors of language teachers may carry a particularly negative effect for language educators because of the relationships of self-efficacy beliefs to linguistic competence, which can receive a strong positive effect from professional learning in the country where the target language is spoken (Driscoll et al., 2014). According to Driscoll et al. (2014), the majority of elementary school language teachers who participated in a four-week governmental project that funded bilateral study abroad exchange program between 2001 and 2011 in France, Spain, Germany and Italy had a long-term effect on their professional confidence, teacher efficacy, and leadership attitudes. The empowerment from learning and practice in the country and within the culture of the target language of their classroom fostered their critical reflection, proactive teacher behavior, and innovative problem solving. More than 50% of the participants perceived that they were capable of engaging in leadership initiative in their schools upon returning from the program and could lead their colleagues in new approaches to language instruction. In addition, approximately 50% of educators put their self-efficacy beliefs in teacher leadership in action by



creating and implementing professional learning sessions for the entire school faculty and even sharing expertise with colleagues in bordering schools.

### ***Intentional Advocacy for Language Education and Teacher Leadership***

As demonstrated in the section on the current state of affairs, despite the hard work of advocates for language learning by such organizations as ACTFL and other national organizations and researchers (Hult, 2018), language education has not received a priority as compared to English language arts, mathematics, social studies, and science (Education Commission of the States, 2019). On the other side, the domain of language education is not tied to the accountability system through state mandated annual assessments for students (New York State Education Department, 2019; Texas Education Agency, 2019c). In addition, approaches to language instruction and assessment continue to change, which may surge a shift in the pattern of organizational priority with regard to this field of education (Cox et al., 2018). Therefore, if the national and state departments of education consider accountability assessments and their intended outcomes to be a rational way to measure the economic, social, cultural, and symbolic capitals of educators as well as the value of their contribution to education, then a more intentional advocacy and higher attention to the language education nationwide could augment their level of accountability and expectations.

While the future of language education is unknown, Moeller and Abbott (2018) argue that a rich and highly proficient workforce of teaching cadres is crucially important to increase the formal authoritative power of languages other than English programs. The authors suggest that language education becomes a “new normal” (p. 21) for the U.S. education system and propose to accomplish the goal through professional development aimed at improving instruction and learning as well as the collaborative effort of researchers and practitioners. The proposed

study fits Moeller and Abbott's (2018) vision for language education because it suggests creating a cross-disciplinary study that could contribute to the literature on language education, teacher leadership, and language teacher self-efficacy, three of the critical areas needed for making language learning a new norm within the country's education system.

According to Stein-Smith (2020), advocacy for language education is an indispensable skill in the skills set of language educators, a data-driven message based on the lack of language proficiency in the American nation, and a value-driven leadership initiative informed by the benefits of linguistic and sociocultural competence for all students. While language educators see the need for constant and continuous development of the content knowledge, linguistic proficiency, and pedagogical skills, they commonly lack the methodical training in advocacy. Additionally, teachers may not attribute the advocacy dispositions and behaviors the proper role in language instruction but visualize it only as an extension of their classroom activity. Though individual teachers' perceptions of their advocacy activity may differ, language educators advocate consciously and unconsciously for language learning by the choice itself to become language instructors and in every interaction with the school stakeholders (students, parents, principals, and community leaders). All aspiring and current teachers should possess a specific skills set and an advocacy mindset to promote language education. Advocacy should be a core value of language teacher training and work by intentionally delivering the advantages of language acquisition to the growing body of students in the country by following the Lead with Languages (n.d.) initiative.

Intentional advocacy is an intrinsically motivated conduct that requires leadership within and beyond the classroom instruction and is a behavior of supra practitioners who do not seek external validation of their additional efforts (Angelle & DeHart, 2010, 2011). Advocacy is more

than dispositions and behaviors; it is an adopted value that informs what language teachers believe to be important and why and that may not necessarily be the result of their primary education but life experiences, family heritage, individual aspirations, and cultural foundation (Rai, 2020; Stein-Smith, 2020). Stein-Smith (2020) accentuates that the role of a language advocate relates to the identity and the perceived purpose of language educators: teachers may view themselves as instructors or scholars but not associate their role with advocacy and social or political action. Nevertheless, in the state of declining student enrollments, language program terminations (AMACAD, 2017), budget cuts, and constant shortage of professional cadres (MLA, 2019), language educators should respond to the call for action (Stein-Smith, 2020). They ought to adopt advocacy for language education as a core value founded in selflessness (Stein-Smith, 2020), the hope for better opportunities and increased benefits (AMACAD, 2020), and augmented global competence for all students (ACTFL 2014; 2020). Advocacy for language learning and, ultimately, biliteracy comprehends intentional influence on local, regional, state, and national education stakeholders and empowerment of all local stakeholders involved in language education in order to promote social change (Palmer, 2018). Consequently, “the adoption of intentional advocacy as a core value, a mindset, and a skills set empowers language educators to grow, not only professionally as educators, but also, through advocacy, as leaders” (Stein-Smith, 2020, p. 478).

### **Summary**

The proposed study on the predictive effect of self-efficacy beliefs, age, and years of experience of teachers of languages other than English on their teacher leadership may fill the gap in language education by examining the interdependence of these constructs. The current study proposes further understanding of the complexity of language education domain, which is

frequently underscored despite the fact that it requires a more advanced and unique set of skills in comparison to other fields of education. By inspecting the effect of self-efficacy beliefs, age, and years of teaching experience on the agentive leadership dispositions and behaviors of language teachers, the field of language education could receive timely and proper attention from the education stakeholder involved in critical decisions related to policy and funding. Awareness of the effect of teacher beliefs and their demographic characteristics could augment the development of linguistic and pedagogical competences in connection with increased opportunities to exercise leadership within and outside the classroom as teachers grow in professional experience within their school districts.

Linguistic self-efficacy beliefs and pedagogical self-efficacy are interdependent. Both the linguistic competence and the pedagogical competence are contingent on individual, social, and cultural contexts of educators' knowledge, skills, and prior experiences and have an effect on their self-efficacy beliefs. Likewise, teacher age and years of experience may contribute to the increase in knowledge and skills in general and those that particularly focus on leadership attitudes, dispositions, and behaviors. Teacher leadership is liable to contextual conditions of the language education domain in a similar manner. The proposed observation of the predictive effect of self-efficacy beliefs, age, and years of experience on the teacher leadership construct demonstrates a valuable cross disciplinary interaction in the fields of research related to linguistics and leadership, which has not been addressed by the literature. Therefore, the proposed research focus observes the new angle of interaction between the pairs of linguistic and pedagogical self-efficacy beliefs, age, and teaching experience and the agency of teacher leadership of educators whose multilingual competence is both the means and the goal of the instructional process.

The current state of affairs demonstrates decline in enrollment in languages other than English courses in K-12 and post-secondary institutions (MLA, 2019) and shortage of language educators (Swanson, 2012). The U.S. government has recognized the inability of Foreign Service officers to meet proficiency requirements and an increased demand for multilingual specialists in the areas of business, healthcare, and human services (ACTFL, 2019; AMACAD, 2019) as well as the need for skillful, innovative, technology-integrated language instruction (Golonka et al., 2014) led by knowledgeable and capable educators (AMACAD, 2019). These goals suggest the need for an improved access to language education to the U.S. residents of all ages, ethnicities, and socioeconomic statuses. Still, the intentional advocacy for language education (Stein-Smith, 2020) as a core value as well as deeper investigations into content-specific factors of teacher leadership (Wyatt, 2018) are the prerequisites of the commissioned growth of access to language learning, global competence, and linguistic and sociocultural awareness (AMACAD, 2020).

Teacher leadership is regarded as an informal form of governance as it occurs organically and spontaneously without a formal leadership role or position (Danielson, 2005). To this effect, teacher leadership is seen as voluntary behaviors of professional educators who enact initiatives for change (Swafford, 2001) focused on enhancing student learning and performance (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001, 2009). To reflect the role and the effect of teacher leadership within and beyond the classroom, it is necessary to assess leadership behaviors aimed to improve personal and collegiate practice (Moller et al., 2001; York-Barr & Duke, 2004) and to engage in decision-making in collaboration with formal leadership (Alvarez & Anderson-Ketchmark, 2011; Danielson, 2005; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Finally, the proposed conceptualization of teacher leadership requires understanding of the institutional processes and domain-specific expertise (Childs-Bowen et al., 2000; Snell & Swanson, 2000). Therefore, the proposed study can respond

to the gap in the literature in the field of language education, teacher leadership, and language teacher self-efficacy beliefs by observing the effect of teacher efficacy beliefs of languages other than English educators on their perceived leadership.

## **CHAPTER THREE: METHODS**

### **Overview**

The present study used a quantitative predictive research design to determine how accurately teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience (predictors) can predict teacher perception of teacher leadership (criterion) in a school among educators of languages other than English. The convenience sampling method was employed to identify naturally occurring participants and draw a sample of 64 teachers or more of languages other than English from various educational levels in Texas schools in order to determine if there was a linear relationship between self-efficacy beliefs, educators' age, and years of service and their perceived leadership within their school contexts and teacher tasks. The study sought to add to the body of knowledge in the cross-sectional domain of teacher self-efficacy beliefs and teacher leadership among language educators. This chapter describes the (a) research design, (b) research question, (c) hypothesis and null hypothesis, (d) participants, (e) setting, (f) instrumentation, (g) procedures, and (g) data analysis methods utilized to answer the research question.

### **Design**

A quantitative predictive correlational design was used to examine a relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of professional experience (predictors) and teacher leadership (criterion) of educators of languages other than English in school districts located within Regions 8 and 10 in the state of Texas, United States. The non-experimental predictive correlational research design is appropriate for this study due to its purpose to discover the linear relationships between pairs of continuous variables (Gall et al., 2007) that do not undergo manipulation and due to the lack of random assignment of participants to conditions (O'Dwyer & Bernauer, 2013; 2016). Predictive correlational design allows observing the

association between self-efficacy beliefs and perceived leadership and its individual factors by determining the tendency for the common variance for pairs of variables (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). The use of predictive design with multiple factors in observing relationships of teacher leadership has been validated by numerous studies. For example, Clipa and Greciuc (2018) sought to explain the relations between teachers' leadership styles and students' motivation reported through their achievement. Similarly, Raza and Sikandar (2018) used linear regression analysis to observe bivariate correlations between teacher leadership styles and student academic performance.

The first predictor variable is teacher self-efficacy beliefs, which is defined as educators' individual beliefs in their abilities to perform particular teaching tasks with a precise quality in any given situation (Dellinger et al., 2008, p. 752). A relevant example of the use of predictive design with self-efficacy beliefs was demonstrated by Babaei and Abednia (2016) who explored the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and reflective teaching practices of teachers of English as a foreign language. The second predictor variable of the study is teacher age. The variable of age is frequently used in the leadership inquiry along with other demographic characteristics, such as gender and education, in order to represent one of the two major perspectives: self-assessment of leadership styles and followers' assessment of leaders' styles (Barbuto et al., 2007; Green et al., 2011; Kotur & Anbazhagan, 2014) as well as leaders' decision-making approaches, in particular (Uzonwanne, 2016). Chien (2020) has shown evidence of the effect of teachers' age on their perceptions of leadership knowledge, leadership skills, and mentoring of new teachers through a study of the elementary English teachers in Taiwan. The current study employs age in the scenario of teacher self-assessment of the perceived leadership dispositions and behaviors in place of formal leaders' assessment or self-



assessment of their leadership styles in the context of languages other than English education.

The third predictor variable is years of teaching experience. In the current study, years of experience are recorded on a continuous scale starting from 1 and documented in one-year increments instead of ranges of experience in multiple-year increments. The rationale for such record lies in the empirical evidence stating that groupings of years of service could lead to the assumption that teachers' knowledge, skills, perceptions, beliefs, or leadership do not vary within these ranges of experience (Podolsky et al., 2019). The variable of years of teaching experience has been used in prior research, specifically, in English as a foreign language education. According to Chien (2020), Taiwanese English teachers' years of experience were, in addition to teacher age and school size, the major influence on their perceptions of teacher leadership, in particular, their knowledge and skills, mentoring of novice teachers, and in finding balance between their teacher role and leader role.

The criterion variable is the perceived teacher leadership (TL) of languages other than English (LOTE) educators and is defined in terms of how teacher leadership is lived in the individual educational context (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007; Angelle & DeHart, 2011) within four categories: (1) sharing expertise, (2) sharing leadership, (3) supra-practitioner, and (4) principal selection (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). The definition of teacher leaders is those 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" (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2011, p. 6). The concept of teacher leadership in this study is grounded in the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and includes four factors: sharing expertise, sharing leadership, supra-practitioner, and principal selection.

### Research Question

The research question for this study is:

**RQ1:** How accurately can teacher perception of teacher leadership be predicted from a linear combination of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience among educators of languages other than English?

### Hypotheses

The null hypothesis for this study is:

**H<sub>0</sub>1:** There is no significant predictive relationship between teacher perception of *teacher leadership*, as measured by the Teacher Leadership Inventory, and the linear combination of *teacher self-efficacy beliefs*, as measured by the Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self, *teacher age*, and *years of experience* among educators of languages other than English.

### Participants and Setting

This section presents the description of the population, the participants, the sampling technique, and sample size of the study. The section also includes a description of the setting.

#### Population

This multi-site quantitative predictive correlational study has examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and perceived teacher leadership among educators of languages other than English (LOTE). The study was situated within the subject domain of second language instruction; therefore, it aimed to collect a representative sample from the population of teachers of languages other than English (LOTE) through purposeful sampling (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007; Patton, 1990, 2002). Convenience sampling was employed in selection of participating languages other than English educators (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007; Angelle & DeHart, 2016). The participants were drawn from a naturally occurring convenience

sample of language teachers who are employed in Texas elementary, middle, and high schools within school districts serviced by the Education Service Centers (ESC) of Region 8 and Region 10 during the 2020-2021 academic year, in particular, the spring semester 2021.

The state of Texas encompasses 20 Education Service Centers (ESC) that serve multiple school districts (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2019b). In the 2019-2020 school year, 2,622 certified languages other than English (LOTE) teachers were employed in the state of Texas (TEA, 2019c). The researcher is employed at a school district located within the ESC 8; therefore, convenience sampling was used to contact superintendents of schools within ESC 8 and 10 about participation in the study. Additional rationales for choosing schools within these regions are due to their ethnic distribution and language program offerings. First, ethnic distribution of the student population within Regions 8 and 10 combined is similar to the ethnic distribution on the state level (TEA, 2020a). Second, the level of urbanization offers an ability to provide data from the perspective of educators who serve both in the urban and in the rural areas. Third, language program offerings within the school districts of Regions 8 and 10 combined (TEA, 2020b, 2020c) resemble language programs offered on the state level (TEA, 2020d) and include the following languages in common: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Korean, Latin, Portuguese, Spanish, and Vietnamese. The state of Texas has additional enrollment in languages that represent a smaller student population and involve Hebrew, Hindi, Braille, Turkish, and Russian (TEA, 2020d).

Though Texas school districts are independent institutions and are located in different parts of the state, their LOTE curricula are relatively consistent. They are aligned with the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills ([TEKS], TEA, 2019c) curriculum standards, adopted by the State Board of Education. These standards are employed in all Texas public schools to ensure

that students achieve comparable and compatible language-related knowledge and skills. While schools design distinctive ways of meeting their subject-specific standards, all classes meet during a period between 230 and 250 minutes per week and all teachers have at least one planning period. The planning period may or may not coincide for all educators within the department of languages other than English in each particular school; therefore, teachers may or may not have common time to meet, share, plan, and collaborate. An average class size ranges from 18 to 25 students. Additionally, all students are required to obtain a minimum of two full-year credits of any language other than English or two credits of the approved substitute courses to graduate on a foundation graduation plan (Education Commission of the States, 2019).

It is important to consider the demographic characteristics of the entire population of the state of Texas for the perspective descriptive and comparative analyses. The gender distribution is homogeneous, with 50.3% of the population being female and 49.7% being male (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019). The racial/ethnic distribution is as follows: 41.5% of the population associates with White/Caucasian alone (not Hispanic/Latino/a), 39.6% is Hispanic or Latino/a, 12.8% is Black or African American alone, 5.2% is Asian alone, 2.0% has reported Two or More Races, 1.0% is American Indian and Alaska Native alone, and 0.1% Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone. The foreign-born population by 2018 comprised 17% of the state residents. The percentage of residents five years of age and older who speak languages other than English at home comprises 35.5%. Only 29.3% of the population 25 years old and older holds a Bachelor or a graduate degree, while 83.2% hold a high school degree or higher. The demographic descriptors of the Texas state population can be found in Table 1.

