

## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Catalysts of change: Modelling teacher leadership for educational reform in the model teacher leadership in Shandong nursing educators

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## ABSTRACT

This study explores the multidimensional concept of teacher leadership among nursing college lecturers in Shandong Province, China. However, various barriers continue to impede the development of teacher leadership in China. These include inadequate policy support, limited professional training, and low levels of teacher awareness regarding leadership roles. Therefore, this study aims to develop a measurement model for nursing teacher leadership. A quantitative cross-sectional survey design was employed, involving 266 nursing college educators. Data were collected using a five-point Likert scale questionnaire comprising 42 measurement items, which were validated through face and content validity assessments, and analyzed using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to ensure the reliability and validity of the constructs with the aid of SEM Amos software. Through the reliability analysis, the findings indicated that all constructs achieved strong reliability, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.837 to 0.963. In addition, this study successfully developed a Nursing Teacher Leadership measurement model and validated 41 leadership behaviours encompassing dimensions such as self-awareness, change leadership, communication, diversity, instructional proficiency, and continuous improvement. These leadership behaviours among nursing lecturers were confirmed. The findings suggest that educators are ready to take on greater roles in decision-making, yet there is a need for professional development programs to enhance their instructional competencies. This study is expected to contribute to the literature on teacher leadership by providing empirical evidence from the Chinese context and emphasizing the importance of comprehensive support systems to develop leadership skills among nursing educators. Future research is recommended to expand the study across nursing colleges throughout China to allow for broader generalization of the findings.

**Keywords:** Teacher leadership; leadership development; nursing education; nursing college

## 1. Introduction

Teacher leadership has gained increasing prominence as a pivotal element in educational reform and school improvement efforts over the past decade<sup>[1]</sup>. No longer confined to the classroom, teachers are now expected to engage in collaborative practices, lead pedagogical innovation, and disseminate expertise among peers<sup>[2-5]</sup>. Research has consistently shown that teacher leadership enhances instructional quality,

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promotes student achievement, and supports the holistic development of schools<sup>[6-7]</sup>. Moreover, teacher leaders are increasingly recognized as influential actors in policy making and systemic reform<sup>[8]</sup>. The concept of collective efficacy, where teachers work together towards shared goals, has also been found to positively impact student outcomes<sup>[2-4]</sup>. As such, teacher leadership has evolved from being an optional responsibility to an essential component of effective school systems<sup>[7,9]</sup>.

In addition, the formation of teacher leadership is closely linked to identity development. Transitioning from a classroom educator to a teacher leader requires a shift in self-perception and professional identity<sup>[10]</sup>. This transformation is shaped by individual agency, institutional culture, and broader societal norms<sup>[11]</sup>.

Supportive school principals and collaborative environments have been identified as key enablers in nurturing leadership aspirations among teachers<sup>[12-13]</sup>. As teacher leadership becomes central to educational innovation and reform<sup>[7,14]</sup>, understanding how teacher identity evolves across cultural contexts becomes increasingly important. The reciprocal relationship between leadership and teacher self-efficacy, particularly within culturally grounded systems, underscores the need for leadership development programs that are both inclusive and responsive<sup>[15,16]</sup>.

The Chinese education context, however, presents unique structural and cultural complexities that influence teacher leadership development. Although the concept was introduced later than in Western contexts, around 2005<sup>[17]</sup>, it has gradually attracted scholarly and policy attention. Nevertheless, teachers in China, especially at the secondary level, often face challenges such as excessive administrative workloads and limited autonomy in decision making<sup>[11]</sup>. These structural constraints, together with institutional norms, continue to inhibit the full development of teacher leadership<sup>[18]</sup>.

Recent research, however, challenges the assumption that Chinese schools lack innovation and collaborative leadership. Distributed leadership, for instance, has been shown to positively affect teacher leadership dimensions in secondary schools<sup>[19]</sup>, and non-positional teacher leaders, those without formal authority, can effectively drive instructional reform when supported by recognition systems and mentoring structures<sup>[20]</sup>. Yet, hierarchical and top-down leadership models remain prevalent in many Chinese schools<sup>[21]</sup>. Furthermore, multiple barriers continue to hinder the development of teacher leadership in China. These include inadequate policy support, limited professional training, and low levels of teacher awareness regarding leadership roles<sup>[22]</sup>. Organizational and structural limitations further restrict opportunities for leadership development<sup>[23]</sup>. The centralized management system and limited channels for teacher participation reduce the potential for involvement in school decision making. There is also a lack of leadership preparation programs at the school level, creating a disconnect between policy initiatives and implementation<sup>[24]</sup>. Additional obstacles such as insufficient collaboration time, ineffective school leadership, rigid accountability measures, and limited in-school support further hinder the growth of professional learning communities. Cultural expectations, principal roles, and formal selection mechanisms also influence how teacher leadership identity is formed<sup>[25]</sup>.