**Table 1***Demographic Characteristics of the Population of Texas*

Demographic Descriptors	%
Gender	
Male	49.7
Female	50.3
Race/Ethnicity	
White/Caucasian (not Hispanic/Latino/a)	41.5
Hispanic/Latino/a	39.6
Black/African American	12.8
Asian	5.2
Two or more races	2.0
American Indian and Alaska Native	1.0
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	0.1
Foreign-Born	17.0
Languages Other than English Spoken at Home, Percent of Persons age 5 year+	35.5
Educational Level	
Bachelor Degree or Higher	29.3
High School Diploma or Higher	83.2

*Note.*  $N = 28,995,881$

**Participants**

The current study proposes three predictors: Teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience. According to Warner (2013), a sample size for the predictive correlational design is determined by the formula “ $N > 104 + k$ ” (p. 362), where  $k$  is the number of predictor variables. Hence,  $N > 104 + 3$  represent the minimum required samples size of  $N > 107$  and it should consist of 108 participants or more to achieve the statistical power of 0.80 or higher with alpha coefficient of 0.5. Nevertheless, Cohen (1992, p. 158) established that 783, 85, and 28 participants were necessary to detect a small, medium, and large effect size, respectively, at power of 0.80 and Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.05. Similarly, Cohen’s (1988, pp. 412-414) effect size parameter  $f$ , calculated based on multiple correlation coefficient  $R^2$  via power analysis, reports  $f^2 = 0.02$  as an indicator of a small effect,  $f^2 = 0.15$  as a medium effect, and  $f^2 = 0.35$  as a large effect. The accepted sample size for the study with three predictors—teacher self-

efficacy beliefs, teacher age and years of experience—to achieve small, medium, and large effect size is 652, 89, and 40 participants, respectively. A total of 14 school districts from Regions 8 and 10 contributed to the study and 64 participants completed all the required instruments successfully. Given the variety of methods of calculating the minimum required sample size, 64 participants are enough to achieve a medium effect size ( $f^2 = 0.29$ ) with the statistical power of 0.80 and alpha coefficient of 0.05.

Once the data collection was completed, the demographic descriptors of the population of language educators who had participated in the study were analyzed and presented in detail (see Table 2). Parallel lines as well as lines of distinction are drawn through comparative observations of the demographic descriptors of the population of Texas and the participating LOTE educators. Educators of languages other than English from Region 8 represented 81.25%, the majority of the total number of participants ( $n = 52$ ), while teachers from Region 10 represented 18.75% of participants ( $n = 12$ ). An identical distribution occurred in the gender of participants, reflecting the number of female ( $n = 52$ ) and male teachers ( $n = 12$ ), 81.25% and 18.75%, respectively. Conversely, the state population is almost equally distributed between the male and female residents. The variable of teacher age was categorical; therefore, the age of the sample was reported in categories representing ranges in five-year increments, such as 21-25 years and 26-30 years for the purposes of the study to observe the effect of teacher age on the perception of teacher leadership. The most frequently observed category of age was 38-42 years, representing 25% of the participants ( $n = 16$ ).

The racial/ethnic distribution of the sample was presented with the categories as follows. As expected, the predominant number of teachers was of Latino(a)/Hispanic descent ( $n = 51$ , 79.68%), which is almost twice the percentage of Texas population who identified with this

ethnic group; while the remaining ( $n = 13$ ) 20.31% reported as not Spanish, Hispanic, or Latino, relatively half of the percentage describing Texas residents. The White/Caucasian group in the study, which also included the participants who identified with the Latino(a)/Hispanic group characterized the majority of the sample ( $n = 58$ , 90.62%). The American Indian or Alaskan Native ( $n = 2$ , 3.12%), Black/African-American ( $n = 1$ , 1.56%), and participants from multiple races ( $n = 3$ , 4.69%) comprised 13.68% of teachers, which is partially similar to the state demographic, but without the representation of educators of Asian descent or Middle Eastern descent. The percentage of teachers who are foreign born in the countries where either English or a language other than English is spoken ( $n = 35$ , 54.69%) and those who were born in the United States of America ( $n = 29$ , 45.31%) was relatively closely distributed, whereas the foreign-born population of Texas comprises 17%. The majority of teachers reported to speak a language other than English at home ( $n = 44$ , 68.75%), which is almost twice the percentage of the population of Texas who speaks languages other than English at home.

The education level of languages other than English educators in the sample from the highest number of holders to the lowest was as follows: Bachelor's degree ( $n = 42$ , 66%), Master's degree ( $n = 20$ , 31.25%), and doctoral degree ( $n = 2$ , 3.12%). With regard to the credentials for professional personnel (Texas Education Code, 2016), teachers with a current valid Texas teacher certificate represented the dominating majority ( $n = 57$ , 89%). Several participants identified with a non-certified teaching permit ( $n = 6$ , 9.38%) and other form of professional credential ( $n = 1$ , 1.56%), while no teachers acknowledged holding a special assignment permit, a nonrenewable teaching permit, or an emergency teaching certificate.

The information about educators' years of experience does not encompass ranges of experience, such as the number of years of service between 1 and 5 years, 6 and 10 years, 11 and

20 years, and so on. Conversely, years of experience were recorded on a continuous scale starting from 1 and documented in ratios for each individual number of years of service to avoid an erroneous assumption that teachers' perceptions of leadership remain invariable within ranges of experience (Podolsky, 2019). The years of professional experience of the participants range between 1 and 35 years. The mean and other characteristics of the years of experience are presented in the descriptive statistics of the participants. Finally, the participants specified particular language domains and the number of different languages taught within the district programs. The majority of teachers identified with instructing in Spanish language ( $n = 63$ , 98.44%), while one teacher also taught French in addition to Spanish, one participant instructed Spanish and Music, and, finally, one educator identified with the English as a Second Language instruction. Participating educators were predominantly from schools with one language other than English ( $n = 52$ , 81.25%), while the ratio of teachers who reported that their LOTE program included more than one language was as follows: two languages ( $n = 10$ , 15.62%), three languages ( $n = 1$ , 1.56%), and seven languages ( $n = 1$ , 1.56%). The complete descriptive statistics for the demographic descriptors of language educators can be found in Table 2.



**Table 2***Descriptive Statistics for Educators of Languages Other than English Participants*

Demographic Descriptors	<i>n</i>	%
Region		
Region 8	52	81.25
Region 10	12	18.75
Gender		
Male	12	18.75
Female	52	81.25
Age		
23-27 Years	9	14.06
28-32 Years	8	12.50
33-37 Years	12	18.75
38-42 Years	16	25.00
43-47 Years	7	10.94
48-52 Years	8	12.50
53-57 Years	2	3.12
58-62 Years	2	3.12
Race		
White/Caucasian	58	90.62
Black/African American	1	1.56
Two or more races	3	4.69
American Indian and Alaska Native	2	3.12
Hispanic/Latino(a)		
Not Spanish/Hispanic/Latino(a)	13	20.31
Mexican	23	35.94
Mexican-American	12	18.75
Other Hispanic/Latino group	10	15.62
Puerto Rican	4	6.25
Cuban-American	1	1.56
Two or more Hispanic/Latino groups	1	1.56
Foreign-Born	35	54.69
Languages Other than English Spoken at Home	44	68.75
Educational Level		
Bachelor Degree	42	65.62
Master Degree	20	31.25
Doctorate Degree	2	3.12
Professional Credentials		
Current Valid Texas Teacher Certificate	58	90.63
Noncertified Teaching Permit	6	9.38
Special Assignment Permit	0	0.00
Nonrenewable Teaching Permit	0	0.00
Emergency Teaching Certificate	0	0.00
Number of languages taught in the program		

1 language	52	81.25
2 languages	10	15.62
3 languages	1	1.56
7 languages	1	1.56
Languages Taught		
Spanish	63	98.44
French	1	1.56
Spanish/ESL	1	1.56
Two or more languages	2	3.12

Note.  $N = 00$

### Instrumentation

Given the diversification of the understanding of teacher leadership and teacher self-efficacy constructs, the choice of instruments for the present study has undergone serious considerations in order to determine better fitting and consistent measurements of the articulated definitions. To ensure proper interaction between leadership theory and practice (Zaccaro & Horn, 2003) within the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997), two instruments have been deemed valid and reliable through peer-reviewed empirical research. The *Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self* (Dellinger et al., 2008) is used to measure the predictor of *teacher self-efficacy beliefs*, while the *Teacher Leadership Inventory* (Angelle & DeHart, 2010) is used to measure the criterion of *teacher leadership*.

#### Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self

The *Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self* (Dellinger et al., 2008) was used to measure the predictor of teacher self-efficacy beliefs (see Appendix A and Appendix B). The rationale for its use rests on three assumptions that guide its development: reflect the concept of self-efficacy accurately, examine efficacy beliefs of teachers in their personal teaching context, and assess meaningful teaching and learning tasks (Dellinger et al., 2008). TEBS-Self was developed in a collective effort as one of the three instruments in the system of efficacy measurement to assess

the assumptions. Dellinger et al. (2008) designed and tested an instrument to evaluate teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding "tasks that are associated with correlates of effective teaching and learning, all within the context of their own classrooms" (p. 756), which aligns well with TEBS-Self assumptions (Stephens et al., 2015).

The TEBS-Self instrument development was a three-phase process. In phase one, Dellinger et al. (2008) assessed the variability of self-efficacy rating depending on the wording of the item construction. Among three different forms, two had a traditional stem—"I am able to..." and "I can..."—and the third one had a non-traditional stem, "My belief in my ability to... is..." The administration of 15 teaching-task-related items to a sample of volunteer teachers ( $n = 434$ ) elicited less strongly correlated responses from statements with the non-traditional stem.

In phase two, Dellinger et al. (2008) created 51 meaningful teaching tasks within the learner-centered classroom observation framework of PACES (Davis, 2000; Davis, Pool, et al., 2000; Ellett, 1999; Ellett et al., 2002). The PACES domains included long-term planning, managing the learning environment, classroom climate, enhancing and enabling learning, enabling thinking, classroom-based assessment of student learning, and professional responsibilities. To ensure that teachers consider personal context-specific professional situations in the responses, the authors provided a situational stem and clear directions. In phase three, 45 expert educators from school teaching, administrative, and higher education backgrounds rated the 51 tasks in relation to their classroom importance and assessed personal self-efficacy beliefs. The final instrument was reduced to 30 statements measured on a four-point Likert scale from "Very weak belief in my capacities" to "Very strong belief in my capacities" with the responses as follows: 1 = "Very weak belief in my capacities", 2 = "Moderate belief in my capacities", 3 = "Strong belief in my capacities", and 4 = "Very strong belief in my capacities". The TEBS-Self

comprised six components: Communication/Clarification (CC), Management/Climate (MC), Accommodation of Individual Differences (AID), Motivation of Students (MS), Managing Learning Routines (MLR), and Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS). The combined possible score on the TEBS-Self ranges between 30 and 120 points where 30 points is the lowest possible score, meaning that a teacher has a very weak belief in personal abilities, and 120 points is the highest possible score, representing a very strong belief.

The TEBS-Self reliability and construct validity were assessed through three independent dissertation studies (Bobbett, 2001; Dellinger, 2001; Olivier, 2000). Instruments implemented by Bobbett (2001) and Dellinger (2001) contained four components and Olivier (2000) included five components. The principal components analyses (PCA) within the three samples explained a variance in the scores depending on the choice of components between 58.0% and 61.9%. Despite several differences, the models shared similarities regarding the items for the suggested factors. Reliability assessments were satisfactory for each subscale with a large total sample ( $n = 2373$ ) of teachers in Kindergarten through sixth grade of a southern state of the US.

All statements in the TEBS-Self began with the reminder to consider teachers' classroom experience through the stem "Right now in my present teaching situation, the strength of my personal belief in my capabilities to..." (Dellinger et al., 2008, p. 764). The first component, Communication/Clarification (CC), resulted in Cronbach's alpha reliability value of 0.86-0.87 and is represented by the item "clarify directions for learning routines..." The second component, Management/Climate (MC), had Cronbach's alpha of 0.85-0.86 and is exemplified by the item of "use allocated time for activities that maximize learning..." The Cronbach's alpha of the third component, Accommodation of Individual Differences (AID), was 0.85-0.87 and is represented by "provide a learning environment that accommodates students with special

needs....” The fourth component, Motivation of Students (MS), resulted in Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.78 and included “motivate students to perform to their fullest potential....” The fifth component, Managing Learning Routines (MLR), had a Cronbach’s alpha of .80 and included “clarify directions for learning routines....” Finally, the Cronbach’s alpha of the sixth component, Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS), had Cronbach’s alpha of 0.85-0.86 and incorporated “actively involve students in developing concepts....”

TEBS-Self instrument was previously used in several empirical research studies (Babaei & Abednia, 2016; Singh et al., 2013). The current study aims at increasing the instrument’s validity and reliability by being applied, as recommended, to a subject-specific academic context. The current study aims at administering the Teachers’ Efficacy Belief System-Self in the digital format through Survey Monkey. Dr. Amy Dellinger has given permission to administer TEBS-Self digitally in addition to altering the tasks or the contexts to fit appropriately the specific population and the sample of educators of languages other than English (see Appendix B). The instrument requires approximately 15 minutes for completion.

### **Teacher Leadership Inventory**

*The Teacher Leadership Inventory* ([TLI], Angelle & DeHart, 2010), used to measure the criterion of *teacher leadership*, was developed through a multistage process. The first, exploratory, stage of the instrument development employed a qualitative design with open-ended questions through which Angelle and Beaumont (2007) interviewed 14 administrators and 51 teachers from 11 schools in a southeastern state of the U.S. A constant comparative analysis conducted via QDA Miner software allowed to determine five themes of “teacher leadership within the social context of the school” (Angelle & DeHart, 2011, p. 148; Angelle & Teague, 2014, p. 742). The emerging themes included educational role model, decision maker, visionary,

designee, and supra-practitioner. The second stage involved the development of a 25-item survey founded on the qualitative study (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007). All items were examined by experts from three higher education institutions and later administered to a focus group of teachers and school and district administrators who were doctoral students.

The third, and final, stage of the exploratory analysis consisted of the development of the TLI instrument via two administrations. The 25-item survey was reduced by eight items after the first administration and the four-factor model was developed. The model included four factors of teacher leadership: shared expertise, shared leadership, supra-practitioner, and principal selection (Angelle & Teague, 2014). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) conducted after the second administration validated the results (Angelle & DeHart, 2010). The final version of the instrument allowed to determine the extent of teacher leadership in school. TLI resulted in 17 statements measured on a four-point Likert scale with the responses of 1 – “Never”, 2 – “Seldom”, 3 – “Sometimes”, and 4 – “Routinely” (See Appendix C and Appendix D). The combined possible score on the TLI ranges between 17 and 68 points, where 17 points is the lowest possible score, meaning that a teacher never observes a practice, and 68 points is the highest score reflecting that a teacher routinely observes a practice.

The four factors of the TLI model had the composite Cronbach’s alpha reliability value of 0.85 (Angelle & DeHart, 2010). The first factor, Sharing Expertise (SE), resulted in Cronbach’s alpha value of .85 and is represented by the item “Teachers ask one another for assistance when we have a problem with students behavior in the classroom.” The second factor, Sharing Leadership (SL), resulted in Cronbach’s alpha of 0.84 and a sample item is “Time is provided for teachers to collaborate about matters relevant to teaching and learning.” The third factor, Supra-Practitioner (SP), had Cronbach’s alpha of 0.85 and includes a sample item of “Teachers

willingly stay after school to help other teachers who need assistance.” The fourth factor, Principal Selection (PS), had Cronbach’s alpha of 0.56 and is represented by the item of “The principal consults the same small group of teachers for input on decisions.” Nevertheless, because the Cronbach’s alpha score for the factor of Principal Selection (PS) is below 0.60 and falls in the “poor” range for internal consistency, the proposed study will not include it in the analysis (Warner, 2013). Even a statistically significant result for this factor will not be considered reliable due to the poor reliability within the instrument. Therefore, only three of the four factors of Teacher Leadership Inventory will be included in the analysis.