Despite these challenges, teacher leadership continues to be recognized as a critical factor in supporting curriculum reform, enhancing student development, and improving school management. However, its implementation within the Chinese education system remains fragmented and underdeveloped. Research has shown that while many teachers believe they are capable of leading change and are willing to engage in decision making, they often lack confidence in their instructional abilities<sup>[22]</sup>. In addition, the literature is still heavily influenced by Western models, and there is limited empirical evidence that captures the contextual realities of Chinese schools<sup>[22,26]</sup>.

Given these gaps, there is an urgent need for rigorous and context-specific research that clarifies the definition and practices of teacher leadership in Chinese secondary schools. Such research must also aim to enhance instructional capacity alongside leadership development and identify professional development strategies that are effective for both novice and experienced teacher leaders. Consequently, the purpose of this study is to determine the dimensions of teacher leadership that are valid and reliable within the context of Shandong, China, through the application of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

## **2. Literature review**

Teacher leadership has become a vital component of educational reform across the globe. The role of teachers has evolved from being mere transmitters of knowledge to becoming active agents of change in instructional and institutional development<sup>[27]</sup>. Contemporary literature defines teacher leadership as the capacity of teachers to influence peers, school administrators, and the wider school community in efforts to enhance teaching and learning<sup>[22]</sup>. In Western educational systems, teacher leadership is commonly conceptualized through distributed leadership frameworks, which decentralize authority and foster collaborative practices among staff members<sup>[27]</sup>. Additionally, transformational leadership theory highlights the motivational and innovative influence of teacher leaders, particularly in leading pedagogical reforms<sup>[27]</sup>.

A growing body of research has explored the reciprocal relationship between teacher leadership and self-efficacy. Teachers with a strong belief in their instructional abilities are more inclined to adopt innovative strategies and overcome classroom challenges. In turn, involvement in leadership roles, such as mentoring colleagues or leading curriculum design, enhances their professional confidence and self-efficacy<sup>[27]</sup>. However, much of this research has been conducted within single educational systems, limiting the exploration of how cultural variables may influence this relationship.

Cross-cultural comparisons illustrate significant variation in the interpretation and enactment of teacher leadership. Western education systems tend to emphasize participatory governance and democratic engagement, encouraging teachers to lead professional development initiatives and participate in school decision-making processes<sup>[27]</sup>. In contrast, Eastern traditions particularly those influenced by Confucian values prioritize classroom expertise and moral character, with teachers deriving leadership legitimacy from subject mastery and ethical conduct<sup>[27]</sup>. These differences underscore the need for inclusive and culturally sensitive theoretical frameworks that account for varied educational traditions.

Cultural traditions in China play a significant role in shaping teacher leadership. Deep respect for seniority often results in experienced teachers being prioritized for leadership positions, while early-career teachers are discouraged from assuming such roles<sup>[11,28]</sup>. Furthermore, hierarchical social expectations limit the scope of teacher participation in leadership activities beyond instructional responsibilities<sup>[25,29]</sup>. Consequently, leadership identity is formed through a complex interplay of personal beliefs, school-level organizational factors, and broader cultural norms<sup>[25]</sup>. In higher education, cultural values such as harmony and socialism contribute to flatter organizational structures, which emphasize collaboration rather than hierarchical authority<sup>[30]</sup>. Within this context, collegial relationships and a positive school climate are vital to fostering teacher leadership<sup>[12]</sup>. These insights call for the design of leadership development programmes that are both culturally responsive and contextually relevant<sup>[31-32]</sup>.

Recent studies in Chinese schools have also highlighted the importance of organizational culture in shaping teacher leadership. Empirical evidence shows that clan and adhocracy cultures positively influence teacher leadership, while hierarchical and market-oriented cultures have adverse

effects<sup>[33]</sup>. Other contributing factors include individual teacher attributes, school culture, and principal leadership practices. Supportive professional environments, coupled with strong instructional leadership from school principals, have been shown to elevate early-career teachers' aspirations to assume leadership roles<sup>[12]</sup>. A healthy school culture is therefore essential to nurturing leadership behaviours and sustaining them over time<sup>[28]</sup>.