The construct validity of the TLI, the degree to which it measures teacher leadership (Gall et al., 2007), was tested through an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Angelle & DeHart, 2010). The EFA demonstrated strong loadings and confirmed the construct validity “with a minimum loading of 0.530, a maximum loading of 0.814, and a mean loading of 0.704 for the 17 items on the TLI” (Angelle & DeHart, 2010, p. 78). The CFA was used to calculate goodness-of-fit statistics for a four-factor model and reported strong goodness-of-fit of the TLI. The *Teacher Leadership Inventory* (Angelle & DeHart, 2010) was used in several other studies concerning teacher leadership (Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Angelle & Teague, 2014; Bradley-Levine et al., 2014) and dissertations (Bass, 2019; Clark, 2016; Johnson, 2016). The current study aims at administering the Teacher Leadership Inventory in the digital format through Survey Monkey and Dr. Pamela Angelle has given permission to do so (see Appendix D). The TLI requires approximately 15 minutes for completion.

The participants were asked to complete an online demographic data questionnaire. All data, except the teacher age and years of professional experience, were be ancillary and used to

confirm teacher qualification for the study by verifying subject domains. The demographic data also included participants' sex/gender, race/ethnicity, and the highest level of education among several other characteristics.

### **Procedures**

This research study was conducted by following the further explicated procedures. The author of this study secured the approval from Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) with the anticipated commencement date in February 2021 and the finalization in May 2021. The IRB approval process involved writing and submission of documentation required to gain data collection consent from school districts in Texas within Region 8 and Region 10 Education Service Centers (ESC). After the IRB approval was received (see Appendix E), permissions to use the two survey instruments, Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self (TEBS-Self) and Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI), were obtained (see Appendices B and D) from the authors, Dr. Dellinger and Dr. Angelle, respectively. Additionally, permissions to publish both instruments were gained from the authors and Elsevier and Copyright Clearance Center (See Appendices D and P).

Through the convenience sampling method, researcher hoped to obtain a minimal sample size of 108 teachers drawn from viable questionnaires from the population of languages other than English (LOTE) educators from the school districts serviced by Region 8 and Region 10 Education Service Centers (ESC) in Texas. Online surveys offer the highest potential in combination with the most economic approach of obtaining data from participants (Dilman 2000). Therefore, Survey Monkey was used to generate a survey that would include screening questions, a demographic survey, and two main research instruments. To increase the response rate to the online survey on the Survey Monkey platform, the survey was tested by viewing it in



various browsers and electronic devices—personal computer, tablet, and Android and Apple smartphones—and by checking formatting and mechanics (Dillman et al., 2009; 2014).

Additionally, the superintendent of the researcher's school district was asked to send the invitation letter via email to the superintendents of targeted school districts (Dillman et al., 2009; 2014). Studies have shown that an email invitation sent from and endorsed by a respected leader may improve the response rate. The researcher contacted superintendents of the identified districts individually and requested permission to conduct research among LOTE educators on the elementary, middle, and high school levels. If superintendents provided permission to conduct research or redirected to the district research and assessment coordinators to complete appropriate documentation, the investigator proceeded with the required steps to attain permission. When permission to conduct study was granted, the researcher collaborated with district personnel to obtain a list of participants who could meet the criteria for participation in order to send personalized electronic invitations or coordinated the distribution of the recruitment letter with an embedded link to the survey.

The anticipated response rate was at least 49.5%. In case there was difficulty in procuring the anticipated sample upon initial contact, the researcher was ready to repeat the request until the expected number of participants was attained by following empirically proven recommendations. Archer (2007) has suggested to increase the total numbers of days a survey opportunity stayed open for potential participants and to include two reminders, one during the second week and the final one during the third week after the initial invitation. Goeritz and Crutzen (2012) supported that reminder in web-based surveys, though slightly decreased retention had a significant effect in increasing the response rate. Similarly, Weigl et al. (2019;2018;) have evidenced extraordinarily steady patterns of cumulatively increased response

rates by using the strategy of multiple reminders to participants but do recommend to further this research with the purpose to enhance response rates. So et al. (2018) have furthered research on the effectiveness of the strategy of multiple reminders in web-based data collection by testing whether the response rate varied depending on the day of the week the reminder email was sent. They observed no significant difference in the response rates of the two treatment groups who received emails either on a Tuesday or on a Friday. Finally, if the anticipated sample was not reached after two weekly reminders, the researcher would send personalized email invitations to take part in the study, as suggested through medical experimental research by Short et al. (2015). Individuals are more likely to participate in research by responding to personalized email as compared to a generic email invitation. The saturation of viable responses needed to reach the statistical power was planned for May 31, 2021. An approximate time for completion of the demographic questionnaire, the TEBS-Self survey (Dellinger et al., 2008), and the TLI (Angelle & DeHart, 2010) is 30 minutes.

By following the prior clarified plan, the researcher contacted superintendents of the 162 independent school districts within Texas Regions 8 and 10 through the superintendent of schools in the district where she serves as well as via an individualized email to obtain permission to conduct the study on their respective campuses (see Appendix F) and to disseminate an electronic cover letter inviting language teachers to participation in the study (see Appendix G). The superintendents' responses to the request varied. In two school districts, the COVID-19 pandemic caused schools to transition from an in-person instruction of languages other than English (LOTE) to a digital-based instruction through the Rosetta Stone learning platform. One district reduced its program offerings and one other ISD put the LOTE program on hold due to the post-pandemic challenges. Either those superintendents who asked to be

contacted again to consider the research request upon a full IRB approval of the study or those who dispatched an automated message requesting to contact them again after the spring break received a follow up contact. Several of the contacted superintendents issued permission to recruit their faculty without any additional process, while others issued an approval letter to conduct the study and referred the researcher to the district research committee for application, documentation, and revision. Three school districts provided hyperlinks to fill out online applications to conduct research but only one of them responded after two follow-up contacts and, two months later, issued an approval to conduct the study during the Fall semester of 2021-2022 academic year. One of the district research directors deleted the post-application follow-up email without reading it. Even though the superintendents of two other school districts were willing to support the research study and redirected the researcher to their district representatives to discuss the specifics of data collection process, these sponsors neither responded to the email communications nor replied to the voice mail in researcher's attempt to follow-up on the permission issued by the superintendents. However, one other district coordinator agreed to a Zoom meeting concerning the plan for obtaining permission to conduct research and contact participants and that video conference resulted highly positive for the study.

When schools offered permission to contact participants directly and provided lists of participants and their email addresses or hyperlinks to their official, publicly accessible, and systematically-updated human resource databases, one initial recruitment attempt and two follow-ups were made employing the same IRB approved template. In several schools, district representatives were assigned to contact potential participants; therefore, they received the required documentation—IRB stamped consent and participant recruitment letter—in order to disseminate it among the eligible faculty and communicated with the researcher regarding the

reminders to follow-up during the second and the third weeks after the initial invitation. The researcher stayed in close communication with all contacts, responded to emails from the participants requesting clarification within 24 hours, and sought to resolve misunderstandings clearly and cordially when district representatives in authority would direct her to ineligible contacts. Receipts of email delivery and reading status were requested from the recipients of email communications to ensure that all email addresses provided were correct. On three occasions, participants' email addresses provided by the district sponsors included errors, which made the email invitations undeliverable. Nevertheless, it was possible to correct the mistakes through by searching for the identified teachers on the respective school district publicly open databases and successfully resend the invitation letters. In summary, a minimum of 2200 email communications were sent during the recruitment process in attempt to obtain a minimum sample size. In conclusion, 14 school districts from Regions 8 and 10 contributed to the study and 64 participants completed all the required instruments successfully.

The protocol of the instrument administration was designed to ensure fairness and trustworthiness to the participants. Initially, teachers responded to a set of short questions in a screening survey to ensure that participants met the study inclusion and exclusion criteria. Afterward, educators from the state school districts gained access to the informed consent document with a detailed data collection process, including but not limited to specific dates and times of data collection, step-by-step process, and instructions (see Appendix H). They had two options: opt-in to participate in the study by reading the consent and proceeding to the questionnaire or opt-out of the voluntary participation. If teachers chose to proceed with the participation in the study, they obtained an electronic access to the demographic questionnaire and the two instruments. To protect the participants' rights, educators had an option to stop

responding to the surveys at any time if they chose to do so.

The procedures ensured confidentiality and anonymity of research data. The researcher retains in strict confidentiality the participants' demographic characteristics, survey scores, incidental comments, and any other information on all subjects and their data in order not to conflict with State and/or Federal laws and regulations. To ensure that data collected was anonymous, no identifying information, such as names, email addresses, ID numbers, or IP addresses was collected from the participants via the Survey Monkey (Momentive). The online survey responses included no information that could lead to subject identification. The obtained data was stored as an electronic file in a separate research-designated password-protected folder on a secure, password-secured computer. Access to data remains limited to the researcher and the supporting faculty team. Consent forms and the demographic survey did not include participants' names to guarantee anonymity. Data was analyzed using IBM© Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS©) – Windows Version 25.0.

### **Data Analysis**

The purpose of this quantitative predictive correlational study was to determine how accurately teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience (predictors) can predict teacher perception of teacher leadership (criterion) in a school among educators of languages other than English. Multiple linear regression analysis was used to analyze the data collected from the surveys. Two online surveys were employed to collect primary data. The Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self ([TEBS-Self], Dellinger et al., 2008) was used to assess domain-specific efficacy and self-efficacy beliefs. The Teacher Leadership Inventory ([TLI], Angelle & DeHart, 2010) allowed examining the scores on perceived teacher leadership. A

demographic survey served to verify the participants and provided data for the predictors of teacher age and years of teaching experience.

Data screening was conducted on the predictors and the criterion in order to detect inconsistencies and missing data (Gall et al., 2007; Kang, 2013; Warner, 2013). Missing values were treated with list wise deletion strategy through the statistical software package. Data for the participants who did not complete the demographic questionnaire and the two measures (TEBS-Self and TLI) were eliminated in preparation for further statistical analyses. Scatter Plots for each pair of variables were examined to identify potential extreme outliers. The descriptive analysis, including the mean and standard deviation, were performed to obtain the average scores for the variables and the variance between the scores of each variable. In order to obtain valid results and proceed with the linear regression analysis, the data had to pass several assumptions: (1) level of measurement; (2) independent observation or autocorrelation; (3) absence of significant bivariate outliers; (4) normality of distribution; (5) bivariate linear relationships between the continuous variables; (6) bivariate normal distribution; (7) homoscedasticity; and (8) absence of multicollinearity.

The first assumption, the level of measurement, would be tenable because two predictors—years of experience and self-efficacy beliefs—and the criterion variable of teacher leadership were continuous and the third predictor, teacher age, was a categorical variable, which is acceptable for the multiple linear regression analysis (Warner, 2013). The second assumption, independence of observations or autocorrelation, could be checked using the Durbin-Watson statistic (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2012; Durbin & Watson, 1951). Within the current study design, observations are not ordered in time and, therefore, autocorrelated errors due to correlated

observations are unlikely to happen. Consequently, the Durbin-Watson test is not relevant and there is no need to interpret the statistic for independence of observations.

The third assumption, the absence of significant bivariate outliers, will be assessed by visually examining bivariate scatter plots between the predictor variables of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs ( $x_1$ ), teacher age ( $x_2$ ), and years of experience ( $x_3$ ) and each tested factor of the criterion variable of teacher leadership ( $y$ ) as well as the overall teacher leadership score (Warner, 2013, pp. 165-166). If the scatter plots appear to include scores that fall "outside the region in the  $X, Y$  scatter plot where most  $X, Y$  values" are located, they will be identified (Warner, 2013, p. 165) and treated appropriately.

The fourth assumption, normality of distribution, assumes that the population distributes normally across each individual variable. The assumption will be checked by running the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test because the sample of the study is larger than 50 (Green & Salkind, 2017). The test of normality will be considered tenable if the result is larger than the alpha level of 0.05.

The fifth assumption, bivariate linear relationships between the variables, will be assessed by observing the scatter plots between the pairs of variables (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013)—teacher self-efficacy beliefs ( $x_1$ ), teacher age ( $x_2$ ), and years of experience ( $x_3$ ) and teacher leadership ( $y$ ), including the three factors and the overall score. The line of best fit will demonstrate a relatively linear bivariate relationship if it is a straight line or non-curvilinear.

The sixth assumption, bivariate normal distribution, will be evaluated by observing scatter plots between the predictors—teacher self-efficacy beliefs ( $x_1$ ), teacher age ( $x_2$ ), and years of experience ( $x_3$ )—and the criterion of teacher leadership ( $y$ ). The descriptive statistics will be accessed (Warner, 2013, p. 169) and visual inspection of the graphs will allow examining the

data (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013, pp. 267- 268). The distribution would be considered relatively normal if the value of skewness ranges between -1.00 and +1.00, and the value of kurtosis ranges between -2.00 and +2.00 (Warner, 2013). The scores on all variables will be assessed in comparison to a classic “cigar shape”. The seventh assumption, homoscedasticity, will be tested by using the scatter plots to check whether the values of the variables are homoscedastic across the regression line (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013).

Finally, the eighth assumption is the absence of multicollinearity. Collinearity will be tested simultaneously with the linear regression analysis through the SPSS Statistics by inspecting the correlation coefficients and Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013). To meet the assumption of multicollinearity, all the Tolerance data should be greater than 0.1 and the VIF are smaller than 5 (Hair et al., 2014).

Multiple linear regression analysis procedures are consistent with the research question, the hypotheses, and the data collected for the study. Nevertheless, in the initial stage of the analysis, it is important to determine whether the linear regression model is a good fit for the data of the current study. To confirm a good fit of the data for the chosen analysis, the following statistics will be run: (a) the statistical significance of the analysis, (b) the proportion of variance explained by the linear regression model, and (c) the multiple correlation coefficient.

The regression model is used, thereafter, to analyze data (see Tables 6, 7, 8, and 9). The multiple linear regression incorporates three predictor variables (teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience). Therefore, the multiple correlation coefficients, abbreviated to  $R$ , should be examined (see Tables 6, 7, 8, and 9). It was established that the correlation of  $R = 0.10$  would be enough to achieve a small effect size,  $R = 0.30$  would be needed to obtain a medium effect size, and  $R = 0.50$  would be necessary for a large effect size (Cohen,



1992, p. 156). Cohen (1992) established that 783, 85, and 28 participants would be necessary to detect a small, medium, and large effect size, respectively, at power of 0.80 and Cronbach's alpha value of 0.05. Similarly, Cohen's (1988, pp. 412-414) effect size parameter  $f$ , calculated based on multiple correlation coefficient  $R^2$  via power analysis, reports  $f^2 = 0.02$  as an indicator of a small effect,  $f^2 = 0.15$  as a medium effect, and  $f^2 = 0.35$  as a large effect. The accepted sample size for the study with three predictors—teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age and years of experience—to achieve small, medium, and large effect size is 652, 89, and 40 participants, respectively. Still, the most contemporary ratio for the sample size in the predictive correlational design with three predictors is  $N > 107$  (Warner, 2013). Given the variety of methods of calculating the required sample size, 64 participants would be enough to achieve a medium effect size ( $f^2 = 0.29$ ) with the statistical power of 0.80 and alpha coefficient of 0.05.

The other two statistics on the multiple linear regression model (see Tables 6, 7, 8, and 9) will be the squared multiple correlation ( $R^2$ ) and the adjusted squared multiple correlation ( $R^2$  adjusted) (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013). The  $R^2$  value, or the coefficient of determination, measures the proportion of variance in the teacher leadership explained by the teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience. The adjusted squared multiple correlation ( $R^2$  adjusted) value measures the effect size, or the strength of the relationship between educators' self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience and their perceived leadership (Cohen, 1992). Finally, multiple coefficient analysis reveals if there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the predictor variables and the criterion of teacher leadership ( $p < 0.05$ ) with the 95% confidence intervals (CI) (Weisberg, 2014).

## CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

### Overview

The purpose of this quantitative predictive correlational research was to determine how accurately teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience (predictor variables) can predict teacher perception of teacher leadership (criterion variable) in a school among educators of languages other than English. This chapter comprises the research question, the corresponding null hypothesis, the descriptive statistics performed on the variables, and the results of the statistical analysis. The chapter reports the results of the multiple linear regression analysis, as measured by the Teacher Leadership Inventory ([TLI], Angelle & DeHart, 2010), and the linear combination of *teacher self-efficacy beliefs*, as measured by the Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self ([TEBS-Self], Dellinger et al., 2008), *teacher age*, and *years of experience*.

### Research Question(s)

The research question for this study is:

**RQ1:** How accurately can teacher perception of teacher leadership be predicted from a linear combination of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience among educators of languages other than English?

### Null Hypothesis(es)

The null hypothesis for this study is:

**H<sub>01</sub>:** There is no significant predictive relationship between teacher perception of *teacher leadership*, as measured by the Teacher Leadership Inventory, and the linear combination of *teacher self-efficacy beliefs*, as measured by the Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self, *teacher age*, and *years of experience* among educators of languages other than English.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

The current study examined how accurately teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience (predictor variables) could predict instructors' perception of their individual leadership (criterion) in a school among educators of languages other than English. Data for the study was derived from the use of two instruments that have been deemed valid and reliable: The Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self (Dellinger et al., 2008), used to measure the predictor of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, and the Teacher Leadership Inventory (Angelle & DeHart, 2010), used to measure the criterion of teacher leadership. Additionally, the data for teacher age and years of professional experience were included in the online demographic questionnaire. The instruments were distributed via the Survey Monkey web-based platform, relaunched as Momentive, to 14 independent school districts within Texas Regions 8 and 10. The superintendents in these districts granted permission to invite district educators of languages other than English during the Spring 2021 academic semester to participate in the study. School district representatives assigned by the superintendents as sponsors to support the current research either disseminated the IRB approved participant recruitment letter with the embedded Survey Monkey hyperlink by email to their faculty or provided a database of names and emails of their language educators.

Over 200 potential participants—the exact number is impossible to draw, given that several school districts opted to disseminate the recruitment letter to their participants without disclosing the number of languages other than English educators in their schools—obtained access to the Survey Monkey (Momentive) web-based data-collecting platform. From over 200 potential participants for this study, 80 consented to participate but 16 did not successfully complete the required instruments. The final sample consisted of 64 participants ( $N = 64$ ). Table

2 provides the detailed descriptive statistics of the participants.

Educators of languages other than English from Region 8 represented 81.25%, the majority of the total number of participants ( $n = 52$ ), while teachers from Region 10 represented 18.75% of participants ( $n = 12$ ). An identical distribution was observed in the gender of participants: 52 or 81.25% were female ( $n = 52$ ) and 12 or 18.75% were male ( $n = 12$ ). The majority of teachers identified with instruction in Spanish language ( $n = 63$ ), while one teacher taught French in addition to Spanish, one participant instructed Spanish and Music, and, finally, one educator identified with the English as a Second Language instruction. Table 3 displays a breakdown of participants' ages. The variable of teacher age was categorical. The most frequently observed category of age was 38-42 years, representing 25% of the participants ( $n = 16$ ). Table 4 displays descriptive statistics for participants' years of teaching experience. The mean years of teaching experience was 10.09 ( $SD = 7.04$ ), with the minimal score equaling 1.00 and the maximum number of years of experience equaling 35.00.

**Table 3**

*Frequencies and Percentages for Categories of Age*

Age	Frequency	Percent
23-27	9	14.06
28-32	8	12.50
33-37	12	18.75
38-42	16	25.00
43-47	7	10.94
48-52	8	12.50
53-57	2	3.12
58-62	2	3.12

**Table 4***Descriptive Statistics for Teaching Experience*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>SE<sub>M</sub></i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
Teaching Experience	10.09	7.04	64	0.88	1.00	35.00	0.94	0.82

The summary statistics as well as the data obtained for the mean scores of teacher self-efficacy beliefs (predictor) and teacher leadership (criterion) and their factors can be found in Table 5. Potential scores on Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self) could range between 30 and 120. In this study, the total TEBS-Self mean score was 104.42 and standard deviation was 14.26. Potential scores for Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) could range from 14 to 56. The observations for TLI total mean score and standard deviation were as follows,  $M = 44.94$ ,  $SD = 7.16$ .

**Table 5***Descriptive Statistics for TEBS-Self and TL*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>SE<sub>M</sub></i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
TEBS-Self_Total	104.42	14.26	64	1.78	67.00	120.00	-0.61	-0.72
TLI_Total	44.94	7.16	64	0.90	30.00	56.00	-0.21	-0.95

*Note.* '-' indicates the statistic is undefined due to constant data or an insufficient sample size.

## Results

### Null Hypothesis – Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

The null hypothesis for the research states, “There will be no significant predictive relationship between teacher perception of *teacher leadership*, as measured by the Teacher Leadership Inventory, and the linear combination of *teacher self-efficacy beliefs*, as measured by the Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self, *teacher age*, and *years of experience* among educators of languages other than English.” Once the data collection window was closed, the raw

data from the survey were downloaded from the Survey Monkey in a Microsoft Excel format and analyzed using IBM SPSS version 25.0. Data screening was conducted on the predictors and the criterion in order to detect inconsistencies and missing data (Gall et al., 2007; Kang, 2013; Warner, 2013). From the 80 participants who consented to participate in the study, 16 did not successfully complete the required instruments. These participants either did not meet the inclusion and exclusion criteria established by the screening survey or they voluntarily chose to stop participating. Data for the 16 participants who did not complete the demographic questionnaire and the two measures (TEBS-Self and TLI) were eliminated in preparation for further statistical analyses. The final sample consisted of 64 participants ( $N = 64$ ). Scatter plots for each pair of variables were examined to identify potential extreme outliers (Warner, 2013). The descriptive analysis was performed to obtain the average scores for the variables and the variance between the scores of each variable (see Tables 4, 5, 6).

The following assumptions were tested to ensure the validity of results before proceeding with the linear regression analysis: (1) level of measurement; (2) independent observation or autocorrelation; (3) absence of significant bivariate outliers; (4) normality of distribution; (5) bivariate linear relationships between the continuous variables; (6) bivariate normal distribution; (7) homoscedasticity; and (8) absence of multicollinearity.

### ***Level of measurement***

The first assumption, the level of measurement, was tenable because the predictors of years of experience and self-efficacy beliefs as well as the criterion of teacher leadership were continuous, while the predictor variable of teacher age was categorical, an acceptable type of variable for the multiple linear regression analysis (Warner, 2013).

### ***Independence of observations or autocorrelation***

The second assumption, independence of observations or autocorrelation, was tenable by design and did not require the use of Durbin-Watson statistic (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2012; Durbin & Watson, 1951), given that the observations were not ordered in time and autocorrelated errors were improbable.

### ***Bivariate outliers***

The third assumption, the absence of significant bivariate outliers, was assessed by visually examining bivariate scatter plots (see Appendix K for Figures 1-12) between the predictor variables of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs ( $x_1$ ), teacher age ( $x_2$ ), and years of experience ( $x_3$ ) in relation to each tested factor of the criterion variable of teacher leadership ( $y$ ) and its overall score (Warner, 2013, pp. 165-166). Though one score of teaching experience seemed to fall outside the area of the majority of values (see Appendix K for Figures 3, 6, 9, 12), the variable of years of experience is expected to be disparate due to its inherent nature.

### ***Normality***

The fourth assumption, normality of distribution, was tested by conducting Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests in order to determine whether the population distributions of the total score of Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self and the total score of Teacher Leadership Inventory were significantly different from a normal distribution. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was appropriate because the sample was larger than 50 (Green & Salkind, 2017). The test of normality would be considered tenable if the result is larger than the alpha level of 0.05. The variable of TEBS-Self\_Total had a distribution which significantly differed from normality based on an alpha of

0.05 ( $D = 0.17, p = .05$ ). The variable of TLI\_Total had a distribution which did not significantly differ from normality ( $D = 0.09, p = .67$ ). Table 6 summarizes the results.

**Table 6**

*Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results*

Variable	$D$	$p$
TEBS-Self_Total	0.17	.05
TLI_Total	0.09	.67

Because the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for TEBS-Self\_Total was significant, the assumption of normality was further assessed by plotting the quantiles of the model residuals against the quantiles of a Chi-square distribution, also known as a Q-Q scatter plot (DeCarlo, 1997). For the current model, the quantiles of residuals could be considered within acceptable range of deviation. Simultaneously, the normality of distribution was checked by observing the skewness and the kurtosis output for each variable. The summary statistics can be found in Table 5. Neither one of the variables demonstrated the skewness greater than 2 or the kurtosis greater or equal to 3 (Westfall & Henning, 2013); therefore, the assumption of normality of distribution was considered tenable.

***Bivariate linear relationships between variables***

The fifth assumption, bivariate linear relationships between the variables, was assessed by observing the scatter plots between pairs of variables (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013)—teacher self-efficacy beliefs ( $x_1$ ), teacher age ( $x_2$ ), and years of experience ( $x_3$ ) and teacher leadership ( $y$ ), including the three factors and the overall score (see Appendix K for Figures 1-12). The line of best fit demonstrated a relatively linear bivariate relationship by being a straight line or non-curvilinear.



### ***Bivariate normal distribution***

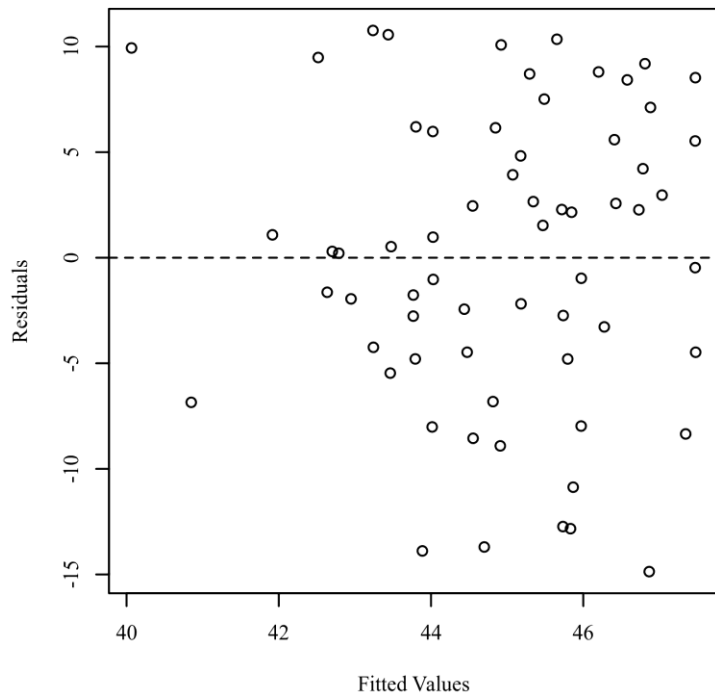
The sixth assumption, bivariate normal distribution, was evaluated by observing scatter plots between the predictor variables—teacher self-efficacy beliefs ( $x_1$ ), teacher age ( $x_2$ ), and years of experience ( $x_3$ )—and the criterion variable of teacher leadership ( $y$ ) (see Appendix K for Figures 1-12). The descriptive statistics were accessed (Warner, 2013) and visual inspection of the graphs allowed examining the data (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013, pp. 267- 268). The distribution was considered relatively normal because the criterion for the value of skewness was between -1.00 and +1.00, and the value of kurtosis was between -2.00 and +2.00 (Warner, 2013). The scores were relatively normally distributed as presented by a classic “cigar shape”.

### ***Homoscedasticity***

The seventh assumption, homoscedasticity, was evaluated by observing the bivariate scatter plots (see Appendix K for Figures 1-12) and by plotting the residuals—teacher self-efficacy beliefs ( $x_1$ ), teacher age ( $x_2$ ), and years of experience ( $x_3$ )—against the predicted values of teacher leadership ( $y$ ) (Bates et al., 2014; Field, 2017; Green & Salkind, 2017; Osborne & Walters, 2002; Warner, 2013). The assumption of homoscedasticity was met because the points appeared randomly distributed with a mean of zero and no apparent curvature was observed. Figure 13 presents a scatterplot of predicted values and model residuals.

**Figure 13**

*Residuals Scatter Plot Testing Homoscedasticity*



### ***Multicollinearity***

The eighth assumption is the absence of multicollinearity (Green & Salkind, 2017; Warner, 2013). Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were calculated to detect the presence of multicollinearity between predictors (Menard, 2009). All predictors in the regression model had VIFs less than 10; consequently, the assumption of multicollinearity was met. Table 7 presents the VIF for each predictor in the model.

**Table 7**

*Variance Inflation Factors for TEBS-Self\_Total, Age\_Ordinal, and Teaching Experience*

Variable	VIF
TEBS-Self_Total	1.36
Age_Ordinal	2.02
Teaching Experience	1.80

The aim of the study was to evaluate the strength of linear associations between the predictors—teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of teaching experience—and the criterion of the overall score of teacher leadership. Multiple linear regression analysis was used to examine the null hypothesis (Gall et al., 2007). The results of the linear regression model for the overall score of teacher leadership were not significant,  $F(8,55) = 0.38$ ,  $p = .926$ ,  $R^2 = 0.05$ , indicating that linear combination of teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs, age, and teaching experience did not explain a significant proportion of variation in the total score of teacher leadership. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis. Table 8 displays the regression model summary, Table 9 displays the results of the  $F$ -test (ANOVA), and Table 10 displays the results for the individual coefficients of the regression model.

**Table 8**

*Regression Model Summary*

Model	$R$	$R$ Square	Adjusted $R$ Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.23	.05	-.09	7.46

**Table 9**

*Analysis of Variance*

Source	Sum of Squares	$df$	Mean Square	$F$	Sig.
Regression	170.05	8	21.26	0.38	.926
Residual	3063.70	55	55.70		
Total	3233.75	63			

**Table 10**

*Results for Multiple Linear Regression with TEBS-Self\_Total, Age\_Ordinal, and Teaching Experience predicting TLI\_Total*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% CI	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	37.89	7.30	[23.26, 52.51]	0.00	5.19	< .001
TEBS-Self_Total	0.07	0.08	[-0.08, 0.23]	0.15	0.97	.335
Age_Ordinal28-32	-0.46	3.86	[-8.19, 7.27]	-0.02	-0.12	.906
Age_Ordinal33-37	-2.60	3.52	[-9.64, 4.45]	-0.14	-0.74	.464
Age_Ordinal38-42	-2.27	3.77	[-9.83, 5.29]	-0.14	-0.60	.550
Age_Ordinal43-47	-3.90	4.31	[-12.54, 4.74]	-0.17	-0.90	.370
Age_Ordinal48-52	-2.89	4.20	[-11.30, 5.52]	-0.13	-0.69	.494
Age_Ordinal53+	-6.40	5.48	[-17.39, 4.59]	-0.22	-1.17	.248
Teaching Experience	0.15	0.18	[-0.21, 0.51]	0.15	0.85	.399

*Note.* Results:  $F(8,55) = 0.38$ ,  $p = .926$ ,  $R^2 = 0.05$

Unstandardized Regression Equation:  $TLI\_Total = 37.89 + 0.07*TEBS-Self\_Total - 0.46*Age\_Ordinal28-32 - 2.60*Age\_Ordinal33-37 - 2.27*Age\_Ordinal38-42 - 3.90*Age\_Ordinal43-47 - 2.89*Age\_Ordinal48-52 - 6.40*Age\_Ordinal53+ + 0.15*Teaching Experience$

### Summary

Chapter Four described the data collected for the present study and a detailed explanation of the procedures conducted for its statistical analysis. The multiple linear regression analysis was implemented with the data collected from the survey consisting of the demographic questionnaire, the Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self instrument, and the Teacher Leadership Inventory among educators of languages other than English. Descriptive statistics were reported for the sample. The assumption tests examined whether the data were suitable for the chosen statistical analysis. Multiple linear regression was conducted to examine the strength of linear associations between three predictors—teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of teaching experience—and the criterion of the overall score of teacher leadership. The results of the examination indicated that there were no statistically significant predictive relationships

between the linear combination of self-efficacy scores, age, and years of experiences and the overall score of teacher leadership subscales.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS**

### **Overview**

Chapter Five comprises a discussion of the results of the research conducted to observe the predictive relationship between teacher perception of self-efficacy beliefs, age, and years of experience of educators of languages other than English and their perceived teacher leadership in the light of the current literature. Furthermore, the chapter presents the implications of the study and its meaning for the existing body of knowledge, the limitations of the study, and the recommendations for future research.

### **Discussion**

The purpose of this quantitative predictive correlational study was to examine how accurately a linear combination of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience (predictor variables) among educators of languages other than English can predict their perception of teacher leadership (criterion variable). The study was projected to build upon the body of existing literature in teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Alagözlü, 2016; Aloe et al., 2014; Dellinger et al., 2008; Hall, 2018; Klassen et al., 2013; Kurt et al., 2012; 2011; Mahler et al., 2018; Öqvist & Malmström, 2016, 2018; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Vu, 2017; Wyatt, 2016; Zee et al., 2016) and teacher leadership (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007; Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Ascenzi-Moreno et al., 2016; Dimmock, 2019; Gilmetdinova, 2019; Hite & Milbourne, 2018; Korthagen, 2010; McCarty, 2015; Menken & Solorza, 2014; Patel, 2018; Rocque et al., 2016; Sullival, 2004). The theoretical framework of the research relied upon the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997) and the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) to explain the effect of teachers' beliefs and characteristics on their perceived leadership.