Distributed leadership approaches have also been linked to the growth of teacher leadership. Studies reveal that distributed leadership has a direct impact on teacher leadership and an indirect influence on organizational learning and teachers' self-efficacy<sup>[34]</sup>. Teachers often exhibit leadership more frequently within the classroom than in formal institutional settings<sup>[35]</sup>. Formal leaders tend to influence broad pedagogical norms, while informal teacher leaders shape specific instructional strategies<sup>[36]</sup>. Informal collaboration and interpersonal relationships remain central to the enactment of teacher leadership<sup>[5]</sup>. Virtual communities of practice also facilitate teacher leadership by enabling professional agency and shared leadership responsibilities<sup>[37]</sup>. Furthermore, departmental structures in schools provide natural settings for distributed leadership to flourish, with department heads often serving as teacher leaders<sup>[38]</sup>. Spillane et al.<sup>[39]</sup> argue that distributed leadership should be viewed as a practice embedded in and extended across multiple organizational and situational contexts.

Teacher leadership has been theorised through multiple perspectives, most notably distributed leadership, transformational leadership, and identity-based frameworks. In this study, distributed leadership Theory<sup>[38]</sup> serves as the primary foundation, as it conceptualises leadership as a practice stretched across leaders, followers, and organisational settings. This perspective underscores collaboration, interaction, and shared responsibility, reflecting the non-hierarchical character of teacher leadership. Complementing this, transformational leadership theory introduces a psychological dimension by emphasising the role of motivation, inspiration, and identity formation in shaping leadership practices. Taken together, these frameworks offer a comprehensive lens for understanding teacher leadership that integrates its structural enactment with its transformative potential.

**Table 1.** Mapping of teacher leadership constructs to theoretical bases

Construct	Distributed Leadership Basis	Transformational Leadership Basis
<b>Self-Awareness</b>	Recognising one's role and responsibilities in collective leadership practices	Reflecting on personal values, emotions, and strengths to build authentic influence
<b>Leading Change</b>	Mobilising collective capacity across the school for reform initiatives	Inspiring and motivating others to embrace innovation and move beyond established practices
<b>Communication</b>	Facilitating dialogue, negotiation, and shared sense-making across organisational levels	Using inspirational communication to articulate vision and foster collective commitment
<b>Diversity</b>	Engaging diverse expertise and perspectives in collaborative decision-making	Valuing individual differences and providing individualised consideration
<b>Instructional Proficiency</b>	Sharing pedagogical expertise through mentoring, co-teaching, and collaborative planning	Stimulating professional growth and modelling high expectations for teaching practice
<b>Continuous Improvement</b>	Embedding improvement as a shared responsibility within school communities	Encouraging innovation and reflective practice that leads to sustainable change
<b>Self-Organisation</b>	Structuring one's contributions within wider distributed systems of responsibility	Demonstrating autonomy and proactive behaviour that inspires and empowers others

As summarised in Table 1, the study's constructs Self-Awareness, Leading Change, Communication, Diversity, Instructional Proficiency, Continuous Improvement, and Self-Organisation are

mapped onto these two theoretical bases. Distributed leadership explains the collaborative and systemic dimensions, such as recognising collective responsibilities, mobilising change, and embedding school-wide improvement. Transformational leadership, meanwhile, accounts for how teachers inspire innovation, model professional growth, and construct leadership identities. This dual-theory mapping portrays teacher leadership both as a shared practice and a transformational process, establishing the theoretical foundation for this study.

To further understand the structural dimensions of teacher leadership, researchers have increasingly relied on Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to validate theoretical models across different cultural and institutional contexts. In Malaysia, Yusof et al.<sup>[40]</sup> validated a three-factor structure, while Karmani<sup>[41]</sup> proposed a four-factor framework. Similarly, in the United States, Angelle and DeHart found that teacher leadership is best represented by four distinct dimensions. In China, Wang and Xia<sup>[42]</sup> and Sun et al.<sup>[43]</sup> developed culturally appropriate instruments for early childhood education and private universities, respectively, identifying four- and seven-domain models. In a broader Asian context, Akkaraputtapong et al.<sup>[44]</sup> validated a five-factor model among in-service teachers. Other contributions to the field include the construction of typologies of teacher leadership<sup>[45]</sup> and investigations into its role in facilitating professional growth and school development<sup>[46]</sup>.