A survey with two instruments and a demographic questionnaire was administered to

languages other than English educators within Texas Regions 8 and 10 at the end of the Spring 2021 semester via the Survey Monkey (Momentive) web-based platform. Data for 16 participants were removed due to not meeting the inclusion and exclusion criteria or because of partial completion of the instruments. A total of 64 participants from 14 school districts within Regions 8 and 10 contributed to the study and completed all the required instruments successfully. The collected data were analyzed using a multiple linear regression.

### **Research Question: Results for the Overall Model of Teacher Leadership**

The research question of this quantitative predictive correlational study sought to determine how accurately a linear combination of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience (predictor variables) among educators of languages other than English could predict their perception of teacher leadership (criterion variable). Teachers' domain-specific self-efficacy beliefs were measured by the *Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self* ([TEBS-Self], Dellinger et al., 2008). The *Teacher Leadership Inventory* ([TLI], Angelle & DeHart, 2010) measured the perceived teacher leadership. A demographic survey provided data for teacher age and years of professional experience.

The results of the linear regression model for the overall score of teacher leadership being predicted by a combination of three predictive variables were not significant,  $F(8,55) = 0.38$ ,  $p = .926$ ,  $R^2 = 0.05$ . The research failed to reject the null hypothesis for the overall model. This indicates that linear combination of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of teaching experience did not explain a significant proportion of variation in the total score of teacher leadership. Though the statistical results were not significant, the current study offers a unique perspective due to the absence of prior inquiry that has specifically examined the combined effect of teachers' beliefs and characteristics on their perceptions of teacher agency in

languages other than English education. These findings have expanded upon the limited body of literature on teacher leadership in other studies where either one or two of the currently observed characteristics have been examined. The present study both aligns and disagrees with several lines of research.

### **Teacher Leadership Factor of Sharing Expertise**

To ensure clarity in this discussion, it is important to recap that Languages Other than English (LOTE) education resembles the domain of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), an area of language educational research that is deeper investigated than the former, as established in the literature review, and represents a mirrored focus in language learning. Contrarily to the non-significant finding of the combined-factor effect of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in this study, Chien (2020) examined two of the three predictors—teacher age and years of experience—as sub-factors in a mixed-methods study where 10 Taiwanese elementary school English teachers reflected on their perceptions of teacher leaders and leadership. They revealed that both the educators' age and the years of credited service were strongly associated with their knowledge and skills in leadership as well as influenced their perceptions of the value of mentoring and ability to mentor novice teachers, facets of Sharing Expertise. The results of the current study do not support this finding, indicating that teacher age and years of experience may not constitute decisive factors in encouraging language teachers to ask one another for assistance when there are issues with student behavior or willingly assist other teachers regarding new topics or skills. The current sample has not supported that language educators of any particular age group or possessing a specific range of professional experience would demonstrate higher or lower inclination to share new ideas with the colleagues, discuss ways to improve learning, and stay current on the trends in educational research.



Additionally, Wolff et al. (2016) explicated that teachers' visual expertise—the capability to concurrently perceive, assess, and deduce conclusions from classroom events to manage classroom effectively—varied for novice and experienced teachers. Educators with various degrees of experience revealed distinct sources of situational assessment through eye-tracking measurements and verbal-think aloud. The former observed classroom areas in a fragmented way and assessed issues through an image-driven perspective. The latter monitored classrooms more thoroughly and assessed problems from the knowledge-driven standpoint by referring to reasoning, discernment, and context at a higher rate. Such teacher behaviors as thorough assessment of classroom issues, maximization of learning, effective management of routines and procedures, redirection of off-task behaviors, and positive classroom climate are essential characteristics of management and climate within self-efficacy beliefs (Dellinger et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the responses of educators of languages other than English in the current study did not indicate that their abilities to effectively and productively manage classroom and maintain an instructional climate characterized by respect and fairness could predict their involvement in the collaborative decision-making process with formal leadership.

Similarly, Faez and Valeo (2012) drew attention to the value of language teaching experience by discovering that years of professional experience increased the perception of preparedness for teaching assignments and situations of novice TESOL teachers, which is a characteristic of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. In turn, self-efficacy beliefs contributed to the ability to perform within particular educational expectations through facilitation of sharing expertise via practical workshops, student teaching, and classroom experiences in the domain of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). The current study does not deny the value of self-efficacy beliefs of language educators on their professional performance and

sharing expertise activities but the findings for the sample disagree with the existence of either positive or negative effect of these perspectives on teachers' agency.

Reyes-Cruz et al. (2018) have determined that educators with moderate to high self-efficacy beliefs in their ability to perform professional research exhibit motivation and positive views toward advancing field research. Though only on a classroom and departmental level, language teachers should undergo continuous development for as long as they practice their profession in order to advance their linguistic and pedagogical competences due to their interdependence with self-efficacy beliefs (Choi & Lee, 2016). This dynamic and sociocultural nature of languages and pedagogy (Lantolf & Zhang, 2017; Llurda, 2005) leads to the absence of a maximum level of professional development and self-efficacy that language teachers can achieve in order to stay current and without threat to losing their proficiency (Choi & Lee, 2016). Consequently, the higher the linguistic and the pedagogical competence of educators, the higher their self-efficacy beliefs, and vice versa. Disposition toward and involvement in professional research and learning can be associated with the leadership factors of Sharing Expertise and Supra-Practitioner (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Nevertheless, the current sample did not reflect that individual advancement of linguistic and pedagogical competences and involvement in field research could predict educators' dispositions and behaviors related to the professional learning communities through discussions of ways to improve student outcomes and faculty engagement in staying current on educational research in the subject domain.

### **Teacher Leadership Factor of Sharing Leadership**

The overarching definition and conceptualization of teacher leadership in the study comprehends the ability to balance educational roles—instructional and leading—at any stage of professional engagement as essential for the construct of informal leadership (Angelle &

Beaumont, 2007; Angelle & DeHart, 2010, 2011; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2011). The framework of the current study aligned with Angelle and DeHart's (2011) observation that teacher leadership generates and develops within contextual conditions of each individual school and not defined by singular roles with specific lists of tasks. Their findings indicated that the perceptions of teacher leadership differ among educators from various grade levels, degree of formal studies, years of professional experience, and their formal leadership position in school. By sharing leadership with the formal administration, language teachers contribute to the decision-making about professional development, cross-curricular agenda, and ways to improve school along with a full array of classroom assignments and responsibilities for instructional planning, delivery, and evaluation of student learning (Texas Education Code, 2016). Even though the current research embraced the former mentioned framework, its results did not reveal a statistically significant predictive effect of the combination of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of teaching experience on teacher leadership. These findings do not align with prior research that employed qualitative approach to research in language teacher leadership for the overall model of teacher leadership (Greenier & Whitehead, 2016; Lee, 2001; Podolsky et al., 2019; Shah, 2020; Whitehead & Greenier, 2019; Woodhouse & Pedder, 2017).

Whitehead and Greenier (2019) observed the emergence of the demographic characteristics of age and years of credited service in learners' perspectives on language teacher leadership indirectly through theme development. Students in Korea revealed cultural coloration of their conceptualizations of language educators' leadership by connecting it to Confucian values of age, status, and position (Lee, 2001) as well as leadership revealed through particular qualities and characteristics (Greenier & Whitehead, 2016). Similar notions characterized the Saudi Arabian perspectives of language teacher leadership (Shah, 2020). Shah (2020) also

discovered that teachers with reputable academic credentials, supporting knowledge, rich professional expertise, and leadership skills could exert positive influence on colleagues as well as perform managerial roles in schools. Therefore, despite the situational nature of teacher leadership conceptualization (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in the current study, the findings do not support prior research on language teacher perspectives on their perceived leaderships through the lens of demographic characteristics and attained traits and skills, which intertwine with self-efficacy beliefs of language educators.

The research for the current sample did not support the finding by Podolsky et al. (2019) who revealed through a review of literature of 30 studies that teacher experience had a positive effect on teacher effectiveness and student outcomes during a major part of educational career. Higher teaching experience was likely to improve educators' effectiveness, abilities, and skills. However, the authors also discovered that several working conditions were crucial for teacher effectiveness along with the professional experience—collegial atmosphere; cumulative teaching experience in the same grade level, subject domain, or school district; and sharing of expertise among colleagues—whereas the current study did not control for the working setting.

The current findings disagree with prior research by Woodhouse and Pedder (2017) who revealed various perceptions and development of leadership among novice teachers in varying school settings. Similarly, Palmer et al. (2005) have supported that educators' knowledge, skills, classroom procedures, as well as problem-solving and decision-making abilities change as a result of professional experiences. Indeed, problem solving, decision making, and collaborative instructional planning were essential characteristics of sharing leadership behavior (Angelle & DeHart, 2010) in the study and teaching experience could play an important role in teacher perceived leadership at different stages and ages throughout the career but the results remain

inconclusive for the combined effect of these factors.

### **Teacher Leadership Factor of Supra-Practitioner**

Hoxha and Hyseni-Duraku (2017) observed the relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and different leadership styles of school administrators and supported a positive correlation between self-efficacy beliefs with the transformational and transactional styles. Contrarily to this research, the current study observed the leadership of teachers themselves instead of formal educational leaders. The characteristics of Supra-Practitioner factor of teacher leadership allow for parallelisms with the transformational leadership of principals due to the scenarios that educators had to assess to measure their agentic dispositions: after-school activities aimed at whole-school improvement and well as after-hours voluntary assistance to their colleagues and administrators. Willingness to stay after regular work hours could relate to various and diverse reasons but the fact is undeniable that such activities require an investment of additional resources, such as time, energy, and motivation to prioritize educational matters. Despite these similarities in research orientation and variables, the current study did not support the findings of Hoxha and Hyseni-Duraku (2017) and revealed no significant effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the perceptions of teacher leadership behaviors among language educators.

### **Implications**

No other existing study has examined the predictive relationship between the linear combination of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, age, and years of experience and their perceived teacher leadership in the content-specific domain of Languages Other than English (LOTE). Therefore, the current research is innovative in the sense that it has provided empirical data, though limited in scope, on valuable aspects of teacher characteristics and beliefs in a domain-specific area of language education. The study has employed teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, age,

and years of experience in the scenario of teachers' self-assessment of their own perceived leadership dispositions and behaviors in place of formal leaders' self-assessment of their leadership styles or teachers' perceptions of administrators' agency in order to understand the effect that these demographic characteristics may have on language teacher-leaders themselves.

The literature review and the current study clearly manifest that the awareness of the value of demographic characteristics of teacher age and years of experience in leadership inquiry in the context of LOTE is still limited and inconclusive and lacks the proper social focus (Hoxha & Hyseni-Duraku, 2017) within the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977; 1997). The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their teacher agency within and outside the realm of classroom tasks and responsibilities requires further inquiry (Choi & Lee, 2016; Wyatt, 2018). Based on prior research, the value of high self-efficacy beliefs for language teachers' readiness to share leadership with other school stakeholders calls for larger investment into school initiatives dedicated to growing their own leadership capital. The recent approach to growing nation's own pathways to multilingual educators has received attention of the school districts and the education policy (Garcia et al., 2019). Educational institutions have created professional pathways for their paraprofessionals through improved education and on-site opportunities to expand skills and gain work experience (Morrison & Lightner, 2017). Such pathways are promising, considering that 20% of paraprofessionals—teacher aides, secretaries, and office clerks—are bilingual due to the need to provide adequate customer service to students and their families (Williams et al., 2016).

Likewise, by investing in local human capital of language educators, schools could provide leadership pathways for languages other than English teachers who already possess an

adequate level of education of a bachelor degree or higher, pedagogical experience as well as linguistic and cultural competencies for an entrance level apprentice for school leadership roles. It is undeniable that language teachers and multilingual educators in other domains serve as linguistic and cultural liaisons between students, families, and teachers and administrators not competent in students' primary language through the direct and targeted support system of instructional practices and procedures within and beyond their classrooms even on a larger scale than paraprofessionals (Williams et al., 2016). Whereas the pathway to professionalization of bilingual paraprofessionals could be a response to the longitudinal language teacher shortage (Boyle et al., 2015; Kissau et al., 2019b; Swanson, 2012; Swanson & Huff, 2019; Swanson & Mason, 2018; Williams et al., 2016), the pathway to professionalization in informal and formal leadership of language teachers could respond to the linguistically and culturally diverse leaders supply deficit (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics [USDOE, NCES], 2017, 2019). Iowa State has approached teacher leadership with the progressive Teacher Leadership and Compensation (TLC) System initiative in the 2014–2015 academic year with the primary goals of recruiting and supporting quality instructional cadres by creating meaningful teacher leadership roles and positions with supplemental salary and targeted continuing professional education (Allen, 2018). Consequently, all Iowa school districts offer teacher leadership programs and one out of every four educators holds a defined and remunerated leadership role. As observed, the experience of the school culture of intentional teacher leadership is already in place and comprehends the importance of nurturing teachers' growth mindset, employing a dialogic pedagogy, and investing into the construction of teacher identity to encourage sharing leadership opportunities. Teachers' beliefs in their capability to perform in-classroom and campus-wide duties commendably and an effective support system

providing them with means to sustain these beliefs could predict their increased advocacy for the needs, the standards, and expected outcomes of students in the area of language education and beyond. Therefore, investment in language instructors' efficacy beliefs, intentional advocacy for language education as a core value (Stein-Smith, 2020), and teacher leadership pathways (Wyatt, 2018) could lead to the national commissioned growth of access to language learning, global competence, and linguistic and sociocultural awareness (AMACAD, 2020).

### **Limitations**

Practical limitations involving the study design, the procedures, and the population could have caused threats to the internal and external validity of the current research. The present study examined the predictive relationship between teacher perception of self-efficacy beliefs, age, and years of teaching experience among educators of languages other than English and their perceived leadership among 64 participants within 14 independent school districts out of the combined total of 162 ISDs in the Texas Regions 8 and 10. The results of this study may not be representative of the entire population of ESCs serving Regions 8 and 10. Additionally, the survey in the present study was administered to language educators during the two last and busiest months of the academic year—April and May—which could lead to several limitations. School district administrators could be reluctant to grant permission for their teachers to participate in the research. This could lead to a relatively low sample of 64 participants, given that teachers would be rigorously involved in courses and testing with high accountability: State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR), Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS), Advanced Placement (AP), and Dual-Credit courses. Instrument administration during the first semester or in the beginning of the second semester could result in a different sample.



Though schools in Region 8 and Region 10 provide languages other than English courses in numerous languages, the participants of the study were primarily educators of Spanish with a few exceptions of teachers who reported to instruct French and English as a second language along with Spanish and music. Therefore, the observed results may not be generalizable to the results found among educators of other languages had there been a presence of this population in the sample. The non-equivalent gender distribution of the population sample may have weakened the internal validity. There were 12 male (18.75%) and 52 female (81.25%) participants, which is more than four times as many compared to the male participants. Though no data is available for the gender distribution of languages other than English teachers in Regions 8 and 10, the gender divergences may not accurately describe the total population of LOTE educators but rather the proportion of male and female educators who volunteered to participate in the research. Finally, the present research observed the variable of age in categorical terms, which may lead to a belief fallacy that teacher leadership cannot change within five-year age periods.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

Findings of the current study reveal several recommendations for future research to increase understanding of the predictive effect of teachers' demographic characteristics, beliefs, and behaviors on their teacher agency among educators of languages other than English. The small sample size of 64 participants in this study could negatively affect the results of the research. Therefore, future research employing a larger sample size among language educators within more than 14 school districts and representing more than three language-specific domains could provide a deeper exploration of the problem at hand.

The non-statistically significant finding of the association of teachers' age and years of professional experiences with the overall score of their perceived leadership is inconclusive.

Information on the participants' working conditions, school climate and culture, communication between various levels of stakeholders, and factors related to their instructional role either through quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-methods research could glean insight into positive and negative tendencies toward sharing leadership dispositions and behaviors as observed in other studies (Chien, 2020; Whitehead & Greenier, 2019). In-depth qualitative research methodologies could allow understanding why educators of languages other than English who represent certain social age groups in relation to other factors could show higher or lower inclinations to partake in decision-making and school improvement activities as well as collaborate with the formal leadership. Additionally, this study observed the variable of age in categories of five-year increments. Such observation could lead to a belief fallacy that teacher leadership perspectives remain unchangeable within five-year periods. Future research could consider employing age as a continuous variable and treating it from the social angle of age-related fluctuations in teacher leadership perceptions that characterize parallelisms between the process of aging and ordered change in both the personal and the professional circumstances and positions of language teachers (Rughiniş & Humă, 2015).