In conclusion, literature positions teacher leadership as a multifaceted and context-dependent construct. Western models commonly focus on shared decision-making and instructional transformation, whereas Eastern models prioritize ethical leadership and content expertise. In China, while research into teacher leadership continues to expand, ongoing challenges such as policy ambiguity, lack of formal training, and limited cross-institutional studies remain. Addressing these issues through empirical validation, culturally grounded theoretical development, and inclusive leadership training can significantly advance the field and empower teachers as catalysts for sustainable educational reform.

### **3. Materials and methods**

This quantitative study uses a cross-sectional survey design. This research design is chosen because of the ability to investigate almost all problems and questions and save time and money. Data can be directly collected from the research sample to obtain the study variables information. The data were collected using a five-point scale questionnaire distributed online with 43 measurement items and distributed to 300 randomly selected nurses from nursing colleges in Shandong province. Items were adapted from existing teacher leadership scale and newly modified for nursing education context. The adaptation process included forward-backward translation, interviews with 12 nursing educators, and an expert panel of five specialists (two in nursing education, two in educational leadership, one in psychometrics) to ensure cultural and sectoral relevance. Pretests confirmed item clarity and content validity before survey administration. After the normality test only 266 respondents were accepted for further analysis. Although random sampling was employed from three nursing colleges in Shandong, the final sample ( $N=266$ ) was predominantly female (95.1%) and clustered in certain age groups, reflecting the gendered workforce composition of Chinese nursing education. This limits broader generalizability. Future research should test the model across provinces, genders, and institutional types using multi-group invariance analysis. The ratio of sample size (266) to items (42) is slightly below the 10:1 benchmark<sup>[47]</sup>. While model fit indices are acceptable, replication with larger samples is recommended to confirm the stability of the structure of the factor. Rated on a five-point Likert Scale, the questionnaire underwent thorough validation, and reliability checks to ensure accuracy and robustness in measuring teachers' leadership. Initial validation included face validity and content validity through consultations with

statisticians and field experts. Additionally, internal consistencies were assessed using Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) values, aiming for a minimum of 0.7.

The data analysis for this study was conducted using IBM SPSS and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), specifically through the application of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to validate the dimensional structure of the constructs. CFA was employed to assess unidimensionality, construct validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability<sup>[47-48]</sup>. For unidimensionality, factor loadings below 0.50 were rejected<sup>[48-49]</sup>. Ideally, each item should load at 0.708 or higher; however, external loadings of 0.40 and above are acceptable under certain conditions<sup>[50]</sup>.

Convergent validity was established when the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) exceeded 0.50, while discriminant validity was confirmed when the square root of the AVE for each construct was greater than the correlations between constructs<sup>[48-49]</sup>. Construct validity was evaluated through overall model fit indices, including Chi-Square (CMIN), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Parsimony-Adjusted Normed Fit Index (PNFI), and Parsimony Comparative Fit Index (PCFI). Acceptable thresholds included a non-significant Chi-Square ( $p > 0.05$ ), CFI values above 0.90 (values between 0.80 and 0.89 are marginally acceptable), RMSEA less than 0.08 (acceptable up to 0.10), and PNFI and PCFI values exceeding 0.50<sup>[51-52]</sup>.

Reliability was assessed using Composite Reliability (CR), with values greater than 0.708 considered acceptable for established items, while values above 0.60 were deemed sufficient for newly developed items<sup>[49]</sup>. All items were required to demonstrate positive and unidirectional loading. Together, these criteria ensured that the measurement model possessed strong psychometric properties for use in subsequent structural analyses.

## 4. Results

The study sample comprised 266 respondents, predominantly female (95.1%), with males representing only 4.9%. The majority were aged between 41–50 years (48.9%), followed by 31–40 years (32.0%), 51–60 years (15.8%), and above 60 years (3.4%). Most participants held a bachelor's degree (44.4%), while others had master's degrees (22.9%), PhD (3.0%), or other qualifications (29.7%). In terms of teaching experience, 43.6% had 5 years or less, 24.1% had 6–10 years, 25.6% had 11–20 years, and 6.8% had more than 20 years. The current roles of the participants included clinical instructors (38.7%), nurse educators at universities or schools (10.9%), and other positions (50.4%).

### 4.1. The reliability analysis of teacher leadership scale

This study assessed the internal consistency reliability of seven key constructs related to teacher leadership: Self-Awareness (SA), Leading Change (LC), Communication (CM), Diversity (DV), Instructional Proficiency and leadership (IP), Continuous Improvement (CI), and Self-Organisation (SO). Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were calculated for each construct to evaluate the extent to which the items within each scale consistently measured their respective latent variables using SPSS, with the results presented in Table 1.

**Table 2.** The reliability analysis of teacher leadership

Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Interpretation
Self-Awareness (SA)	6	0.872	Excellent
Leading Change (LC)	6	0.897	Excellent
Communication (CM)	6	0.901	Excellent

Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Interpretation
Diversity (DV)	6	0.931	Excellent
Instructional Proficiency and Leadership (IP)	6	0.837	Good
Continuous Improvement (CI)	6	0.963	Outstanding
Self-Organisation (SO)	6	0.951	Outstanding

**Table 2.** (Continued)

Based on table 1, the results demonstrate strong reliability across all constructs. Cronbach's Alpha values ranged from 0.837 to 0.963, indicating acceptable to outstanding internal consistency. Specifically, the constructs of Self-Awareness ( $\alpha = 0.872$ ), Leading Change ( $\alpha = 0.897$ ), Communication ( $\alpha = 0.901$ ), and Diversity ( $\alpha = 0.931$ ) all achieved alpha values above 0.85, falling within the "Excellent" range according to conventional interpretation guidelines. These results reflect a high degree of interrelatedness within each of these scales. Instructional Proficiency (IP), while slightly lower, still demonstrated strong reliability with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.837, which is categorized as "Good." This suggests that the scale is adequately reliable, though future refinement could potentially enhance its measurement precision. The most reliable internal consistency was observed in the constructs of Continuous Improvement ( $\alpha = 0.963$ ) and Self-Organisation ( $\alpha = 0.951$ ), both of which fall into the Outstanding category. Such high alpha values indicate a very strong correlation among items, affirming the cohesiveness and reliability of the measurements for these constructs. In conclusion, the reliability analysis confirms that all seven constructs used in this study demonstrate acceptable to outstanding levels of internal consistency. This supports the use of these constructs in further statistical analysis, such as Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), as reliable indicators of teacher leadership dimensions.

#### 4.2. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis

Although this study primarily employed CFA to validate the proposed model, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in the pretest stage ( $N=50$ ) to refine items. EFA results indicated a seven-factor solution consistent with theoretical expectations, supporting the use of CFA in the main analysis. To examine the suitability of the data for factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were conducted. The results indicated that the KMO value was .920, which exceeds the recommended minimum value of .60[54] (Kaiser, 1974) and falls within the outstanding category as shown in Table 2. This demonstrates that the patterns of correlations are compact, and the sample is highly adequate for factor analysis. In addition, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(21) = 1679.41$ ,  $p < .001$ , indicating that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. This confirms that sufficient correlations exist among the items to justify factor analysis. Taken together, these results suggest that the dataset is highly appropriate for factor extraction, and the subsequent factor analysis is expected to yield reliable and valid results.

**Table 3.** KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.920
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1679.407
	df	21
	Sig.	<.001

Next, factor analysis was done to validate the construct and indicators proposed in the teachers' leadership, as shown in Table 2. Overall, the 42 proposed item indicators obtained a factor loading higher than 0.5 and all functions showed the standard load value, AVE, and CR required in measuring the function of the teacher leadership.

**Table 4.** Standard factor loading, convergent validity, composite reliability and discriminant validity

Construct	FL	AVE	CR	$\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$
Self-Awareness	0.602 - 0.815	0.651	0.916	0.807
Leading Change	0.712 - 0.792	0.546	0.881	0.739
Communication	0.695 - 0.832	0.567	0.884	0.753
Diversity	0.780 - 0.832	0.505	0.892	0.778
Instructional proficiency and leadership	*0.346 - 0.930	0.595	0.872	0.778
Continuous improvement	0.820 - 0.908	0.756	0.951	0.870
Self-organisation	0.800 - 0.939	0.799	0.945	0.894

Note: \*Remark: Item IP3 was deleted due of low factor loading.