Podolsky et al. (2019) and Woodhouse and Pedder (2017) have revealed an association between teachers' years of credited service and their perceptions of teacher leadership in alignment with the Situated Learning Theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Nevertheless, the findings of the current study do not support either positive or negative predictive effect of educators' years of experience on their perceived teacher leadership when observed in combination with other factors. Years of experience could reveal a different effect on teachers' perceptions of leadership and their agentic role when observed independently. Thus, in-depth research with higher sample size and specific focus on

influence of mastery experiences on leadership behaviors and dispositions of language educators could increase knowledge in this domain and inform practical application of such awareness.

The Teacher Leadership Inventory ([TLI], Angelle & DeHart, 2010) was identified as the most compatible instrument for the current study based on prior instrument development and research in teacher leadership (Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Angelle & Teague, 2014; Bradley-Levine et al., 2014), including several dissertations (Bass, 2019; Clark, 2016; Johnson, 2016). Nevertheless, another instrument for measuring teacher leadership perceptions or a modified version of the current instrument could result more suitable for future research for the following reason. The Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self ([TEBS-Self], Dellinger et al., 2008), measured self-efficacy beliefs from the standpoint of the first person where language educators assessed their perceptions in a strictly personalized manner. All statements in the TEBS-Self instrument began with the prompt "Right now in my present teaching situation, the strength of my personal belief in my capabilities to..." (Dellinger et al., 2008, p. 764) and encouraged teachers to consider their personal classroom experiences through the stem. Conversely, the Teacher Leadership Inventory (Angelle & DeHart, 2010) reflected teachers' approach to perceptions of leadership within and outside the classroom from a generalized perspective of faculty and administration as opposed to their personal teaching situation. All statements began with the stimulation to consider behaviors and responses of the body of educators and the principal, or the working conditions in the participants' school settings: "Teachers ask...", "As a faculty...", "The principal responds..." (Angelle & DeHart, 2010). Language educators' assessment of their teacher leadership from the first-person perspective could demonstrate different results of the interaction between their self-efficacy beliefs and their perceptions of teacher leadership and contribute to the body of knowledge on internalization, awareness, and

value of agency and advocacy of language educators in their natural environment (AMACAD, 2020; Moeller and Abbott, 2018; Stein-Smith, 2020).

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## APPENDIX A

### Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self (TEBS-Self)

**Table 11**

Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self Response Scale:

1. Weak beliefs in my capabilities
2. Moderate beliefs in my capabilities
3. Strong beliefs in my capabilities
4. Very strong beliefs in my capabilities

*Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self (TEBS-Self)*

Item	Right now in my present teaching situation, the strength of my personal beliefs in my capabilities to...	1234
1.	plan activities that accommodate the range of individual differences among my students...	1234
2.	plan evaluation procedures that accommodate individual differences among my students...	1234
3.	use allocated time for activities that maximize learning...	1234
4.	effectively manage routines and procedures for learning tasks...	1234
5.	clarify directions for learning routines...	1234
6.	maintain high levels of student engagement in learning tasks...	1234
7.	redirect students who are persistently off task...	1234
8.	maintain a classroom climate of courtesy and respect...	1234
9.	maintain a classroom climate that is fair and impartial...	1234
10.	communicate to students the specific learning outcomes of the lesson...	1234
11.	communicate to students the purpose and/or importance of learning tasks...	1234
12.	implement teaching methods at an appropriate pace to accommodate differences among my students...	1234
13.	utilize teaching aids and learning materials that accommodate individual differences among my students...	1234
14.	provide students with opportunities to learn at more than one cognitive and/or performance level...	1234
15.	communicate to students content knowledge that is accurate and logical...	1234
16.	clarify student misunderstandings or difficulties in learning...	1234
17.	provide students with specific feedback about their learning...	1234
18.	provide students with suggestions for improving learning...	1234
19.	actively involve students in developing concepts...	1234
20.	solicit a variety of questions throughout the lesson that enable higher order thinking...	1234
21.	actively involve students in critical analysis and/or problem solving...	1234
22.	monitor students' involvement during learning tasks...	1234
23.	adjust teaching and learning activities as needed...	1234
24.	manage student discipline/behavior...	1234
25.	involve students in developing higher order thinking skills...	1234
26.	motivate students to perform to their fullest potential...	1234
27.	provide a learning environment that accommodates students with special needs...	1234
28.	improve the academic performance of students, including those with learning	1234

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	disabilities...	
29.	provide a positive influence on the academic development of students...	1234
30.	maintain a classroom environment in which students work cooperatively...	1234

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*Note.* Components and corresponding items:

I Communication/Clarification (CC): 5, 10, 11, 15, 16, 17, 18, 22, 23

II Management/Climate (MC): 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 24, 30.

III Accommodating individual differences (AID): 1, 2, 12, 13, 14, 27, 28.

IV Motivation of students (MS): 26, 29.

V Higher order thinking skills (HOTS): 19, 20, 21, 25.

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## APPENDIX B

### Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self) Permissions, Instructions, and Procedures

An email was sent on November 17, 2020 through the ResearchGate notifications requesting permission from Amy B. Dellinger to use and reproduce the Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs System-Self for this study. Below is her reply:

Maryna,

Your study plan sounds like it is well on its way. I am providing permission for your use of the TEBS-Self, as provided in the article you cite (Dellinger, et al., 2008). I encourage & recommend that you examine the items for appropriate task and context-specificity and alter the text of items as needed. Whether or not adjustments are needed, you will need to report reliability and validity evidence for your particular use of the instrument. I am recommending an article that I wrote after doing the literature review for my dissertation, *Validity and the Review of Literature* (Dellinger, 2005), published in *Research in the Schools*, which examines the quality of research & measurement of teacher self efficacy research up to 2005. if you cannot get access to this article, please request a copy through my ResearchGate profile, and I will get it to you.

Wishing you the very best in your research. I would appreciate seeing your results.

ABDELLINGER

Below are screenshots of communication with Dr. Amy B. Dellinger through ResearchGate.

The screenshots show a message from Maryna Svirska-Otero to Dr. Amy B. Dellinger on ResearchGate. The message is titled "REQUEST - Permission to use and reproduce Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self in dissertation".

**Message Content:**

Dear Dr. Dellinger,

Bottom line: I would like to request your permission to use and reproduce the instrument of Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self (Dellinger et al., 2008) developed by you and your team of researchers in my dissertation.

Background:

- Let me introduce myself: My name is Maryna Svirska-Otero and I am a doctoral candidate at Liberty University, School of Education. Along with my doctoral studies, I teach Spanish and French and hold the department chair position for the Languages Other than English (LOTE) department at the Mount Pleasant High School, located in Mount Pleasant, TX. Besides, I serve on the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC) part-time and work with students who are English learners.
- My professional interests include languages, second language acquisition and education, and teacher leadership. In my doctoral thesis, I have combined these interests and I am currently working on the dissertation proposal. My topic is "Relationship between Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Teacher Age, and Years of Experience of Teachers of Languages Other than English and their Perceived Leadership".
- In search of a suitable instrument, the Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self (Dellinger et al., 2008) rendered most appropriate for the purpose of my study: Determine how accurately teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience can predict teacher perception of teacher leadership among educators of languages other than English. The instrument reflects the concept of self-efficacy accurately, examines efficacy beliefs of teachers in their personal teaching context, and assesses meaningful teaching and learning tasks.
- The Institutional Review Board application would require a proof of permission to use the instrument in the study and a copy of the TEBS-Self itself before I could submit it for review. In the future, I would be happy to share my final work with you if you would be interested at all.

I am eager to receive your reply.

Maryna Svirska-Otero  
LOTE Teacher, Department Chair  
LPAC Supervisor

**Contact Information:**

Mount Pleasant High School  
motero@mpisd.net  
Doctoral Candidate  
School of Education  
Liberty University  
msvirskaotero@liberty.edu  
231 Private Road 4635  
Mount Pleasant, TX, 75455  
(903) 563-3318

**References:**

Dellinger, A. B., Bobbett, J. J., Olivier, D. F., & Ellett, C. D. (2008). Measuring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: Development and use of the TEBS-self. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(3), 751-766.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2007.02.010>

researchgate.net/messages/47702072

Amy B. Dellinger to you 12 hours ago

Maryna,  
 Your study plan sounds like it is well on its way. I am providing permission for your use of the TEBS-Self, as provided in the article you cite (Dellinger, et al., 2008). I encourage & recommend that you examine the items for appropriate task and context-specificity and alter the text of items as needed. Whether or not adjustments are needed, you will need to report reliability and validity evidence for your particular use of the instrument. I am recommending an article that I wrote after doing the literature review for my dissertation, Validity and the Review of Literature (Dellinger, 2005), published in Research in the Schools, which examines the quality of research & measurement of teacher self efficacy research up to 2005. If you cannot get access to this article, please request a copy through my ResearchGate profile, and I will get it to you. Wishing you the very best in your research. I would appreciate seeing your results.

ABDELLINGER

---

researchgate.net/messages/47702072

Dear Dr. Dellinger,

I would like to let you know that I have successfully defended my dissertation proposal. My committee has suggested a few minor revisions. One of them is to connect with you and ensure that you would allow me to use the instrument in the digital format within a survey created through the SurveyMonkey. I assure you that all items and the scale will remain identical to yours and not modified in cualquier way, according to what was previously agreed upon in the permission to use the instrument.

Thank you in advance!

Maryna Svirska-Otero

Amy B. Dellinger to you 4 days ago

Congratulations on this first step!

You may use the survey items as needed via an online survey format. If the task and context specificity are not appropriate to your population/sample, please alter the tasks/contexts, as needed.

Good luck with your datos collection phase,

AB Dellinger

## APPENDIX C

### Teacher Leadership Inventory ([TLI], Angelle & DeHart, 2010)

**Table 12**

Teacher Leadership Inventory Response Scale:

4. Routinely
3. Sometimes
2. Seldom
1. Never

*Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI)*

Item	Statement	4321
1.	Teachers ask one another for assistance when we have a problem with student behavior in the classroom.	4321
2.	Other teachers willingly offer me assistance if I have questions about how to teach a new topic or skill.	4321
3.	Teachers here share new ideas for teaching with other teachers such as through grade level/department meetings, school wide meetings, professional development, etc.	4321
4.	Teachers discuss ways to improve student learning.	4321
5.	Teachers are involved in making decisions about activities such as professional development, cross curricular projects, etc.	4321
6.	Teachers are actively involved in finding ways to improve the school as a whole.	4321
7.	As a faculty, we stay current on education research in our grade level/subject area.	4321
8.	Teachers willingly stay after school to work on school improvement activities.	4321
9.	Teachers willingly stay after school to help other teachers who need assistance.	4321
10.	Teachers willingly stay after school to assist administrators who need volunteer help.	4321
11.	Administrators object when teachers take on leadership responsibilities.	4321
12.	The principal responds to the concerns and ideas of teachers.	4321
13.	Teachers plan the content of professional learning activities at my school.	4321
14.	Teachers have opportunities to influence important decisions even if they do not hold an official leadership position.	4321
15.	The principal consults the same small group of teachers for input on decisions.	4321
16.	Time is provided for teachers to collaborate about matters relevant to teaching and learning.	4321
17.	Most teachers in leadership positions only serve because they have been principal appointed.	4321

*Note.* Components and corresponding items:

Factor 1 Sharing Expertise: 3, 4, 7, 1, 2.

Factor 2 Sharing Leadership: 5, 6, 13, 14, 12, 16.

Factor 3 Supra-Practitioner: 9, 10, 8.

Factor 4 Principal Selection: 15, 17, 11.

Factor 4 will not be used in the data analysis due to its poor reliability reflected in the Cronbach's alpha level of 0.56 (Warner, 2013).

Angelle, P. S., & DeHart, C. A. (2010, May). *A four factor model of teacher leadership:*

*Construction and testing of the Teacher Leadership Inventory.* Paper presented at the

Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Denver, CO.

Angelle, P., & DeHart, C. A. (2011). Teacher perceptions of teacher leadership: Examining differences by experience, degree, and position. *NASSP Bulletin*, 95(2), 141-160.

## APPENDIX D

### Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) Permissions, Instructions, and Procedures

An email was sent on November 17, 2020 and a follow up message was sent on November 22, 2020 through the ResearchGate notifications requesting permission from Pamela S. Angelle to use, modify, reproduce, and publish the Teacher Leadership Inventory for this study. Below is her reply:



December 5, 2020

Maryna Svirska-Otero  
 LOTE Teacher, Department Chair  
 LPAC Supervisor  
 Mount Pleasant High School  
 Mount Pleasant, TX

Dear Maryna,

With this letter, I grant permission to use the quantitative instrument, the Teacher Leader Inventory, for your research study. You have my permission to disseminate the instrument either through an online or hard copy format. You do not have permission to modify the instrument, other than deleting the Principal Selection items.

This permission is granted with the following terms:

- The instrument will be used for research purposes only, barring any monetary profiting from the instrument.
- Author citation is included on all copies.
- Links to subsequent published manuscripts generated from the study will be forwarded to me.

In addition, I grant you permission to publish the instrument as part of your research.

Best wishes for your research and I look forward to seeing the results.

Pamela S. Angelle, Ph.D.  
 Professor and Director of Graduate Studies  
 The University of Tennessee  
 Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies  
 323 Bailey Education Complex  
 Knoxville, TN 37996



Below are screenshots of communication with Dr. Pamela S. Angelle.

researchgate.net/messages/48174180

Notifications

Updates Messages Requests [Compose message](#)

REQUEST - Permission to use, modify, and reproduce Teacher Leadership Inventory in dissertation [Back to list](#)

Report message · Block user

**Maryna Svirska-Otero** 12 days ago

Dear Dr. Angelle,

Bottom line: I would like to request your permission to use, modify, and reproduce the instrument of Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) developed by you and Dr. Corey DeHart (2010) in my dissertation.

Background:

1. Let me introduce myself: My name is Maryna Svirska-Otero and I am a doctoral candidate at Liberty University, School of Education. Along with my

doctoral candidate at Liberty University, School of Education. Along with my doctoral studies, I teach Spanish and French and hold the department chair position for the Languages Other than English (LOTE) department at the Mount Pleasant High School, located in Mount Pleasant, TX. Besides, I serve on the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC) part-time and work with students who are English learners.

2. My professional interests include languages, second language acquisition and education, and teacher leadership. In my doctoral thesis, I have combined these interests and I am currently working on the dissertation proposal. My topic is "Relationship between Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Teacher Age, and Years of Experience of Teachers of Languages Other than English and their Perceived Leadership".
3. In search of a suitable instrument, the Teacher Leadership Inventory rendered most appropriate for the study purpose: Determine how accurately teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience can predict teacher perception of teacher leadership among educators of languages other than English. Due to the poor reliability of the fourth factor, Principal Selection (PS), with Cronbach's alpha of 0.56 (Angelle & DeHart, 2010), I would like to ask for your permission to modify the TLI and use it without the three questions that correspond to this factor: #11, #15, and #17. I would properly document this modification in my dissertation and would state reasons for it.
4. The Institutional Review Board application would require a proof of permission to use the instrument in the study and a copy of the TLI itself

researchgate.net/messages/48174180

before I could submit it for review. In the future, I would be happy to share my final work with you if you would be interested at all.

I am eager to receive your reply.


Maryna Svirska-Otero  
 LOTE Teacher, Department Chair  
 LPAC Supervisor  
 Mount Pleasant High School  
 motero@mpisd.net  
 Doctoral Candidate  
 School of Education  
 Liberty University  
 msvirskaotero@liberty.edu  
 231 Private Road 4635  
 Mount Pleasant, TX, 75455  
 (903) 563-3318

P.S. I sent a copy of this email to your email address pangelle@utk.edu on November 17, 2020.


References  
 Angelle, P. S., & DeHart, C. A. (2010, May). A four factor model of teacher leadership: Construction and testing of the Teacher Leadership Inventory. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational

researchgate.net/messages/48174180

leadership: Construction and testing of the Teacher Leadership Inventory. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Denver, CO.

 Pamela S. Angelle to you an hour ago

I have been away from my email . My apologies. I will send a letter of permission to you.

 Maryna Svirska-Otero 20 minutes ago

Dr. Angelle,

Your response made my day! When I saw it, my children (daughter, 11, and son, 8) were with me and they were completely confused regarding the reason why I was so excited and grateful to God as I was looking into my computer. :-) Shortly, thank you very much for responding. It means so much to me! I have almost lost hope that I would hear back either from you or from Dr. DeHart, whom I contacted about a week ago.