Generally, all constructs met the criteria for factor loading (FL), composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and the square root of AVE ( $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ ). The Instructional Proficiency and Leadership (IP) construct initially contained an item (IP3) with a low factor loading (0.346), which was subsequently removed to improve model fit. The values FL, C.R, AVE and  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  for constructs SA (FL = 0.602–0.815,

AVE = 0.651, CR = 0.916,  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  = 0.807), LC (FL = 0.712–0.792, AVE = 0.546, CR = 0.881,  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  =

0.739), CM (FL = 0.695–0.832, AVE = 0.567, CR = 0.867,  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  = 0.753), DV (FL = 0.780–0.832, AVE =

0.505, CR = 0.892,  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  = 0.710), IP (FL = 0.456–0.930, AVE = 0.595, CR = 0.872,  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  = 0.772), CI

(FL = 0.820–0.908, AVE = 0.756, CR = 0.951,  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  = 0.870) and SO (FL = 0.800 – 0.939, AVE = 0.799,

C.R = 0.945,  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  = 0.894). The item “I have a reputation for being competent in the classroom” (IP3) was removed due to a low factor loading (0.35). Panel review indicated contextual misfit in nursing education, leadership is perceived as extending beyond classroom competence to clinical supervision and role modeling. Its removal improved the Instructional Proficiency construct's validity. After deleted the IP3 item

the values of AVE, CR and  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  are increase for instructional proficiency and leadership construct (IP (FL = 0.508–0.930, AVE = 0.625, CR = 0.878,  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  = 0.791).

The next step of CFA is to check convergent validity. Convergent validity is a method for determining the validity of concepts and measuring construct claims. This approach can be considered successful when all items in the measurement models are significant. Convergent validity is assessed using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value, which must be more than 0.50 (AVE > 0.50). Items that do not have loading factors above 0.50 should be excluded. In this investigation, all dimensions' AVE values are above the minimum threshold of 0.50, as shown in Table 2. The construct of self- organization (SO) had the highest AVE value of 0.799, while the construct of Diversity (DV) had the lowest at 0.505. As a result, we can conclude that the convergent validity of the model was achieved and accepted.

Next, discriminant validity was assessed using the Fornell-Larcker criterion, whereby the square root of the Average Variance Extracted ( $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ ) for each construct should be greater than its correlations with



anyother construct in the model . The table 3 below summarises the comparison between  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  values (on thediagonal) and inter-construct correlations (off-diagonal).

**Table 5.** Summary of correlation value between constructs (bold values are  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  values)

SO	CI	IP	DV	CM	LC	SA
0.894						
0.878	0.870					
0.700	0.754	0.791				
0.763	0.821	0.782	0.778			
0.734	0.79	0.753	0.821	0.753		
0.686	0.739	0.576	0.767	0.739	0.739	
0.707	0.68	0.726	0.791	0.761	0.711	0.807

Referring to table 3, the  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  values for each construct are as follows, Self-Organisation (SO) = 0.894, Continuous Improvement (CI) = 0.870, Instructional Proficiency and Leadership (IP) = 0.791, Diversity (DV) = 0.778, Communication (CM) = 0.753, Leading Change (LC) = 0.739, and Self-Awareness (SA) = 0.807. Upon examining the table, it is evident that all constructs meet the Fornell-Larcker criterion. Forexample, the  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  of Self-Organisation (0.894) exceeds its correlations with CI (0.878), IP (0.763), DV (0.734), CM (0.686), LC (0.707), and SA (0.707). Similarly, Continuous Improvement demonstrates a  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  of 0.870, which is higher than its correlations with SO (0.878), IP (0.821), DV (0.79), CM (0.739), LC (0.68), and SA (0.68).

Moreover, constructs such as IP, DV, and CM also demonstrate acceptable discriminant validity, where their  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  values (IP = 0.791, DV = 0.778, CM = 0.753) are greater than all inter-construct correlations. Significantly, even the lowest  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  value (for LC = 0.739) remains greater than its highest correlation (0.739 with both CM and SA), meeting the minimum threshold.

In conclusion, all constructs in the model exhibit satisfactory discriminant validity as per the Fornell-Larcker criterion. This finding confirms that each construct is empirically distinct and captures phenomena not represented by other constructs in the model. This suggests that each construct demonstrates good convergent validity, as the CR values indicate that the indicators for each construct are reliably measuring the same underlying concept.

Finally, to evaluate construct validity there are several criteria to determine the fitness of the model which are called as root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI) and Chi-square/degrees of freedom (Chi-sq/df). These criteria must be concurrent so that the measured models will reach the required level of the fit indexes.

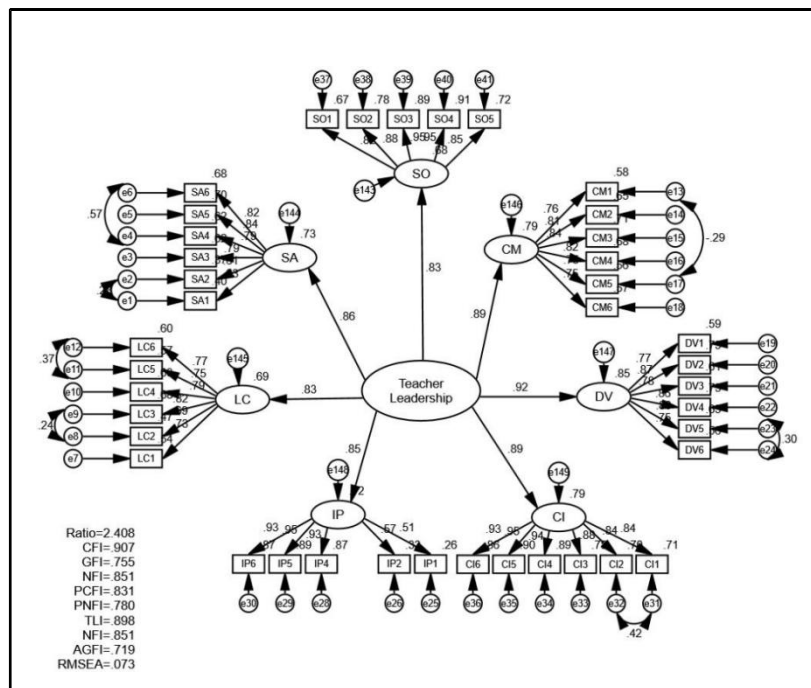
As shown in Table 4, The results of the model fit indices for the Teachers' Leadership Model indicate an acceptable level of model-data fit based on established thresholds. The absolute fit index, RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), is 0.073, which falls within the acceptable range of less than 0.08, suggesting a reasonable error of approximation. The incremental fit index, CFI (Comparative Fit Index), is 0.907, exceeding the minimum recommended value of 0.90, indicating a good fit when compared to a null model. Furthermore, the parsimonious fit index, represented by the Chi-square/df ratio, is 2.408, which is well within the acceptable threshold of less than 5.0. Collectively, these results demonstrate that the model achieves an adequate level of goodness-of-fit across all categories, affirming the structural soundness of the

Teachers' Leadership Model for further analysis.

**Table 6.** Teachers' Leadership Model Fitness Index

Category	Index	Index value	Result
Absolute fit	RMSEA	0.073	The required level is achieved
Incremental fit	CFI	0.907	The required level is achieved
Parsimonious fit	Chisq/df	2.408	The required level is achieved

Finally, the nursing teachers' leadership measurement model was successfully developed and validated with 7 constructs and 42 indicator items representing the behavior as show in figure 1.



**Figure 1.** The final nursing teacher leadership measurement model

Thus, from the final model it can be concluded that the validity of the seven proposed constructs of teacher leadership is acceptable. The following table 5 shows the indicators or behaviors accepted in teacher leadership for Nursing Educators in Shandong Province, China.

**Table 7.** Indicators or behaviors accepted in teachers leadership

Constructs	Suggested behaviours	Rejected behaviour	Accepted behaviours
Self Awareness	6	0	6
Leading Change	6	0	6
Communication	6	0	6
Diversity	6	0	6
Instructional proficiency and leadership	6	1	5
Continuous Improvement	6	0	6
Self Organisation	6	0	6
Total	42	1	41

## 5. Discussion

The findings of this study provide strong empirical support for the reliability and validity of a multidimensional Teacher Leadership measurement model for nursing educators in Shandong Province, China. The model encompasses seven theoretically grounded constructs namely Self-Awareness, Leading Change, Communication, Diversity, Instructional Proficiency and Leadership, Continuous Improvement, and Self-Organisation and each of which demonstrated acceptable to outstanding internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.837 to 0.963. These results align with previous research indicating that leadership behaviors among educators are multifaceted and interrelated, particularly in professional disciplines such as nursing<sup>[2-4]</sup>.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) further reinforced the robustness of the model. All constructs met the required thresholds for factor loadings, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE), with AVE values exceeding the 0.50 criterion and CR values consistently above 0.87. Notably, the construct of Instructional Proficiency and Leadership required the removal of one item (IP3) due to a low factor loading (0.346), which subsequently improved its overall convergent validity. These results support the structural coherence of the model and its applicability in evaluating leadership behaviors specific to the nursing education context.