May you have a blessed weekend!

Maryna Svirska-Otero

Почта — Sviriska-Otero, Maryna — Outlook - Google Chrome  
 outlook.office.com/mail/deeplink?state=0&version=20201123001.11&popupv2=1

← Ответить | Удалить | Нежелательное | Заблокировать | ...

**Re: [External] RE: REQUEST - Permission to use, modify, and reproduce Teacher Leadership Inventory in dissertation**

5 дек. 2020 г., в 3:28 PM, Angelle, Pamela Ann <pangelle@utk.edu> написал(а):

---

[ EXTERNAL EMAIL: Do not click any links or open attachments unless you know the sender and trust the content. ]

---

Instrument attached.

<image001.gif>

**Pamela Angelle, Ph.D.**  
 Professor  
 Director of Graduate Studies

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville  
 Educational Leadership and Policy Studies  
 323 Bailey Education Complex  
 1126 Volunteer Blvd  
 Knoxville, TN 37996

pangelle@utk.edu  
 865.974.4139  
*Big Orange. Big Ideas.*

504NzQ5LTQ5NzhOTBkNTNjNAAQAJ%2F3QBTXDRVJmqr4EaH7oY%3D?state=0

scalar.usc.edu Litera... Teaching Methodol... Ap Spanish - Princi... Other bookmarks

Очистить | Переместить в | Классифицировать | Отложить | ...

**[External] RE: REQUEST - Permission to use, modify, and reproduce Teacher Leadership Inventory in dissertation** 2

4 янв. 2021 г., в 08:17, Angelle, Pamela Ann <pangelle@utk.edu> написал(а):

You have my permission to administer the Teacher Leadership Inventory in digital format using Survey Monkey with the stipulation that the instrument is not changed.  
 Good luck with your research.  
 Dr Angelle

<image001.gif>

**Pamela Angelle, Ph.D.**  
 Professor  
 Director of Graduate Studies

## APPENDIX E

### IRB Approval

# LIBERTY UNIVERSITY

## INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

April 21, 2021

Maryna Svirska-Otero  
Philip Alsup

Re: IRB Exemption - IRB-FY20-21-355 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS, TEACHER AGE, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE OF TEACHERS OF LANGUAGES OTHER THAN ENGLISH AND THEIR PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP

Dear Maryna Svirska-Otero, Philip Alsup:

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under the following exemption category, which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46: 101(b):

Category 2.(i). Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording).

The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Your stamped consent form(s) and final versions of your study documents can be found under the Attachments tab within the Submission Details section of your study on Cayuse IRB. Your stamped consent form(s) should be copied and used to gain the consent of your research participants. If you plan to provide your consent information electronically, the contents of the attached consent document(s) should be made available without alteration.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any modifications to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty University IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by completing a modification submission through your Cayuse IRB account.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible modifications to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at [irb@liberty.edu](mailto:irb@liberty.edu).

Sincerely,

**G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP**

*Administrative Chair of Institutional Research*

**Research Ethics Office**

**APPENDIX F****Permission Request Letter to Superintendents of Texas Independent School Districts**

[Date]

[Recipient]

[Title]

[Company]

[Address 1]

[Address 2]

[Address 3]

Dear [Recipient]:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The title of my research project is *Relationship between Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Teacher Age, and Years of Experience of Teachers of Languages Other than English and their Perceived Leadership* and the purpose of my research is to add to the existing body of research on the predictive factors of teacher leadership among educators of languages other than English.

I am writing to request your permission to contact members of your faculty who teach languages other than English (LOTE) to invite them to participate in my research study. Participants will be asked to go to the website <https://www.surveymonkey.com> by clicking on the link provided in the invitation email and complete the survey. Participants will be presented with informed consent information prior to participating. Taking part in this study is voluntary, and participants are welcome to discontinue participation at any time.

Thank you for considering my request. If you choose to grant permission, please provide a signed statement on official letterhead indicating your approval. You may send it as an attachment by responding by email to [...]. A permission letter document is attached for your convenience.

Sincerely,

Maryna Svirska-Otero  
Doctoral Candidate

## Permission Letter Example

[Date]

Maryna Svirska-Otero  
Doctoral Candidate  
Liberty University  
Address

Dear Maryna Svirska-Otero:

After careful review of your research proposal entitled *Relationship between Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Teacher Age, and Years of Experience of Teachers of Languages Other than English and their Perceived Leadership*, I / we have decided to grant you permission to contact our faculty and invite them to participate in your study.

Check the following boxes, as applicable:

I am requesting a copy of the results upon study completion and/or publication.

Sincerely,

[Your Name]

[Your Title]

[Your Company/Organization]

## APPENDIX G

### Electronic Cover Letter of Invitation to Participate in the Study

Dear [Recipient]:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The title of my research project is *Relationship between Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Teacher Age, and Years of Experience of Teachers of Languages Other than English and Their Perceived Leadership*. The purpose of my research is to add to the existing body of research on the predictive factors of teacher leadership among educators of languages other than English. I am writing to invite eligible participants to join my study.

You were selected as a possible participant because you teach languages other than English and because your superintendent has granted permission to invite you to participate in the study. In order to participate, you must meet the following criteria:

Be over 18 years of age.

Hold a bachelor's degree or higher.

Speak a language other than English and be capable of providing instruction in it.

Hold a part-time or a full-time position as a teacher of a language or languages other than English in a K-12 school accredited by the Texas State Board of Education within Region 8 or Region 10.

Participants, if willing, will be asked to do the following things:

Complete a brief demographic questionnaire (Approximately 5 minutes).

Complete two online surveys:

Teachers' Efficacy-Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self) survey (Approximately 10 minutes).

Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) survey (Approximately 10 minutes).

It should take approximately 30 minutes or less to complete the procedures listed. Participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

After clicking on the survey link, participants will be directed to a screening survey and an informed consent document prior to participating. The consent document contains additional information about my research. After you have read the consent form, please click the button to proceed to the survey. Doing so will indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

Thank you for considering my invitation. Please click the link to proceed to the screening survey, followed by the consent document: [Link].

Sincerely,

Maryna Svirská-Otero  
Doctoral Candidate

### **Electronic Cover Letter of Invitation to Participate in the Study (Follow up)**

Dear [Recipient]:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The title of my research project is *Relationship between Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Teacher Age, and Years of Experience of Teachers of Languages Other than English and their Perceived Leadership*. Last week, an email was sent to you inviting you to participate in a research study. This follow-up email is being sent to remind you to respond by completing the survey if you would like to participate and have not already done so. The deadline for participation is [Date].

If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to complete a survey consisting of:

A brief demographic questionnaire (Approximately 5 minutes).

Two online surveys:

Teachers' Efficacy-Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self) survey (Approximately 10 minutes).

Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) survey (Approximately 10 minutes).

It should take approximately 30 minutes or less to complete the procedures listed. Participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

After clicking on the survey link, participants will be directed to a screening survey and an informed consent document prior to participating. The consent document contains additional information about my research. After you have read the consent form, please click the button to proceed to the survey. Doing so will indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

Thank you for considering my invitation. Please click the link to proceed to the screening survey, then the consent document: [Link].

Sincerely,

Maryna Svirska-Otero  
Doctoral Candidate



## APPENDIX H

### Participant Consent Form

**Title of the Study:** Relationship between Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Teacher Age, and Years of Experience of Teachers of Languages Other than English and Their Perceived Leadership

**Principal Researcher:** Maryna Svirskia-Otero, Doctoral Candidate; Liberty University, School of Education, Lynchburg, VA

#### Invitation to Participate in the Research Study

You are invited to participate in a research study investigating the effect of *teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience* on *teacher leadership*. You were selected as a possible participant because you teach languages other than English. In order to participate, you must meet the following criteria:

- Be over 18 years of age.
- Hold a bachelor's degree or higher.
- Speak a language other than English and be capable of providing instruction in a language other than English.
- Hold a part-time or a full-time employment as a teacher of a language or languages other than English in a K-12 school accredited by the Texas State Board of Education within Region 8 or Region 10.

Taking part in this research project is voluntary. Please take time to read this entire form and ask questions before deciding whether to take part in this research project.

#### What is the study about and why is it being done?

The purpose of the study is to determine how accurately teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience can predict teacher perception of teacher leadership among educators of languages other than English in schools in Texas. This will be quantitative predictive study. The primary research question for this study is:

**RQ1:** How accurately can teacher perception of teacher leadership be predicted from a linear combination of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, teacher age, and years of experience among educators of languages other than English?

#### What will happen if you take part in this study?

If you agree to be in this study, I will ask you to do the following things:

1. Complete a brief demographic questionnaire (Approximately 5 minutes).
2. Complete two online surveys:
  - a. Teachers' Efficacy-Beliefs System-Self (TEBS-Self) survey (Approximately 10 minutes).
  - b. Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) survey (Approximately 10 minutes).

### **How could you or others benefit from this study?**

Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society may include the following:

1. Increase public knowledge of languages other than English education.
2. Increase scientific knowledge of language education.
3. Contribute to the body of knowledge on the informal leadership of teachers of languages other than English.
4. Increase public awareness of the importance of language teacher leadership to properly advocate for language learners and their needs on multiple levels.

### **What risks might you experience from being in this study?**

**The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.**

### **How will personal information be protected?**

The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- Participant responses will be anonymous.
- Data will be stored on a password-locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.
- If participants would like to receive the results of this study, they are encouraged to contact the researcher by email at [email address].

### **How will you be compensated for being part of the study?**

Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

### **Is study participation voluntary?**

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University or your educational institution. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

### **What should you do if you decide to withdraw from the study?**

If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

### **Whom do you contact if you have questions or concerns about the study?**

The researcher conducting this study Maryna Svirská-Otero. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact her by phone at [phone number] or email at [email address]. You may also contact the researcher's faculty sponsor, Dr. Philip Alsup, at [email address].

**Whom do you contact if you have questions about your rights as a research participant?**

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at [irb@liberty.edu](mailto:irb@liberty.edu)

**Statement of Consent**

Before agreeing to be part of the research, please be sure that you understand what the study is about. You can print a copy of the document for your records. If you have any questions about the study later, you can contact the researcher/study team using the information provided above.

Please click this link to continue to the survey: [Link].

## APPENDIX I

### Participant Procedures and Instructions for TEBS-Self and TLI Instruments

#### Instructions: Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self (TEBS-Self) Survey Instrument

- The items that follow ask you to reflect on your perception of your self-efficacy beliefs as they relate to your teacher tasks. There are not wrong answers, so feel free to respond to each statement honestly. Your identity will be protected with security measures. Thank you for your cooperation.
- For each statement below, indicate the strength of your personal beliefs in your capabilities to perform the mentioned teacher tasks right now in your present teaching situation. Mark only one response per item.
- Teachers' Efficacy Belief System-Self Response scale:
  - 1. Weak beliefs in my capabilities
  - 2. Moderate beliefs in my capabilities
  - 3. Strong beliefs in my capabilities
  - 4. Very strong beliefs in my capabilities

#### Instructions: Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) Survey Instrument

- Teachers often take on leadership responsibilities in schools. Sometimes teachers are appointed to fulfill these responsibilities by the principal. Other times, teachers naturally take on leadership responsibilities because of their interest or expertise. Understanding teacher leadership, whether appointed or natural, is important to understanding how schools function effectively. The items that follow ask your opinion about various aspects of teacher leadership. There are no wrong answers, so feel free to respond to each

statement candidly. Your identity will be protected with security measures. Thank you for your cooperation.

- I wish to participate in this study.
- Yes  No
- For each statement below, indicate how often this occurs in your school. Mark only one response per item.
- Teacher Leadership Inventory Response Scale:
  - 4. Routinely
  - 3. Sometimes
  - 2. Seldom
  - 1. Never

## APPENDIX J

### Elsevier License Terms and Conditions by Elsevier and Copyright Clearance Center to

#### Reuse Table 1A in Appendix A - Teacher Efficacy Beliefs System—Self (TEBS-Self)

ELSEVIER LICENSE  
TERMS AND CONDITIONS  
May 19, 2021

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This Agreement between Mrs. Maryna Svirska-Otero ("You") and Elsevier ("Elsevier") consists of your license details and the terms and conditions provided by Elsevier and Copyright Clearance Center.

License Number	5072701079870
License date	May 19, 2021
Licensed Content Publisher	Elsevier
Licensed Content Publication	Teaching and Teacher Education
Licensed Content Title	Measuring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: Development and use of the TEBS-Self
Licensed Content Author	Amy B. Dellinger, Jacqueline J. Bobbett, Dianne F. Olivier, Chad D. Ellett
Licensed Content Date	Apr 1, 2008
Licensed Content Volume	24
Licensed Content Issue	3
Licensed Content Pages	16
Start Page	751
End Page	766
Type of Use	reuse in a thesis/dissertation
Portion	figures/tables/illustrations
Number of figures/tables/illustrations	1
Format	electronic
Are you the author of this Elsevier article?	No
Will you be translating?	No
Title	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS, TEACHER AGE, AND YEARS OF EXPERIENCE OF TEACHERS OF LANGUAGES OTHER THAN ENGLISH AND THEIR PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP

Institution name	Liberty University
Expected presentation date	Aug 2021
Portions	Table A1 in Appendix A
	Mrs. Maryna Svirska-Otero
	Address
Requestor Location	
	MOUNT PLEASANT, TX 75455
	United States
	Attn: 1983
Publisher Tax ID	98-0397604
Total	0.00 USD