Furthermore, the discriminant validity assessment using the Fornell-Larcker criterion confirmed that each construct was empirically distinct. The square root of AVE ( $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ ) values for all constructs exceeded inter-construct correlations, demonstrating clear conceptual separation among the dimensions of teacher leadership. The constructs of Self-Organisation and Continuous Improvement exhibited particularly high  $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$  values (0.894 and 0.870, respectively), suggesting strong construct integrity and minimal conceptual overlap.

The model's structural adequacy was further supported by the goodness-of-fit indices. The model showed acceptable fit across all categories, including RMSEA (0.073), CFI (0.907), and Chi-square/df (2.408), all of which fall within recommended thresholds<sup>[53]</sup>. This affirms the suitability of the proposed measurement model for evaluating teacher leadership practices in nursing education, particularly in the Chinese cultural context, where leadership hierarchies and collectivist norms shape professional roles.

Overall, the findings suggest that nursing educators in China exhibit a strong foundation in leadership behaviors, especially in communication, continuous improvement, and change leadership. However, the slightly lower reliability in the instructional proficiency domain highlights the need for targeted professional development to enhance pedagogical competence. This is particularly important in nursing education, where educators must serve not only as instructors, but also as clinical and ethical role models.

**6. Conclusion** This study successfully developed and validated a comprehensive Teacher Leadership measurement model comprising seven constructs and 42 behavioral indicators, of which 41 were empirically supported. The model demonstrates strong internal consistency as well as significant convergent and discriminant validity, and acceptable model fit indices, confirming its relevance for assessing teacher leadership among nursing educators in China. Unlike prior Chinese teacher leadership scales<sup>[42-43]</sup>, this model is sector-specific to nursing education, incorporating clinical competencies, ethical modelling, and continuous improvement. This adds domain relevance and extends teacher leadership measurement into professional health education.

The study contributes to the growing body of literature on teacher leadership by offering a context-specific model tailored to the nursing education sector. It underscores the need to equip educators with competencies beyond instructional delivery, particularly in change leadership, self-organisation, and continuous improvement. Future studies are encouraged to replicate this model across other provinces and educational contexts to improve generalizability and explore the impact of teacher leadership on student learning and institutional performance.

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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## Appendix

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.920
Approx. Chi-Square		1679.407
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df	21
	Sig.	<.001

### Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
SO	<---	Teacher_Leadership	.826
LC	<---	Teacher_Leadership	.831
CM	<---	Teacher_Leadership	.889
DV	<---	Teacher_Leadership	.923
CI	<---	Teacher_Leadership	.889
IP	<---	Teacher_Leadership	.847
SA	<---	Teacher_Leadership	.856
SA1	<---	SA	.629
SA2	<---	SA	.610
SA3	<---	SA	.790
SA4	<---	SA	.790
SA5	<---	SA	.837
SA6	<---	SA	.822
LC1	<---	LC	.735
LC2	<---	LC	.689
LC3	<---	LC	.823
LC4	<---	LC	.792
LC5	<---	LC	.753
LC6	<---	LC	.775
CM1	<---	CM	.763
CM2	<---	CM	.808
CM3	<---	CM	.841
CM4	<---	CM	.822
CM5	<---	CM	.750
CM6	<---	CM	.754

			<b>Estimate</b>
DV1	<---	DV	.770
DV2	<---	DV	.866
DV3	<---	DV	.780
DV4	<---	DV	.864
DV5	<---	DV	.805
DV6	<---	DV	.750
IP1	<---	IP	.507
IP2	<---	IP	.573
IP4	<---	IP	.933
IP5	<---	IP	.946
IP6	<---	IP	.933
CI1	<---	CI	.844
CI2	<---	CI	.836
CI3	<---	CI	.885
CI4	<---	CI	.944
CI5	<---	CI	.949
CI6	<---	CI	.926
SO1	<---	SO	.821
SO2	<---	SO	.884
SO3	<---	SO	.946
SO4	<---	SO	.954
SO5	<---	SO	.849

*(Continued)*