## APPENDIX K

## Figures

Figure 1

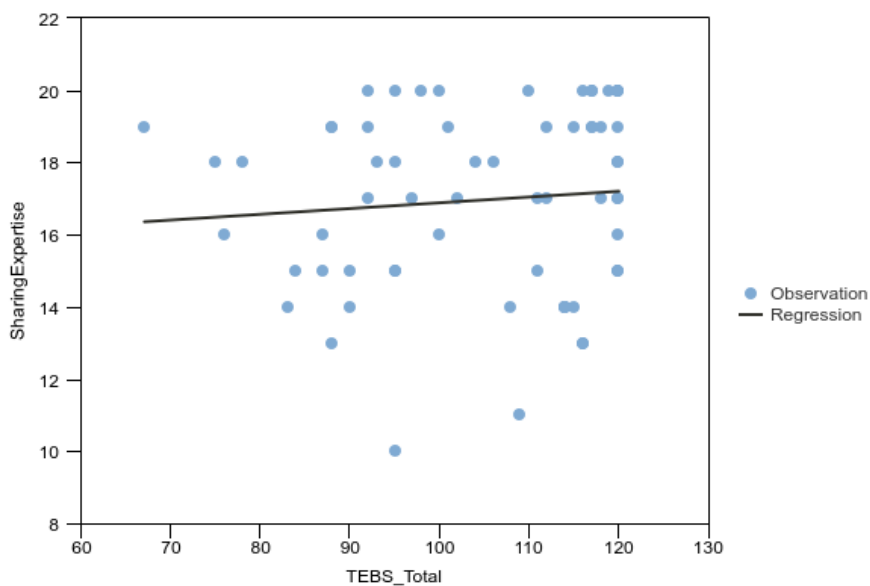
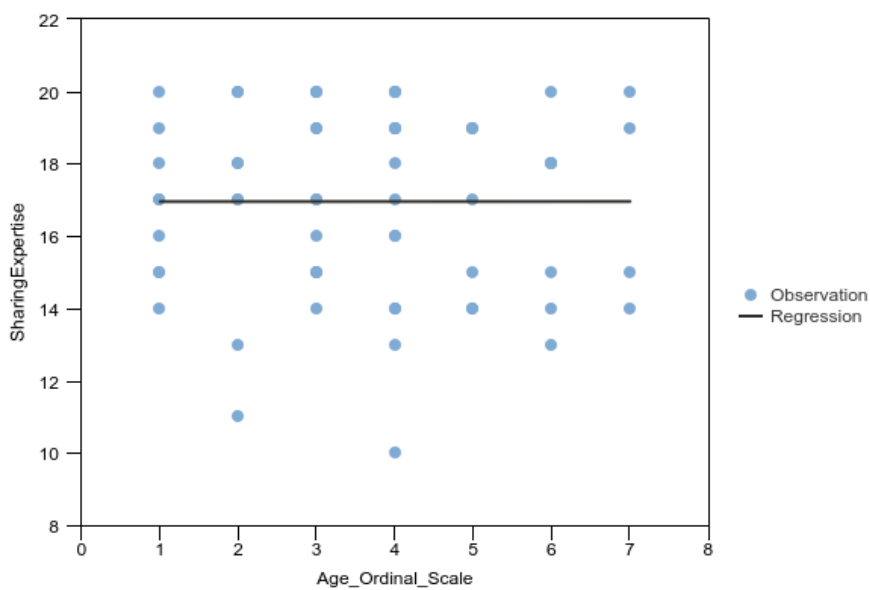
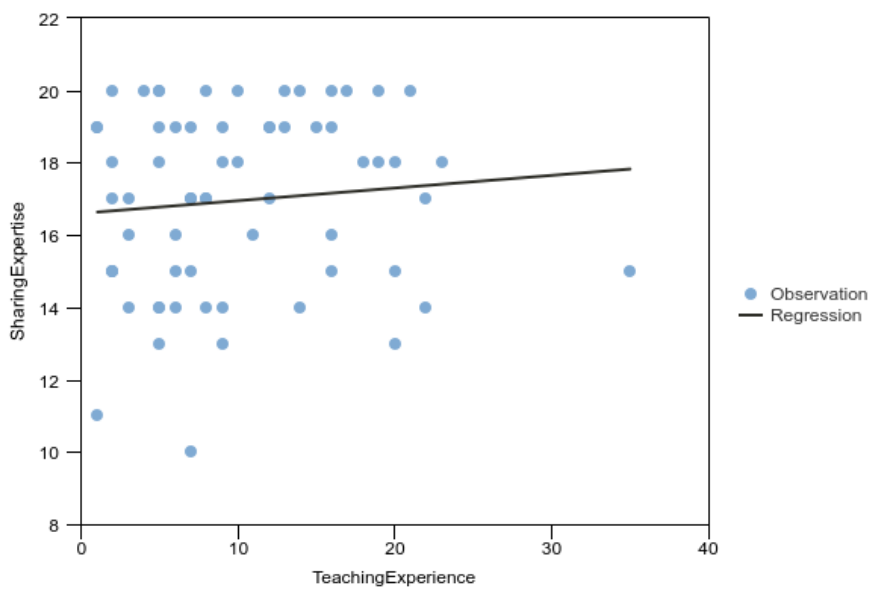
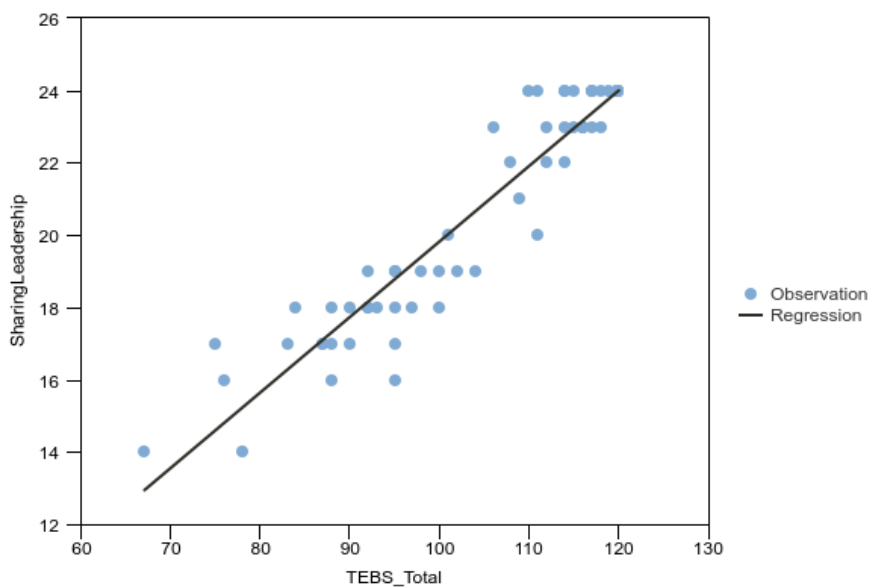
*Scatterplot of TEBS-Self\_Total and Sharing Expertise*

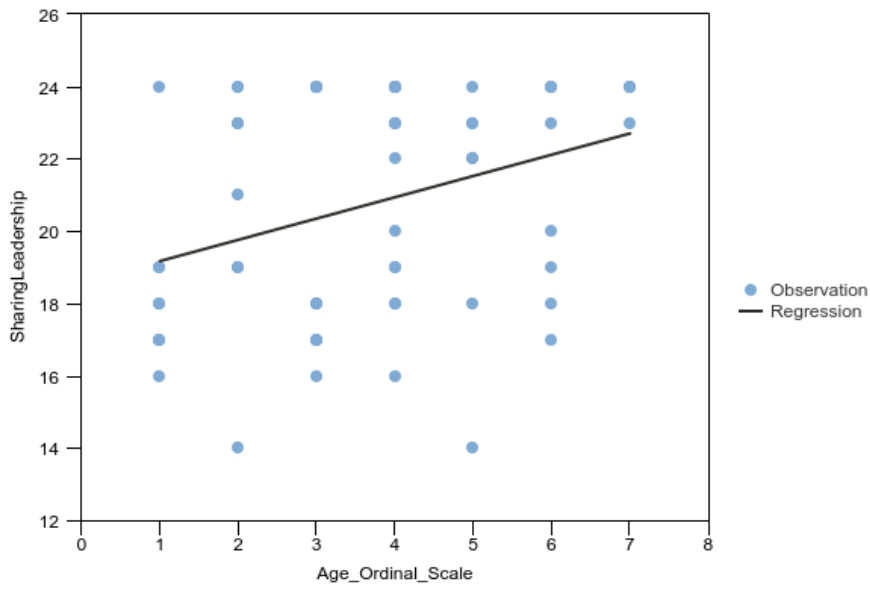
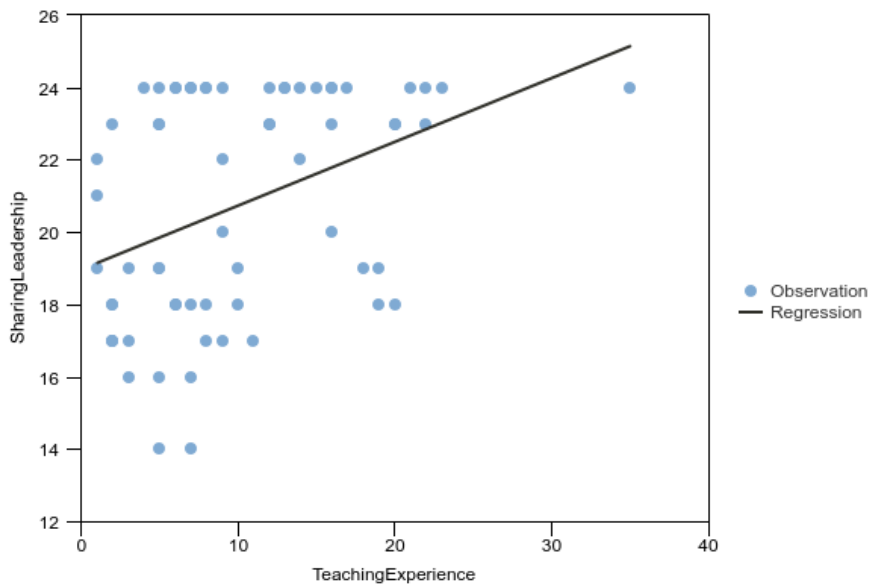
Figure 2

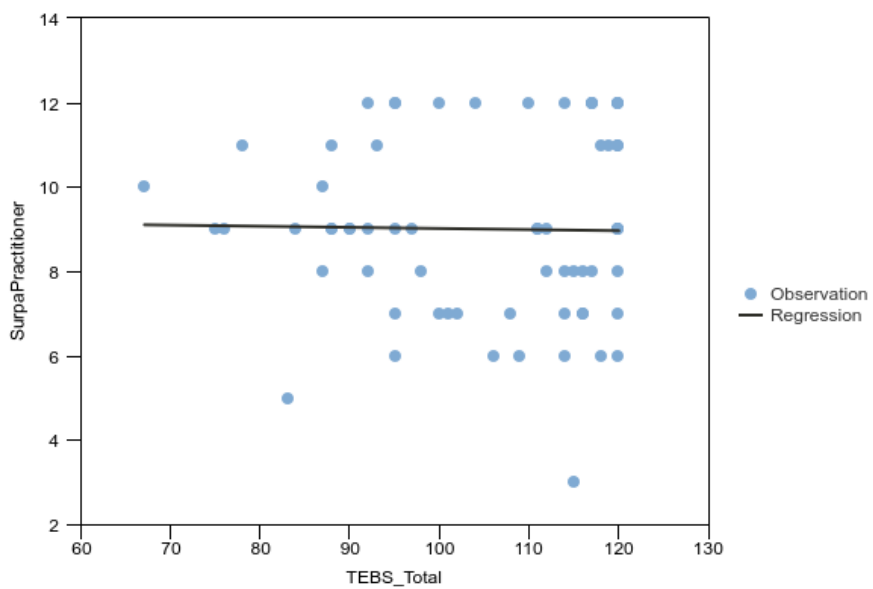
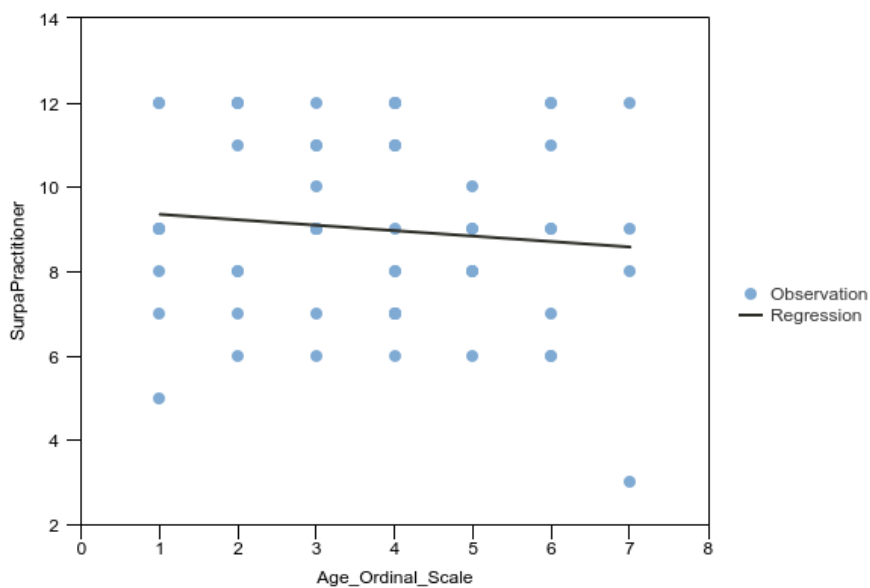
*Scatterplot of Age\_Ordinal\_Scale and Sharing Expertise*





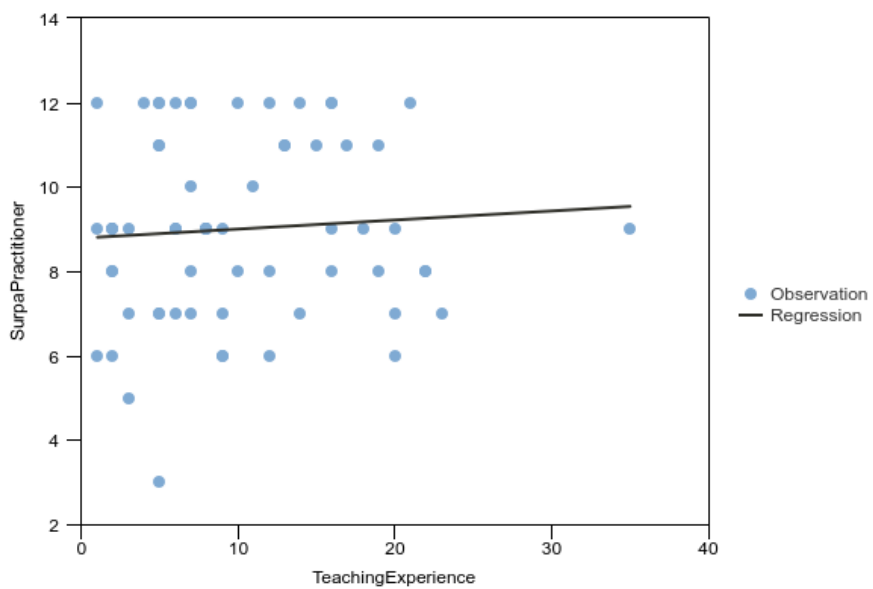
**Figure 3***Scatterplot of Teaching Experience and Sharing Expertise***Figure 4***Scatterplot of TEBS-Self\_Total and Sharing Leadership*

**Figure 5***Scatterplot of Age\_Ordinal\_Scale and Sharing Leadership***Figure 6***Scatterplot of Teaching Experience and Sharing Leadership*

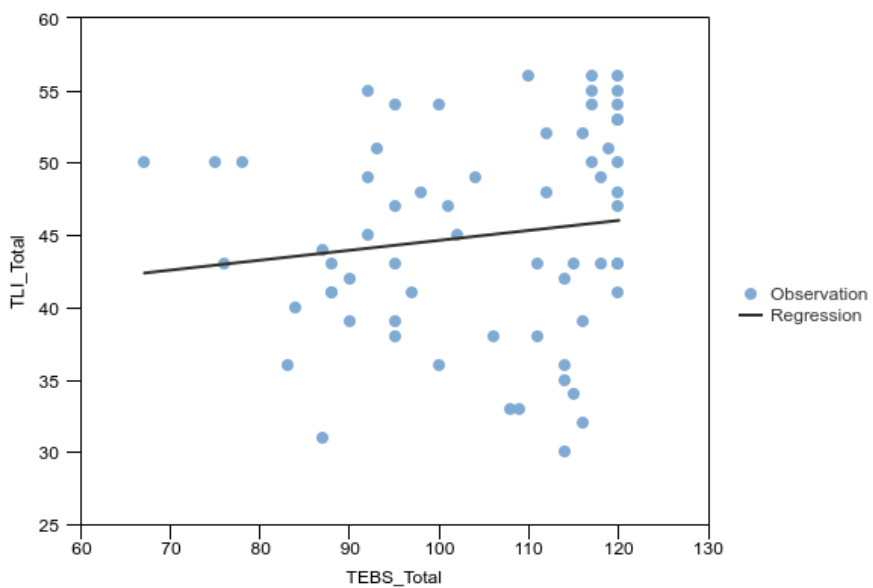
**Figure 7***Scatterplot of TEBS-Self\_Total and Surpa-Practitioner***Figure 8***Scatterplot of Age\_Ordinal\_Scale and Surpa-Practitioner*

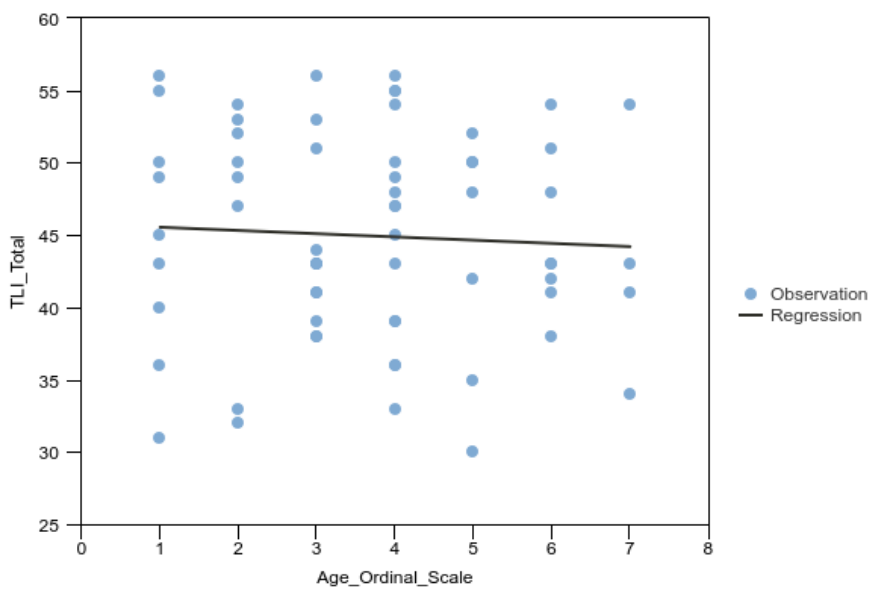
**Figure 9**

*Scatterplot of Teaching Experience and Surpa-Practitioner*

**Figure 10**

*Scatterplot of TEBS-Self\_Total and TLI\_Total*



**Figure 11***Scatterplot of Age\_Ordinal\_Scale and TLI\_Total***Figure 12***Scatterplot of Teaching Experience and TLI\_Total*